EDITORS

European Conference on Curriculum Studies

Future Directions:
Uncertainty and Possibility

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INTRODUCTION

The University of Minho is hosting the European Conference on Curriculum Studies, under the general theme "Future Directions: Uncertainty and Possibility" during October 2013 (18th and 19th). Euro-ACS is a research network on curriculum studies, not restricted to European scholars, but concerned directly with the state of the field of curriculum studies in Europe.

The association aims to contribute to the development of collaborative research efforts among scholars interested on Curriculum Studies and to promote curriculum research in Europe. In order to contribute to the advancement of curriculum studies in Europe, Euro-ACS organized the "European Conference on Curriculum Studies. Future Directions: Uncertainty and Possibility".

This conference focuses on theoretical and practical issues concerning education and training, by addressing traditional issues such as curriculum design and evaluation as well as more recent issues which have been emerging in the field of curriculum studies. Such recent issues include, but are not limited to, the social, political and economic contingencies of curriculum; contemporary analysis of curricular practices and discourses, and local and global dimensions of teaching and learning.

The goal of making the European Union the most competitive space in the world, based on knowledge economy, requires a deep debate on the role of Curriculum Studies for the production of new knowledge and its dissemination trough teaching and training, for which ICT plays a fundamental role. Questioning Curriculum Studies and studying educational experiences in formal and non-formal contexts also involves different perspectives, such as those from multicultural education, cultural studies and critical theory.

This conference is held in the context of an information society in which the interface between the capacity to communicate and education sustains generalized questioning. We are aware, with Morin (2000), that the future's main vector of characterization is its uncertainty, which is also its main leaver for opportunity. Thus, the European Conference on Curriculum Studies suggests deep reflections and debates around its subjet: Future Directions: Uncertainty and Possibility, aiming to constitute a reference of

creative and critical promotion of the development of curriculum studies in the national and international contexts.

Nowadays, the world-culture benefits from close dialogues between theoretical perspectives on curriculum and their articulation with formal, informal and non-formal learning environments, considers learning is certainly working with others and an opportunity for inclusive working and responding to diversity. To include is to learn a sense of collective belonging, a way of organizing life and the environments we lead; it is a way of knowledge which implies a vision of society, of universalization and an active and democratic participation by all, in respect for diversity.

Within this complex scenario, and defying the socioeconomic frailty that shadows over Europe, the European Conference for Curriculum Studies proposes to revive some old tensions between curriculum theory, educational practice and curriculum policy, questioning the precariousness of globalized knowledge in an ever transitioning society, as an opportunity for answering present issues, while looking to the future.

Communications present theoretical discussions or research products concerning curricular policies and practices. All papers concern the following Conference Themes:

1. Curriculum and supranational policies
2. Curriculum and accountability
3. Higher education: curricular challenges
4. Curricular practices and discourses
5. Curriculum studies: theoretical and methodological perspectives
6. Curriculum: in between the social and the personal
7. Curriculum, internationalisation and cosmopolitanism

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THEME 1

CURRICULUM AND SUPRANATIONAL POLICIES

Curriculum Policy in Action: Distributed Social Construction of Curriculum Policy and Its Dynamic from Chinese Experience and Discourse (ECCS)

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Abstract

The widespread government involvement in curriculum reform has made curriculum policy a popular research topic. The traditional understanding of curriculum policy refers to policy in text that displays the formal intent or authorative statement of government in "contextuality" (Lasswell, 1951). However, curriculum policy is never a static or linear snapshot of the context; it is practically a distributed social constructive process of sense-making and re-making with the changing context. Curriculum policy is continuously reconstructed and evolved as it transfers among contextualized localities (Ball, 2006), differentiated groups and individuals in action. The focus of the article is to reveal the tension and complexity of curriculum policy in action with the sense of time and space. The analysis takes the 10+ years' curriculum policy change in Chinese context as an exemplar.

The first clue of the analysis is to examine the travels of curriculum policy in China from central government to local authorities, schools and classrooms from system policy level to school institutional level and classroom subject level, explaining how in different places and level of the system the representation of curriculum policy is re-contextualized or re-invented (Darling-Hammond, 2005) with substantial differences, revealing unstable features of curriculum policy in action facing the conflicts of the traditional compliance-based, mandatory and bureaucratic power relationship of Chinese political system and new pursuit of power decentralization and local autonomy in the system. The second clue of the analysis is focused on the remodelling of curriculum policy among different policy agents in Chinese context, explains how the distributed cognition(Spillane, Reiser & Gomez, 2006) and differentiated interests among people functions in reframing the policy connotation and practice, particularly the conflicts of different policy discourses among and within various agents(policy makers, academics, the public and practioners), the individualized and socially constructed understanding of curriculum policy, as well as the confinement of social cognitive system (Scott, 2011), which make curriculum policy a distributed social and political construct. The paper also tries to propose "propositions" (Foucault, 1991) to invite more focus on curriculum policy in action, and explore how the dynamic process is interact with people and places in changing context (Hong, 2006), how it precedes the policy statements (Elmore & Skyes, 1992), and finally becomes a complex and distributed reality.

Keywords: curriculum policy; social political construction; re-contextualization; distributed cognition

1   Introduction

Curriculum change has been the core of education development since the 20th century. Especially after the 1980s, the new trend of curriculum change across the world has impelled curriculum reform to develop from incremental reform to restructuring and system-wide changes (Raywid, 1996). This new trend has also triggered widespread government involvement and policy arrangements at both the central and local levels in curriculum reform, publishing policy documents, working agendas, and guidelines to manage nationwide and systematic changes. "Policy is thus an instrument through which change is mapped onto exiting policies, programmes or organizations, and onto the demands made by particular interest groups" (Taylor, Rizvi, Lingard, & Henry, 1997). Because of the increasing visibility, the research on curriculum policy has entered the stream of education policy research and has become a distinctive field of inquiry.

1.1   From Policy in Text to Policy in Action

When talking about curriculum policy, we first consider them as "textual interventions into practice" (Ball, 2006). As official representation of formal intent or authorative statement from government, curriculum policy determines the procedures and principals that mediate the curriculum actions in schools and the official requirements for schools and teachers. However, curriculum policy is neither a static or linear snapshot of the context, nor "it is

simply made and then implemented (or not implemented)" (Elmore & Sykes, 1992) as intended. As is encoded in complex ways, curriculum policy is also decoded in complex ways during the process of its realization. Curriculum policy is interpreted, shaped, recreated at various levels in different arenas, it is reconstructed and evolved as it transfers among contextualized localities (Ball, 2006), differentiated groups and individuals. In this sense, it is important for us to break away from the "text" oriented perspective, and care more about the reflective, changing and becoming nature of curriculum policy in action interacting with varied settings and differentiated actors. It is also the focus of this article to explore the tension, complexity and plural representations of curriculum policy in action against the contrived uniformity of curriculum policy in static state.

1.2 Framework

Since 1960s, as a great many curriculum reforms failed during the implementation process although they were well designed, "policy implementation" has become a focal research topic in the field of curriculum change and educational policy, in exploration of the secret of success and failure of curriculum policy implementation. Many of the scholars has confirmed the idea that curriculum policy seldom stays in fidelity or be implemented as it intended, it adapts, enacts and re-creates itself in action(Fullan, 1991; Synder, 1992; Hargreaves, Earl & Schmidt,2002). After three major waves and evolutions of implementation research for decades (Odden, 1991; Silver, 1990; Goggin *et al.*, 1990; Lennon & Corbett, 2003; Radin, 2000; Wildavsky, 1996; Honig, 2006), the contemporary research pays "growing attention to how policy, people and places interact to shape how implementation unfolds" (Honig, 2006).
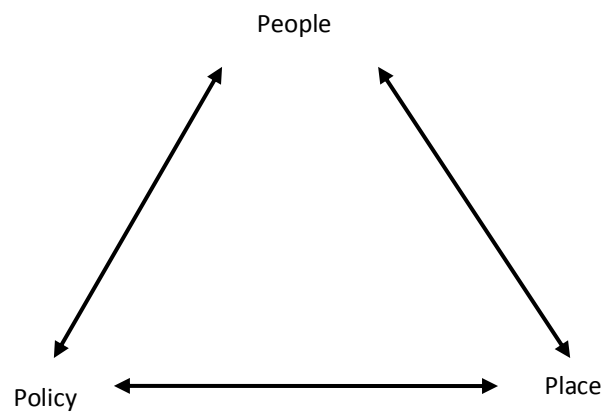
Figure1.1 from policy in text to policy in action

Reference: Honig, M I. (2006). New Direction in Education Policy Implementation: Confronting Complexity. State University of New York Press: 12 figure1.1: Dimensions of contemporary education policy implementation in practice and research

In order to gain better understanding of curriculum policy in action as a distributed social construction process in different settings and among different actors, and as the interactive production of the broader institutional structure in social, cultural, economic and political "contextuality" (Lasswell, 1951). The article tries to adopt the above framework to interpret how curriculum policy in action interacts among those dimensions and evolves as distributed construct in practice.

2 Curriculum Policy Change in Chinese Context

Stephen J. Ball (2006, p. 18) has discussed the defects of education policy study and mentioned that most of the researches lack the sense of time, as well as the sense of space:

"Most education policy research lacks any sense of time, …we now have a series of studies which date from the earliest stages of reform up to the present time, most of which are snapshot,…first, such time limited studies cannot deliver a sense of the processes of reform and change. Structural change is only one part and one moment in the reform process; change in consciousness, adaption of practices, the arts of resistance and manoeuvre, 'values drifts' (Gewirtz et al., 1995) take place slowly, sometimes almost imperceptibly over time….moving on, from time to space, I want to draw attention to both the insularity and abstractness of much education policy research. Policy research lacks a sense of 'place'; either in not locating policies in any framework that extends beyond the national level, or in not accounting for or conveying a sense of the locality in analyses of policy realization."

In this sense, curriculum policy in action is not a context or time irrelevant abstraction. For better understanding, we need to revert our analysis to the concrete policy ecology and through the whole process of policy evolution to see how curriculum policy is internalized and specified in the particularity of the time and space. That's why the article takes the 10+ years' curriculum policy change in China as an exemplar for analysis.

At the turn of the new century, Mainland China launched a nationwide curriculum policy change in basic education. The change was extended to the senior high school level and continues to be implemented presently. After more than 10 years endeavor, this curriculum policy practice is not only showing us the trace of 'time'--the whole process of curriculum policy change in a long time period; but also enabling us to understand the logic and particularity of a Chinese curriculum policy change based on the context of China's modernization at different system level to bring a sense of 'place' in analysis.

2.1 Background

In 1999, the state council adopted the "21st century education revitalizing action plan" developed by MOE, proposed a cross-century "quality education project" and stated the urgent need for establishing a 21st century curriculum system in basic education, which can be seen as the first declaration of the new curriculum policy. In 2001, the complete statement of the new curriculum policy, "Guidelines of basic education curriculum reform," was published, signifying the beginning of a new curriculum change across the nation. After more than 10 years implementation, the new curriculum is now entering the phase of routinization and institutionalization (Hall & Loucks, 1977; Hall & Hord, 1987), but is still under changes.

The new curriculum policy change is embedded in a broader international and domestic background. First of all, the change of curriculum system is the internal need of Chinese education system, the nationwide advocacy of "quality education" in contrast to "examination-oriented education" since the late 1980s has prepared the education system for a transformative change. Secondly, the arrival of knowledge economy has changed the mode of economic growth and request of school education. The new economy requires the transition of the curriculum system from the traditional "discipline-centered, classroom-centered, teacher-centered" approach to a new "real-life related, learning-centered, and student-oriented" system. Curriculum policy change is the appropriate response to this reality. Thirdly, curriculum policy change in mainland China is also part of the multidimensional social transformation, echoing with the systematic social transformation in economic, political, cultural, and societal structure, power relationship, notions, ideas and values of modernization. As China's modernization is under great conflicts, contradictions and clashes, the new curriculum policy in action has also encountered great many struggles in the flow of the modernization of Chinese society.

2.2 Rationale and content

The basic notion of the curriculum policy change is "for the development of every student" (MOE, 2001). The slogan implicates the major value of the change, which is to construct a new curriculum system that pursues both equality and quality. The new curriculum policy protects the equal "right to learn" and "right to develop" of every student in the name of social justice. In addition, it also emphasizes the "quality" of student development, a holistic, balanced, comprehensive, diversified, and all-around development, rather than development with excessive emphasis on examination preparation and academic achievements. It is a curriculum system that will "enhance moral education, pay attention to humanity spirit, emphasis on information literacy and encourage knowledge integration" in nurturing future citizens (Zhong Qiquan, 2001, 2003). The curriculum policy change attempts to achieve four fundamental transformations:

- From elitist education to education for all;
- From subject-centred curriculum (with narrow emphasis on subject-oriented knowledge and skills) to social-constructed curriculum (more comprehensive, integrated, and related to real life and people);
- From didactic methods of teaching to a progressive and child-centred approach of teaching; and
- From centralized curriculum control to curriculum decentralization at the national, local, and school levels.

As well-designed the new curriculum policy is, the policy is not closed or complete for unified interpretation and practice, the policy production has diversified variations according to the specific context considering the travel of policy from central government to localities, schools, classrooms, as well as the travel among different policy actors and power groups. Below we will analyze in detail how curriculum policy in action is not only following from the intended policy statements, but often preceding the formal policy and remodeling the attribution and mechanism of curriculum policy in concrete ways.

3 Curriculum policy in action: From central government to classroom

The first clue of the analysis is to examine the travels of curriculum policy in China from central government to local authorities, schools and classrooms from system policy level to school institutional level and classroom subject level, explaining how in different places and level of the system the representation of curriculum policy is re-contextualized or re-invented(Darling-Hammond, 2005) with substantial differences, revealing unstable features of curriculum policy in action facing the conflicts of the traditional compliance-based, mandatory and bureaucratic power relationship of Chinese political system and new pursuit of power decentralization and local autonomy in the system.

3.1 Policy changes as place changes

Just as Bowe, Ball & Gold (1992) have declared, "the opportunity for re-forming and re-interpreting the text mean policy formation does not end with the legislative moment". In this sense, curriculum policy is essentially 'the operational statement of values, statements of 'prescriptive intent' " (Kogan, 1975; Bowe, Ball & Gold, 1992). Any policy intention may contain ambiguities, contradictions and omissions, and can be adjusted or interpreted differently, when curriculum policy travels along spaces, it is subjected to the regional, institutional and classroom conditions, available resources, cultural traditions and reform preferences. Therefore, the mandatory translation from policy text into policy action is impossible; curriculum policy has its adaption mechanism as the space changes (see figure3.1).
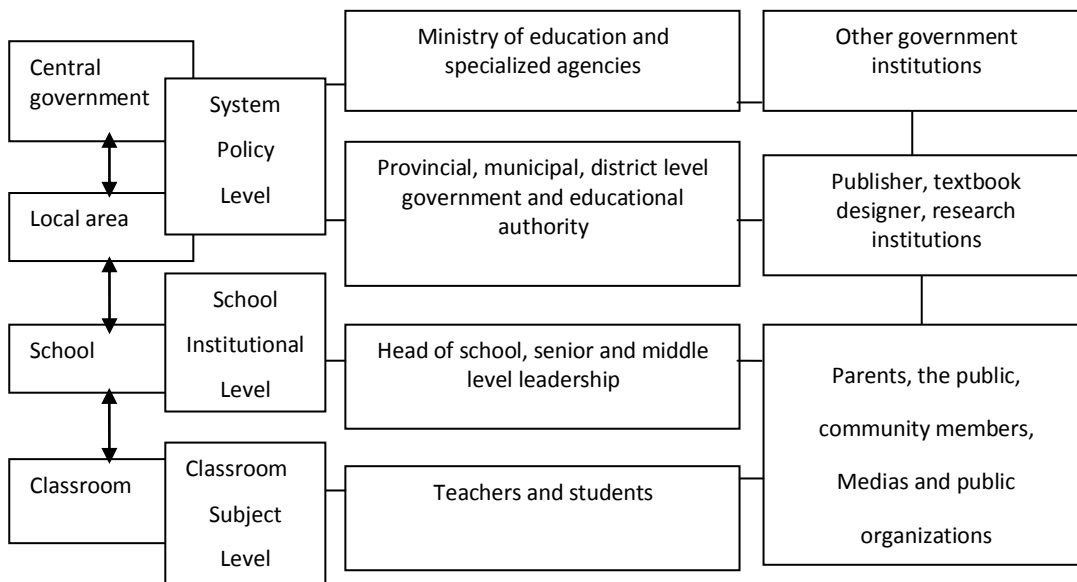
Figure3.1: spaces for curriculum policy in action

At the early stage of policy in action, most of the attempts are "focused on the surface-level forms" (Spillane, Reiser, & Gomez, 2006) and structural changes. New curriculum timetable, new textbooks, school-based teaching and research system[i], school-based curriculum, new methods of teaching and learning, new managerial structure, etc, are all practiced at local, school and classroom settings. The endeavor may seem to be superficial and similar across regions, districts, schools or classrooms, however, the substantial interpretations and sense-making of curriculum policy are quite different. Following are some statements from different principals at early stage of policy operation, which might help us to illustrate how the similar action may signify great difference in the recognition and realization of new curriculum policy.

"We adopted a series of measures to support the new curriculum idea of individualized learning, we promoted small-class size in our school, and each class had maximum 30 students, and they were all equipped with multimedia facilities, learning material with technical support. Our school also provided sufficient funds for new curriculum, as well as most excellent teachers, the regular school-based teaching and research system was also in development to support the new curriculum." (Urban primary school, 2 years' new curriculum experiment)

"The scope of new curriculum change is too big, instead of comprehensive promotion of the new curriculum; we are trying to relate our school need to the curriculum change. We carried out school-based research and school-based training tries to focus on real problems that will bring change to curriculum system in the school, such as optimization of classroom learning environment, teachers' language behaviour and students learning, etc."(Key experimental primary school, innovative with plenty support, 4 years' new curriculum experiment)

"It is the first year our school promoted new curriculum, to be honest, we know very little about new curriculum, not to mention how to implement it, the most urgent thing for use is to improve the ability and notions of teacher to adapt to the new curriculum to bring in experience from outside, to gather possible resources and intellectual support. The situation of our school is very far from the ideal intention of the new curriculum for now."(Countryside primary school, lack of resources and basic understanding of the new policy, 1 year new curriculum experiment)

Not only the understanding of new curriculum policy is at different level, the conditions to support the operation, and the possible route to realize the new policy is doomed to be different in different school. While the first school is more focused on structural arrangement to facilitate new curriculum, the second school has already institutionalized the new curriculum as part of the school daily life, the third school might still be working hard in seek of collective understanding and recognition of new curriculum ideas within the school organization. As the new curriculum developed in action, it will become more innovative and customized to the particular place. Especially at school and classroom level, most schools have begun their own exploration under the new curriculum change, and have initiated series of grass-rooted reforms in curriculum and teaching at school and classroom level, differentiating one from another in particularities.

3.2 Specification of policy at micro level

As the curriculum policy proceeds to the meso and micro level, the action of the policy is no longer under the unified control of designed policy, but more specified as a result of the concrete circumstances. As Darling-Hammond (2005) mentioned, "what ultimately happens in schools and classrooms is less related to the intentions of policy makers than it is to the knowledge, beliefs, resources, leadership, and motivation that operate in local contexts." Therefore, according to Klein's (1991) framework of curriculum decision-making, as policy gradually goes into the place where curriculum teaching and learning actually happens, curriculum policy will become more concrete, complex and experience-oriented (see table 3.1).

Table3.1: curriculum framework for decision making

Perspective or levels of decision making	Curriculum elements								
	Goals, objectives, purposes	Content	Materials resources	Activities	Teaching strategies	Evaluation	Grouping	Time	Space
Academic									
Societal									
Formal									
Institutional									
Instructional									
Operational									
Experiential									

Reference: M. Frances. Klein (ed.) (1991).The Politics of curriculum decision-making: issues in centralizing the curriculum. State University of New York Press, Albany: 26. Figure.2.1 curriculum framework for decision making

Therefore, we can notice more and more bottom up curriculum system innovation by schools, teachers or even students. Those efforts are based on context related issues of school daily life, some may be as tiny as focused on crucial issues of curriculum teaching and learning in classroom, some may extend the reform beyond curriculum system and relate curriculum reform to the whole school advancement, all of these efforts are based on school or classroom's own particularity and possibility. In this sense, curriculum policy is contextualized and eventually realized in grassroots action with specific focus.

"The real curriculum change is happening in school and in every classroom, so it is very important for schools to initiate their own change in adapt to school context and requirements." (Urban school, primary school principal)

"In these past few years, we have had five major projects, and three of them are related to curriculum development and teaching, for example, the ecological class teaching project, harmonious teacher student's relationship project, featured curriculum projects, etc. They are playing a key role in the new curriculum change" (urban school, junior high school, year group leader)

"Last year, we initiated a research project on promoting student's effective learning in different subjects, focusing on student's 'learning' rather than teacher's 'teaching', and identified many factors that will affect student's effective

learning. Following the research findings, many changes and improvement have taken place in the school. To certain extend, school-based research has now become a very important and effective tool in tackling problems and encouraging new ideas and practices in new curriculum reform" (rural-urban fringe zone junior high school, principal)

3.3 Dynamic Struggle with traditional system

As mentioned earlier, curriculum policy change is far beyond the innovation of curriculum system itself; but also the reflection of the internal needs of social transformation. The advocacy of decentralization, redistribution and reallocation of curriculum power among central government, the public, the local and the schools is reprinting the transformation of the overall social political system from omnipotent, centralized government control to limited, service-oriented, decentralized government, with autonomic market choice, and public selection. In this sense, curriculum policy change is also simulating the inner seesaw struggle of social transformation, encountering the problems, clashes, mismatches that have emerged as a result of the conflicts between the old and new social political system. One of the most obvious struggles in policy operation is the strict supervision and inspection system from higher authority and the pursuit of local and school autonomy in curriculum decision-making. The obedient, controlling, autocratic political system and mandatory administrative power are confining schools and teachers from innovative and independent exploration in curriculum practice, resulting in a hypocritical and fake decentralization and empowerment in curriculum policy action. As some of the teachers argued:

"Too much regular examination, tests and inceptions organized by local authorities, excessive control from the higher authorities, the school couldn't breathe". (Urban school, primary school, subject teacher)

"We are tired up with all the administrative works and all kinds of inceptions and supervisions, the time for real research and preparation of teaching is limited". (Urban school, primary school, subject teacher)

Moreover, during the process of policy operation, the pursuit of public participation in curriculum decision making is also restricted by the original political structure and working mechanism which are designed in favor of superior's order or bureaucracy. Besides, the emphasis of rule by law and procedural justice for legitimacy and rationality in policy cycle is also challenging the traditional notion of rule by moral principles and individual virtue. The efficient, high-quality and service oriented new political culture is always struggling with the bureaucratic and controlling political cultural. All the discordance shows us the complexity and unstable nature of curriculum policy; it never rests in peace or coherent melodies, but in face of the hindrance from the conventional political system. Although after more than 10 years endeavor of new curriculum policy change, the curriculum policy system has already made great achievements in promoting decentralization, democracy and public engagement in policy operation, there is still the repetitive see-saw between the old and new political system in all forms.

4 Curriculum policy in action：Distributed discourses in policy construction

The second clue of the analysis is from the dimension of people, focuses on the remodelling of curriculum policy among different policy agents in Chinese context, explains how the distributed representation, interpretation, or cognition(Spillane, Reiser & Gomez, 2006) and differentiated interests function in reframing the policy connotation and practice, particularly the conflicts of different policy discourses among and within various agents(policy makers, academics, the public and practitioners), which increases the complexity of curriculum policy as a dynamic social and political construct. The individualized and socially constructed understanding of curriculum policy, as well as the confinement of social cognitive system (Scott, 2011), make curriculum policy a distributed social and political construct.

4.1 Individualized and socialized construction of curriculum policy

Curriculum policy is to some degree an individualized construction in practices as it is interpreted and acted on by different policy actors. On one hand, when provided with the same policy text, different actors may develop different understandings, attitudes, and finally practices. Either you are a policy developer, scholar, an administrative officer, or a school teacher; you have already developed some understanding of a proper curriculum system according to your related experience and knowledge. You will try to combine new stimulus with your original understanding and experience, reflecting you own value preference and working habits. Here comes the gaps and difference even at the beginning in interpretation of the same curriculum policy. On the other hand, there are always limitations, biases and incompletion of one's cognition, in this sense, the different interpretations of the new curriculum policy is born to be defective and biased. Therefore, curriculum policy in action is distributed constructions based on the separated individuals.

However, the construction of curriculum policy is not a pure personal activity. It is subjected to more comprehensive social factors, such as social circumstance, institutional (organizational) context or interpersonal interactions, and naturally become a socially constructed activity. For one reason, most of the policy actors who are engaged in the new curriculum policy are located in the specific locality with different traditions, customs, institutional conditions and cultural atmosphere. Where we locate sometimes is decisive in providing the resources, conditions and working mechanism for realizing curriculum policy. However, it is not only function in a structural way, but also play as a restricting factor in deciding the levels of collective understanding and interpretation toward curriculum policy. For another reason, we can always divide policy actors into different communities according to their professional properties or preferences in viewpoints. As part of the community, we are always attached with other people, influenced by each other and trying to achieve certain kind of consensus on beliefs, values, attitudes, emotions, strategies or behavioural patterns. Thus, our cognition of curriculum policy and possible actions will reflect the features of community we are related to, and producing distributed construction of curriculum policy.

Moreover, in the Chinese context, the new curriculum policy is socially constructed in a sense that it's confronting with the deeply ingrained value system of the society toward school education. The deep-rooted examination oriented and academic achievement-centred value system. The accustomed beliefs, traditions, relations, and values in the society are developed over time and with persistence in our society. Scott (2001) identifies the system as normative and culture-cognitive system, subtly regulating the expectations, perceptions, and even actions of the society (Ke Zheng, 2011). We can read from teachers' statements to see how the new curriculum policy is reproduced under this strong social psychological suggestion.

"The priority concern of the society is still the academic achievement of student; the holistic development is at the second place, the fickleness and utilitarian of the commercial society is contradictory with the culture of new curriculum" (Urban school, junior high school, subject teacher).

"To meet the expectation of stakeholders, especially the parents, schools tries hard to balance between the reform and the conservation pursuit of high academic achievements, weary both in mind and body, the faces are as pale as wax" (Urban school, junior high school, principal).

"The strong stress coming from the society, the lop-sided evaluation and value system of the society, has blocked the way from reality to ideals, the breakthrough of the obstacle is not the mere responsibility of school and teachers, we need to unite the forces in the society, and cooperate in the innovation all together" (Urban school, primary school, principal).

4.2   Distributed discourses in policy construction

Curriculum policy change is the redistribution of curriculum power and interests among different policy agents, restructuring the structure of power-relationship among different policy actors or groups is another way for the re-construction of curriculum policy in action, trying to figure out fundamentally "what can be said, though, who can speak, when, where and with what authority" (Ball, 2006; Foucault, 1977). Supporters, opponents, fence sitters, observers, etc, will all develop different readings and perceptions toward new curriculum policy, the operation of curriculum policy is the confrontation among different discourses and the conversion of powers and structures, deciding what positions and attitudes will be focused or even become dominate articulation.

In China's curriculum policy change, the confrontations among administrative discourse (administrative power of government) , professional discourses(professional power in theory and practice), public discourse(collection of public power) are most dominant and obvious during the evolution of curriculum policy, the change of power relationships among these agents are also reshaping curriculum policy in reality.

The containment relationship between administrative discourse and professional discourse. Administrative discourse is the coercive power and decisive power in curriculum policy change in Chinese context. However, during the operation of Chinese curriculum policy, in order to promote the democratic engagement and rationality of policy process, the administrative discourse has involved the professional power in the whole process of policy cycle. With the help of government, the professional discourse in china has rapid growth during the new curriculum policy. Although there is great attachment and cooperation between administrative power and professional power during policy operation, there is still the subtle restring and struggling relationship between the two. On one hand, the administrative discourse has always had the compulsory means to force the professionals to be in accordance with the government, while their professional autonomy are in seek of initiative transformation. On the other hand, at local, school and classroom level, professional discourses always can break away from the restrictions from administrative discourse for active resistance in the real action of curriculum policy. This interdependent and restricting relationship

between administrative and professional discourse has re-structured curriculum policy in action at different levels with variations.

The stalemate between public discourse and professional discourse. In Chinese context, there is always the tradition of trust and worship of authority from the public. This has brought great convenience in policy operation for the public discourse is always maintaining consistency with professional discourse. However, in the new curriculum policy change, the new curriculum ideas from the professional discourses has encountered the great obstacle of the examination oriented, competition focused social cultural cognition, the anxiety from the public for the grading of students has become an important force in restricting the professional discourse in pursuit of a more democratic and quality oriented curriculum system in fear of losing the vested interests. On one hand, it reflects the public involvement in social affairs as the pursuit of public powers, the awareness of social responsibility and participation; on the other hand, it also shows us the destructive power of traditional social expectations and customs in preventing the social system and school system from renovations.

The internal factions among professional discourses. The professional discourses are of the most complicated as in the process of curriculum policy, professionals with different positions, camps and interests are always divided elaborately. Especially as curriculum policy has progressed to the substantial level, the specific problems and interests have impelled further differentiations. At different stages of curriculum policy, there are great many exemplars showing how different camps are struggling and contradicting with each other on broad issues, such as the basic understanding of curriculum policy, the specific design and implementation, the evaluation and usage of curriculum policy, showing the fundamental difference in values, ideas, interests and social networks, etc, which have become a major social power in shaping curriculum policy overtime.

The confrontations among distributed discoursed is not limited to the above description, the inconsistency of administrative discourse of China as the change of leadership, the fraction of public discourses, the interactive networking of different discourses, are all constructing the curriculum policy in practice continuously. Curriculum policy is just a process that lives with all these struggles, compromises, changes and consensus, representing the distributed complexities.

5 Conclusion

Curriculum policy is not a series of instructions or intentions that can be easily achieved. A better way to understand curriculum policy is to explore the evolution of policy in "real relational settings" (Grace, 1995). Curriculum policy is full of flexibility, uncertainty, fluidity, diversity, contradictions, and complexity. It is a process of recontextualization and adaptation, of empowerment and capacity building, and of discourse confrontation among different stakeholders, and a continuous exploration and interpretation of inner meaning of the policy in plural ways. While we are caring about the initial intentions of curriculum policy, we need to be reminded that the tension and interaction between curriculum policy in text and in action are also inviting. Policy as text and policy as action are not separated, but unified as "policy shapes practice, practice makes policy" (Elmore & Sykes, 1992). Only through restoring the complexity of curriculum policy in action from generalization and abstractions, we could achieve more understandings. Therefore, the brief glance of Chinese experience of curriculum policy in action in this article "can be taken as propositions, game openings where those who may be interested are invited to join in; they are not meant as dogmatic assertions that have to be taken or left en bloc…" (Foucault, 1991).

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[i] School-based teaching and research system are newly introduced to schools in the new curriculum reform. School-based professional development system for teachers involves professional leadership, peer cooperation, and independent reflection. The research and teaching activities are carried out regularly in school, and are a very effective, practice-oriented, and flexible system in promoting teachers' professional development.

Teacher Education Programmes (TEPs) in Diverse Countries: New Zealand, Singapore, Portugal, Finland and Turkey

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Abstract

Teacher is one of the most important factors for a student to be educated in accordance with the expectations of the society. Teacher realizes his/her role in teaching-learning process by deciding upon what to teach, why to teach, how to teach and evaluate students' performances. In this process, the student is affected by the thoughts, emotional responses, values and habits of the teacher. As teachers have such important roles in the society, it might be concluded that they should spend an effective time in pre-service education, that is teacher education programmes should be qualified enough to lead the way for well-trained teachers and accordingly well-educated students. This paper aimed to give a general perspective on TEPs focusing on the Early Childhood and Primary TEPs of New Zealand, Singapore, Portugal, Finland and Turkey. The reason for choosing diverse countries from diverse continents was to analyze how teacher education was organized in different cultures. Research questions were used to group the data, then similarities and differences between TEPs of the countries were discovered. The qualitative method was applied in this research so as to describe the situation in detail. Data was gathered from the official web-sites of the countries and written documents such as articles, research reports etc. The collected data was analyzed by using descriptive analysis technique. Results showed that there are contextual and structural similarities and differences in early childhood and primary teacher education programmes of these 5 countries.

Keywords: curriculum; teacher education; teacher education programmes

1 Introduction

The sociological and economical development of the countries and educational quality are quite related topics. The importance of teacher education system comes into prominence along with the quality education and development. Innovations and investments that are being made are the indicators of this situation (Sözen & Çabuk, 2013, p. 214). Teachers should be participating to these innovations in educational field, educated in accordance with the understanding of 21st century and provided to have the required standards. Consequently, countries should renew, update and change their curriculum according to the understanding of the 21st century (Tutkun & Aksoyalp, 2010, p. 363).

Teachers are required to be aware of the necessities of the day, prepare themselves for the change and be willing to pursue development in their career. Though teacher education has a multi-dimensional structure and is always under the influence of many stimulus and stakeholders, it is collaterally conducted in most countries. Similarly, Arslan and Özpınar (2008, p. 40) mentioned that for an effective education there should be parallelism between curriculum expectations and teacher applications. However, many differences exist among teacher education programmes of the countries stemming from social, cultural, economical and geopolitical reasons. Furthermore, these reasons lead to different outcomes of the parallel teacher education systems. From the differences and similarities between these outcomes, such prominent issues could be sequenced: teacher education institutes, teacher educators, admission requirements to teacher education institution duration of teacher education, courses in the curricula, teaching practice, teacher trainee, teachers' salary and recruitment process etc.

The aim of this research is to give a general perspective on TEPs focusing on the Early Childhood and Primary TEPs of New Zealand, Singapore, Portugal, Finland and Turkey. The reason for choosing diverse countries from diverse continents is to analyze how teacher education is organized in different cultures. For that purpose, the following research questions will be answered within the framework of this study:

1. Which institutions are responsible for teacher education?

2. What are the entry requirements to the TEPs?

3. What is the number of years of education in TEPs?

4. How are the content categories of teacher education curricula organized in terms of courses, ECTS credits, teaching practice etc.?

5. How is the employment of teachers?

In this research, descriptive survey model was used and the data was gathered through literature review technique. Descriptive survey model is a research approach which describes the information of the past or today as it is/was without changing or affecting the situation (Karasar, 2012: 77). In this research for the analysis of teacher education programmes around the globe, New Zealand, Singapore, Portugal, Finland and Turkey are included in the scope of the study.

2   Findings

Findings on the Early Childhood and Primary TEPs of New Zealand, Singapore, Portugal, Finland and Turkey grouped in the framework of research questions are explained under the titles of "Teacher Education Institutions, Entry Requirements to Teacher Education Institutions, Duration of Teacher Education, Teaching Practice, Employment of Teachers and Content of Teacher Education Programmes".

2.1   Teacher Education Institutions

Table 1 includes the details on Teacher Education Institutions for Early Childhood and Primary TEPs of New Zealand, Singapore, Portugal, Finland and Turkey.

Table 1

Teacher Education Institutions

		University	Institute	College	Polytechnics	Other
New Zealand	**Early childhood**	x	x	x	x	x
	Primary	x	x	x	x	
Singapore	**Early childhood**	x	x	x	x	x
	Primary	x				
Portugal	**Early childhood**	x			x	
	Primary	x			x	
Finland	**Early childhood**	x				
	Primary	x				
Turkey	**Early childhood**	x				
	Primary	x				

When the teacher education systems are examined, it is seen that early childhood and primary school teachers are prepared mainly within the body of universities. However, there are also some institutions such as teacher education institutes, colleges, associations and polytechnics offering teacher education programmes in New Zealand and Singapore. Furthermore, associations in New Zealand; education centres and academies in Singapore service for early childhood teacher education (MOE, 2013a; MOE, 2013b, NIE, 2012).

2.2 Entry Requirements to Teacher Education Institutions

Table 2 includes the details on Entry Requirements to Teacher Education Institutions for Early Childhood and Primary TEPs of New Zealand, Singapore, Portugal, Finland and Turkey.

Table 2

Entry Requirements to Teacher Education Institutions

		National Examination	National Standards	Institutional Examination	Interview	Other
New Zealand	Early childhood		x	x	x	x
	Primary		x	x	x	x
Singapore	Early childhood		x			
	Primary		x	x	x	x
Portugal	Early childhood	x	x	x	x	
	Primary	x	x	x	x	
Finland	Early childhood	x	x	x	x	
	Primary	x		x	x	x
Turkey	Early childhood	x				
	Primary	x				

The basic admission requirement for teacher education programmes is the national examination that is applied differently in countries such as Portugal, Finland and Turkey. Teacher education institutions prepare a written examination and an interview when necessary except for Turkey. In order to be accepted to a teacher education programme in Turkey, only requirement is to be graduated from a high school and to be successful in the university entrance examination. However, most of the countries in the world have other requirements. In Finland, for instance, applicants for primary teacher education are selected on the basis of an entrance examination. The entrance examination for primary teacher education includes a written examination, an aptitude test and interviews. Some universities also include a group situation and an optional skills demonstration as part of their entrance examination. Admission requirements for early childhood teacher education are mainly the same as primary teacher education (Eurydice, 2012). In New Zealand, foreign language qualification and reference letter are included in the required documents. There isn't any examination at national level in New Zealand and Singapore, but there are national standards to be met by the applicants. University Entrance (UE) is the minimum requirement to go to a New Zealand university. In order to qualify, applicants need approved subjects, literacy and numeracy requirements. In Singapore, polytechnic diploma or university degree is required to enter teacher education programmes and the applicants should hold academic qualification of General Certificate of Education (GCE) advanced level. In Portugal, there is a nation-wide examination besides an extraordinary examination that is held for students in and above 23 year old and non-holders of secondary education diploma (LPI, 2013). Universities, hereby for Primary Education, may also make obligatory to get marks from Portuguese language and one of these courses: Biology and Geology, Philosophy, Physics and Chemistry, Geography, History, Mathematics etc. This may be accompanied by interviews and institutional exams (LPI, 2013; MOE, 2013a; MOE, 2013b, MOE, 2013c).

2.3 Duration of Teacher Education (year)

Table 3 includes the details on the Duration of Teacher Education for Early Childhood and Primary TEPs of New Zealand, Singapore, Portugal, Finland and Turkey.

Table 3

Duration of Teacher Education (year)

		3	4	3+2	4+2	6
New Zealand	Early childhood	x				x
	Primary	x				x
Singapore	Early childhood	x	x			
	Primary		x			
Portugal	Early childhood	x	x	x	x	
	Primary	x	x	x	x	
Finland	Early childhood	x				
	Primary			x		
Turkey	Early childhood		x			
	Primary		x			

The duration of teacher education increases from lower grades to higher grades. Besides, it changes according to the requirements for being a teacher. In Portugal where early childhood and primary teachers are required to have master's degree, duration of teacher education is totally 5-6 years. Bachelor programme lasts 3-4 years and master programme lasts 2 years whereas some universities offer integrated programme (Bachelor+ Master) that last 5-6 years in total (Flores, 2011; Eurydice, 2013). In Turkey, New Zealand and Finland where bachelor degree provides opportunity for functioning as a teacher, this duration varies between 3-4 years (UO, 2013). In New Zealand, there are part time and full time teacher education programmes. The length of these programmes is 3 years for full time and 6 years for part time (MOE, 2013a; MOE, 2013b; NGEE ANN, 2013; NIE, 2012).

2.4 Teaching Practice

Table 4 includes the details on Teaching Practice for Early Childhood and Primary TEPs of New Zealand, Singapore, Portugal, Finland and Turkey.

Table 4

Teaching Practice

		Duration (week)	ECTS	Class Level			
				1	2	3	4
New Zealand	Early childhood	20-24	30-45	x	x	x	
	Primary	20-21	30-45	x	x	x	
Singapore	Early childhood	8-12	?	x	x	x	x

Table 4 (continued)	**Primary**	22	31,5	x	x	x	x
Portugal	**Early childhood**	?	?				
	Primary	?	15-20				
Finland	**Early childhood**	?	25	x	x	x	
	Primary	?	20	x	x	x	x
Turkey	**Early childhood**	48	23			x	x
	Primary	48	23			x	x

Theory and practice balance in teacher education programmes is another issue that should be addressed. To help teachers practice the knowledge and skills they have learned in the universities, "School Experience", "Teaching Practice I" and "Teaching Practice II" courses are included in the curriculum in Turkey. School Experience and Teaching Practice provide mostly observational studies but Teaching Practice II course is the main course of practices. This course has degree of 23 ECTS and taken in the 3rd and 4th class. In Finland practical training amounts to 20 ECTS for primary teachers and 25 ECTS credits for early childhood teachers. Teaching practice consists of an orientation practicum as part of the subject studies in education and of an advanced practicum. In the orientation practicum, students familiarize themselves with teaching and pupils by observing teaching. In the advanced practicum, students practice planning lessons and teaching different subjects by using different methods. These studies help students find their own ways of functioning as class teachers, become capable of developing their instruction, take solutions to problems and assess their own work (Eurydice, 2012). Teaching practice courses are available in each semester starting from the first year in New Zealand, Finland and Singapore. Contrary to other countries, teaching practice is at the last 2 years of teacher education in Turkey (UA, 2013a; UA, 2013b; NGEE ANN, 2013; NIE, 2012).

2.5   Content of Teacher Education Programmes

Table 5 includes the details on the Content of Teacher Education Programmes for Early Childhood and Primary TEPs of New Zealand, Singapore, Portugal, Finland and Turkey.

Table 5

Content of Teacher Education Programmes

		ECTS	Course Categories
New Zealand	**Early childhood**	180	Education – Curriculum – Professional–Optional
	Primary	180	
Singapore	**Early childhood**	195	Education – Curriculum – Subject – Pedagogy –Practicum - Optional
	Primary	207	
Portugal	**Early childhood**	180	Subject- Professional- Education-Optional
	Primary	180	
Finland	**Early childhood**	180	Communication and Orientation - Basic –Subject-Advanced- Minor Subject- Optional
	Primary	300	Communication and Orientation - Basic –Subject-Advanced- Multidisciplinary School Subject - Minor Subject- Optional
Turkey	**Early childhood**	240	Subject – Professional- General Knowledge - Optional
	Primary	240	

When the content of teacher education is examined, it is seen that courses are categorized as communication and orientation, basic, subject, advanced, multidisciplinary school subject, minor subject studies in Finland (UO, 2013). In Singapore, there are educational, curriculum, subject, pedagogical and practical studies in the teacher education curriculum. In Portugal, the course categories are subject, professional and education. In New Zealand, there are three categories of the courses: educational, professional and curriculum. In Turkey, courses are classified as subject, professional and general knowledge whereas TEPs of early childhood and primary education include the subject courses at the most. The optional courses are low in number and theory-practice is not balanced. Early childhood education programme has a research project at the last year differently from primary teacher education. In addition there are also optional studies provided in teacher education programmes in each country but the load of these categories differs according to the countries and even the teacher education institutes within the countries. The whole degree of the programmes is 180 ECTS for both early childhood and primary teacher education in New Zealand while it is 240 ECTS in Turkey. In Portugal, as master's degree is compulsory for teachers, they have to go on master education which is around 90 ECTS (Eurydice, 2013). However, there is a difference in the whole degree of early childhood and primary teacher education programmes in Singapore and Finland. In Singapore the whole degree is 195 ECTS for early childhood and 207 ECTS for primary teacher education. As primary teachers hold master's degree in Finland, the whole degree is 300 ECTS while it is 180 ECTS for early childhood teacher education which requires bachelor degree (UO, 2013). In Portugal, optional courses are offered from a wide perspective. Teacher education programmes in Portugal are composed of these components: "general educational training, specific didactics (for a given level of teaching and subject matter), professional practice, cultural, social and ethical education, educational research methods, training in the subject matter" (Flores, 2011, p.466; UA, 2013a; UA, 2013b; NGEE ANN, 2013; NIE, 2012).

2.6 Employment of Teachers

Table 6 includes the details on Employment of Teachers for Early Childhood and Primary TEPs of New Zealand, Singapore, Portugal, Finland and Turkey.

Table 6

Employment of Teachers

		Public School	Private School	Care Centre	Ministry of Education	Other
New Zealand	**Early childhood**	x	x	x	x	x
	Primary	x	x		x	
Singapore	**Early childhood**	x		x		
	Primary	x	x			
Portugal	**Early childhood**	x	x	x		
	Primary	x	x			
Finland	**Early childhood**	x	x	x		
	Primary	x	x			
Turkey	**Early childhood**	x	x	x	x	
	Primary	x	x		x	

In most of the countries examined, students who have completed the Bachelor's degree are employed in the field of early childhood and primary education and in day-care centres. In addition to the traditional public sector, an increasing number of jobs are also available within private institutions. A holder of the Bachelor's degree can be employed in tasks requiring expertise in early childhood education in organizations and companies (UO, 2013). Also it is possible for early childhood and primary teacher education graduates to work in the Ministry of Education in New Zealand and Turkey (EIT, 2013a; EIT, 2013b).

3   Conclusion

As TEPs of New Zealand, Singapore, Portugal, Finland and Turkey are examined, it has been found out that there are various applications affecting the quality of teacher candidates graduating from the teacher education programmes. Firstly, countries supplying teacher education at the institutions other than universities are ethnically-diverse and have high demand for teachers. Though this diversity is positively affected in terms of ethnic groups, it couldn't have any satisfaction on the demand for teacher. The principle reason for that could be the teachers' leaving the profession within short time after the recruitment.

As for the change in entry requirements to teacher education programmes between countries, it could be stated that such variables may be affecting this change as student population in the country, student population choosing this profession, the quality of the students, training before higher education, number of institutions responsible for teacher education. However, there is a consensus on the fact that written examinations organized at institutional or national level should not be the only criterion. It is necessary to use different techniques such as interview and micro teaching for evaluating applicants in terms of communication skills, teaching approach and attitudes.

The differentiation in the duration of teacher education in different countries might stem from the high demand for teachers and high numbers of teachers' leave from the profession. The duration of teacher education is not quite different from each other, though. The prominent feature here is that some countries obligate master's degree for teaching profession.

The courses in teacher education curricula are mostly designed to keep the balance between theory and practice and to train teachers who are interested in art, who know how to do research and develop professionally. One of the most remarkable features of the curricula is that most of the programmes have a wide variety of optional courses that allow teachers to develop in various subjects.

Consequently, in many countries, mentor teachers are trained for guiding the student teachers. Teaching practice starts from the first year of teacher education, which might be thought as quite beneficial in preparing student teachers for teaching profession and adapting them to the profession easily.

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Curricular Policies and Practices in Youth and Adult: Perspectives of Supporting Educational Work

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Abstract

In the current scenario, the education of Youth and Adults (EJA) takes on a dimension of lifelong learning developed throughout life from the perspective of integral development, leaving their supplementary nature. Therefore, the guiding principles for the development of young people and adults have changed. New curricular proposals were designed and constructed seeking to subsidize the teacher and other professionals who work in this type of education. This paper presents the results of a research of Masters, entitled "Education for Youth and Adults: tensions and interactions between the curriculum and pedagogical practice ", linked to the Post-Graduate Program in Education at the National University of Piauí in which we approach curriculum and pedagogical practice experienced within schools influenced by the modality proposed curricula Youth and Adults. Aiming to analyze the pedagogical practices developed in EJA (abbreviation for Youth and Adults in Portuguese Language) seeking interaction with the official curriculum from the perspective of overcoming tensions and consolidation of public policies in this type of education. The research has essentially interpretative character with descriptive qualitative approach, based mainly on presupposed presented by Flick (2009), Oliveira (2007). The corpus of this investigation was consisted of data generated by the questionnaire semi-structured interviews and focus groups conducted with teachers working in adult education, organized in categories and interpreted from the perspective of Discourse Analysis techniques. Our research is grounded in the theoretical and conceptual formulations and addresses the issue of Youth and Adults in the view of theorists studying the theme highlighted as: Oliveira (2001), Arroyo (2001), Haddad , Di Pierro (2000), Moura (2003), Barcelos (2010), Paiva (2007), Soares (2006), Ribeiro (2001), among others. As the purpose of this discussion we will highlight the official curriculum designed specifically for Youth and Adults, intending to understand this curriculum in the teachers' view that materialize in the classroom. The analyzed results indicate the need to initiate a process of discussion and implementation of this curriculum to support the Pedagogical Policy Project school regarding the Youth and Adults in a participatory, dialogical, and reflective way.

Keywords : Youth and Adults. Official curriculum. Teacher training.

Initial Considerations

In view of the historical trajectory of Education for Youth and Adults (EJA – abbreviation in Portuguese Language) is evident that during the process of institutionalization, from the Law 5.692/71 which promoted the Education Reform Primary and Secondary Schools, their students and professionals have adapted to Curriculum Proposals organized by school subjects guided by pedagogical principles aimed at training the 7-14 year child (Primary school – day), without the necessary adjustments, which sets a challenge for scholars and professionals engaged in this type of education .

In an attempt to foster this discussion and offer a route to the states and municipalities to build their curriculum forward specific demands without losing sight of the peculiarities of this type of education in basic education, the national government instituted the National Curriculum Guidelines for the Education of Young and Adults, by Opinion CEB No. 11/2000, overhauled recently by Resolution No. 3/2010, which deals with aspects related to course duration and minimum age for admission to courses in adult education, age and certification exams EJA and Education for

Youth and Adults developed through Distance Education. However, maintain the principles, objectives and guidelines formulated in CNE / CEB No. 11/2000.

Regarding the opinion establishing the curriculum that should be guaranteed basic national common and diverse, considering the content, skills and competencies established. But it highlights the curricular flexibility, as an opportunity to take advantage of diverse experiences that students bring with them, beyond systems can adjust themselves according to the specific type of student. In this sense, the pedagogical projects should consider the differential complexity of this type of education, bringing in its wake, curriculum components that fight disinhibition, low self-esteem and promote body awareness and cultivation of socialization, seeking contemplate the distinctive profile of the students of EJA.

By changing the nomenclature of Supplementary Education to EJA (Education for Youth and Adults), this type of education takes on a large proportion, since, out of view of supply shortages and takes the principles of education for life, that is, an education focused on lifelong learning, requiring, therefore, a curriculum organized by learning situations favoring the comprehensive training, preparing young people and adults for conscious exercise of citizenship as a central objective in the practice of education for young people and adults (BRAZIL, 2002).

Our research focuses in this universe of EJA, having as object of study curriculum and pedagogical practice experienced within schools affected by the official curricula proposals.

Besides highlighting the tensions and interactions present in this relationship between the official curriculum and teaching practices this type of teaching, this research will present great importance socially, to provide conditions in order to understand the curricular and pedagogical practices designed and developed for the EJA, with regard to the process of implementation and consolidation of public policies for this type of education, making room for a discussion on the real needs of the school with a holistic, educator's voice main agent and articulator of institutionalized knowledge, engaging content and seeking a teaching context dialogic interaction within the classroom .

We define the general objective: to analyze the pedagogical practices developed in Youth and Adults, in order to interact with the official curriculum from the perspective of overcoming tensions and consolidation of public policies in this type of education. Accordingly our specific objectives are: to understand the public policy of Education for Youth and Adults, from the perspective of the curriculum, promoted in the State and City school systems in Piauí – Brazil to identify the processes of implementing the official curriculum in the schools of the State and City education and reflect the pedagogical practices, tensions and interactions resulting from the dialogue with the official curriculum.

Therefore, considering the importance of public policies for EJA, as well as understanding of curricular practices, we rely on the theoretical and conceptual formulations of Oliveira (2001), Arroyo (2001), Haddad (2007), Moura (2003), Brunel (2004), Baquero (2004), Braga (2010) , Paiva (1987), among others.

Thus, reflecting the curriculum built to EJA and pedagogical practices developed in the context of the classroom, presupposes become public knowledge that is confined to the school routine, given that this reality should not be only on the statistics you need to turn it on instrument basis for decisions in the context of educational policies in the broadest sense in order to improve the quality of education, and consequently the quality of life of the public, who often was the margin of public policy education in the country.

This paper presents an initial discussion on the field of curriculum and articulation with pedagogical practice. Continuing to present a methodological trajectory of research and finally we present preliminary data obtained after the use of the questionnaire and completion of interviews with stakeholders.

Curriculum: field struggles and aspirations

The conflicting issues within the curriculum revolve around meaning that according to Goodson (1995) includes a symbolic significance and practical significance. The first is a public analysis of schooling, which are set basic standards as well as the availability of financial resources bound by these rules. Regarding the practical significance with regard to the curriculum that is practiced daily express contradictory, and creatively about the basic rules, but still also has a symbolic meaning.

We clearly recognized the distinction in theoretical conflict between the written curriculum and active curriculum, it means the curriculum experienced in the classroom from the daily emergencies. Accordingly, Goodson (1995, p. 24) states that :

> "The issue is that the potential for a close relationship - at the opposite end , a non - relationship - between theory and practice or between resume writing and resume active, depends on the nature of the construction pre - active curricula - as exposure and how to theory - as well as its interactive execution in the classroom ."[i] (our translation)

Thus, although this idea of opposite poles, it is possible an interactive relationship between what was written and what is practiced. This suggests a curriculum offered in an organized manner that allows a parameter to pedagogical practice. Mediation in this relationship involves instances educational National , State and Municipal levels until you reach school, teachers and students are the direct agents "as an area of production and reproduction school" (GOODSON, 1995, p. 27)[ii] (our translation). Reproduction in order to practice what has been theorized in the proposed curriculum, based on social expectations. Production to the extent that this curriculum is experienced by many individuals in different contexts inherent complexity in the classroom and the learning process drives a reframing of practice, concepts , knowledge and learning permeating among the subjects involved.

Related to EJA this question is even more conflicting, since it is a customer with differential characteristics with respect to regular education offered during all day. So long was required of students of EJA, which were adapted to the school setting made to the Elementary and Secondary schools regularly.

With the experiences of popular designs EJA covering conception enlarged pupil, the Ministry of Education recognizes as a form of teaching, and acting accordingly, establishing the National Curriculum Guidelines for Youth and Adults, by Opinion CEB No. 11/2000.

Since then, the public school system takes EJA in design education throughout life, culminating in the curriculum that aims to focus on training for citizenship as a guideline in the practice of education for young people and adults (BRAZIL, 2002).

From the perspective of Silva (2005) the curriculum involves connections with the identity (who we are), subjectivity (what have become) and power (favoring one type of knowledge), in that it seeks to answer the following questions: what to teach? For those who teach? Which model of human society and for what?

From this assumption, we consider that more than prescribed curriculum, it is also action, which leads to each teacher of adult education in their daily practice to decide what will be taught, to whom and for what purpose, in dialogical relationship. Therefore it is pertinent to a dose of awareness of the implications of their actions on the lives of students EJA considering their context, their life experiences, their needs.

Thus, the curriculum can be educational and efficiency, learning and development, curriculum and content list, besides being also what makes it up.

Given this dynamic of curriculum works in school spaces, specifically in adult education, it is a new understanding of relevant curriculum, which does not consider a pre-established, but a process through which practitioners curriculum reframe their experiences from networks of knowledge and practices in which they participate (OLIVEIRA, 2001).

Assuming this constitutive component of the curriculum and social structures through the formation of conscience, it is that we highlight some data representing the courseware as relevant source curriculum in the educational context of EJA.

The methodology of the research

This study presents partial results of the research master's degree in education, in which we conducted a qualitative research study having as object the tensions and interactions between the proposed curriculum and pedagogical practice experienced in educational institutions.

The qualitative epistemology refers to the "process of reflection and analysis of reality through the use of methods and techniques for detailed understanding of the object of study in its historical context and / or according to their structure" (OLIVEIRA, 2007, p.37)[iii] (our translation). What justifies our methodological choice in view, stand out from the reality experienced by classroom teachers who daily encounter conflicts and overcoming challenges recreating their practice .

To do so, we visited eight schools in Teresina, Bom Jesus, Floriano, and Parnaíba (Piauí – Brazil) offering every elementary school in the form of Youth and Adults with a total of thirty-nine teachers who answered the questionnaire, these four were interviewed. It is noteworthy that to preserve the privacy of the subjects participating in the research and ensure the ethical dimension, we use pseudonyms for their interlocutors.

The questionnaire with open and closed questions (Richardson, 2007), aims to profile the interlocutors of the research, in addition to introducing conceptual questions about the curriculum and their teaching. This instrument allows the researched freedom to formulate their responses, leading to greater accuracy of data (Oliveira, 2007).

According to Gil (1999) the interview that focuses on a specific theme enables a deeper analysis of the facts, as it allows the interviewee greater spontaneity, leading the researcher to explore in depth some experience. In this sense it is justified on the grounds of feasibility in dealing with complex issues such as tensions and interactions between the official curriculum and teaching practices, which could hardly be properly investigated only by means of the questionnaire.

The data generated by the questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and focus group, form the corpus of the research, which will be organized into categories and interpreted based on the technique of Discourse Analysis (PÊCHEUX, 2008).

To Bardin (2009, p.145) "categorization is a sort operation of the constituent elements of a set by differentiation and then by regrouping according to gender (analogy) with previously defined criteria."[iv] (our translation) Thus, this classification process will allow us to identify the features convergent and divergent, facilitating the analysis process.

As it comes to partial results, for purposes of this study, we will emphasize the teachers speech from the interviews show that the use of the textbook as a source curriculum in action in the classroom.

The official curriculum from the perspective of teachers

The systematized education, and mandatory right of all, requires consideration of certain criteria that underlie decisions about what will be taught, synthesized by Sacristan (2001, p. 99) in three basic reasons: " 1) the view that it has the human nature and its needs, 2) the functions that believes that education should meet at a certain level or specialty, and 3) the value of content deemed relevant in a given culture [...]."[v] (our translation)

However, the official curriculum adopted in schools, specifically in EJA, assumes the dimensions pre-active and active, in that it must be designed for one type of audience, with defined functions, proposed contents and experienced in school.

Intending to understand this curriculum in teachers' view that materialize in the classroom, pass the interpretative analysis of discourses reflected in the speeches aggregate:

Hera - I attended a long year, I know that this little book was the blue cape. I worked with this book here, was a one-week training only, I do not know if it was a thing in 2000. [...] I read a lot of it was, it was here in Campo Maior I received, we passed was a week (TER).

Antonio - [...] At the beginning of each school year, it is ... These PCNs… **there should be a training course** for us of how to work with customers you will have and how to focus. [...] I think it was thought out, planned from the beginning, surely be better (TER).

José - I think you should come from the Department of Education that a material both for the teacher and for the student to be working in the classroom. I was looking this stuff here just this little time I looked already help me a lot, because working at night, physical education in Steps is a great difficulty, we have worked on issues related to health, daily life , in the physical itself. So today I usually have to seek research, plan my classes because we do not have the registry or organs that produce it there, has no such concern to provide the physical education teacher materials for him to work in theory , for example : I do not I knew I had this book , this book ... (TER).

Facing the manifestation of most teachers do not know the official curriculum proposed for the Education of Youth and Adults , take the document in question for consideration by the interlocutors during meetings with focus groups.

We realize that even having previously stated that it had access to the official curriculum for adult education, Hera (TER), when faced with such a proposal, acknowledged having participated in training regarding the same , adopting as a defense mechanism discontinuity, as their training was solely the responsibility of the State, making it clear in his speech that it is more convenient to transfer the responsibility for the failure of practical teaching experience in school and therefore school failure for others, evidenced by his apparent forgetfulness.

In view of the discourse analyst, forgetting is a latent memory, which came to light through contact with the curriculum for adult education, and refers to a discursive knowledge. The statement Hera is more than a personal memory, is in the field " [...] the senses crisscrossing [...] memory inscribed in social practices , and memory built [...] " (A[1]CHARD, 2010, p. 50)[vi] (our translation), revealed when he assumed that there was a training organized by the Education Department , shortly after the publication of the proposed curriculum for adult education - First segment of Elementary Education .

Thus, while Hera has stated participation in a training concerning the said curriculum, discourse points to the appreciation of the secondary character attributed by the people involved in the EJA, in that despite the formation have been admitted, there was continuous and, especially, was not designed in a positive and critical, since no added elements that can cause the teacher to assume new position which caused the change in teaching practice.

However, to deny it initially recalling only after contact with the proposal ten years later, shows that the time marked and demonstrates its tension by not having been allowed to interact with the given knowledge for continuing education at the time. Thus, the curriculum has not achieved its goal in perspective Macedo (2011, p. 87) in that "the curriculum in its political sense, is done to change and alter the various pedagogical relationships"[vii] (Our translation).

Antonio and José (TER), both under six years working in the Education of Youth and Adults, they did not participate in training on the curriculum affirmed by Hera, why highlighted in their speeches the need for continuous training based on the proposed curriculum specific to this type of education, after a brief contact with it, saying it would be of great value as teaching material in order to "ensure that young people and adults an education appropriate to their needs, expectations and peculiarities of life, accompanied by consistent public policies" (Moura, 2010, p. 405)[viii] (our translation).

In unspoken, one identified in the speech explained by Antonio (TER) in nostalgic tone, full of tension and need for interactions reveals that [...] at the beginning of each school year, is... These PCNs there should be a training course for us of how to work with clients [...]. By interrupting his speech and make reference to curriculum, calls for the need for a discussion focused on the official curriculum at the time of the initial planning of each school year, with a view to renewing the teaching in adult education, since "we have no doubt that the training can not turn its back on innovation processes" (Macedo, 2010 p. 94)[ix] (our translation).

Final Thoughts

In this study we found that, despite the recognition of the Youth and Adult Education as a teaching modality, the main purpose is to serve those excluded from mainstream education, even as secondary without its due importance. Despite the efforts to recognize the specificities of their clientele by establishing a curriculum guideline specifies, and more recently include PNLD – EJA (a program that provides books to EJA students), much more is needed.

It takes time to give voice to teachers and discuss their problems, anxieties that arise in everyday life.

In this perspective, we can infer that the official curriculum as a guiding instrument of teaching practice in the school context is possible, provided there is political will to initiate a process of discussion and implementation of the same to support the school Pedagogical Policy Project regarding EJA, because "although the syllabus that the structure should also be crossed by the legalization purposes while mobilizing learning with regard to the various protagonists " (FERNANDES , 2001, p. 75)[x] (our translation)

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Notas

[i] In the original: "A questão é que o potencial para uma estreita relação – no extremo oposto, uma não- relação – entre teoria e prática ou entre currículo escrito e currículo ativo, depende da natureza da construção pré-ativa dos currículos – quanto à exposição e quanto à teoria – bem como da sua execução interativa em sala de aula.".

[ii] In the original: "como uma área de produção e reprodução escolar".

[iii] In the original: "processo de reflexão e análise da realidade através da utilização de métodos e técnicas para compreensão detalhada do objeto de estudo em seu contexto histórico e/ou segundo sua estruturação"

[iv] In the origial: "a categorização é uma operação de classificação de elementos constitutivos de um conjunto por diferenciação e, seguidamente, por reagrupamento segundo o gênero (analogia), com critérios previamente definidos".

[v] In the original:"1) a visão que se tenha da natureza humana e de suas necessidades; 2) as funções que se considera que a educação deva cumprir em um nível ou especialidade determinados; e 3) a valorização dos conteúdos considerados relevantes em uma determinada cultura [...]".

[vi] In the original: "[...] dos sentidos entrecruzados, [...] da memória social inscrita em práticas, e da memória construída [...]".

[vii] In the original: "o currículo, em sua política de sentido, é feito para alterar e alterar-se pelas diversas relações pedagógicas".

[viii] In the original: "garantir aos jovens e adultos uma educação adequada às suas necessidades, expectativas de vida e peculiaridades, acompanhada de políticas públicas consistentes"

[ix] In the original: "não temos dúvidas de que a formação não pode virar as costas aos processos de inovação"

[x] In the original: "embora tenham conteúdos programáticos que as estruturam, devem também ser atravessadas por propósitos que as legitimem enquanto mobilizadoras de aprendizagens com sentido para os diferentes protagonistas"

Integrated, Integral Education: Challenges for Vocational Training in Basic Education

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Abstract

The *Mais* Education Program implemented by the Ministry of Education, in 2007, took the centrality in the Brazilian educational policy aiming at expanding the school day throughout the country, optimizing the time of the student's involvement with the educational process in intra and extracurricular space. The proposal is bold and took it facing the precariousness of the school and the impact that will result in the educational context, because it directly and indirectly interferes in the way we think, feel and act of school, education professionals and the community becoming complex and multifaceted. This text aims to promote discussion on full-time education, relating it to the dynamics of systematization of school, in terms of concepts, relations, and pedagogical practices reflecting four aspects: Firstly, what education is. The second addresses the Integrated Integral Education. The third refers to curriculum that references the pedagogical practice at all levels and modes of teaching and fourth is about the challenges to be faced, considering: space, teacher training, curriculum and pedagogical practices. Related to the challenges to be faced, under: National, State and City levels the study points to the following results: a) formulation of public policies; b) initial and continuing training of the professionals involved, since this training: involves to understand the meaning of the category educator beyond the teacher; the practice as mediator of learning; interactive process of teaching and learning and educational procedures and acts; c) redesigning of curriculum and Pedagogical Politicy Project of the school; d) democratization of management. It is concluded that the curriculum is a basic point for the consolidation of the program, and it is necessary to combine the curriculum to community knowledge thinking its integration beyond the school borders. It is necessary to stimulate the ability of self-criticism and self-evaluation: the personal responsibility for self-learning, indispensable for the formation of competent subjects, confident of professional and personal skills, and committed to life in society.

Keywords: Integrated Integral Education. Vocational Training. *Mais* Education.

Initial Premises

There are countless projects that are currently developing in public schools in Brazil. It is not different in Piauí State, among them we highlight *Mais* Education Program implemented by the Ministry of Education in 2007, aiming to foster consistent discussions on extending the school day in schools in the whole country.

As its name suggests *Mais* Education means more time in school seeking student involvement with the educational process intra-school actively participating in the learning space and extra-school, living with the community around the school. Therefore, students feel motivated to stay in school with higher chances and opportunities to learn.

It is a bold proposal and take it on the public agenda considering the precariousness of the school and the impact it will have on its pedagogical context as it will interfere directly and indirectly in the school professionals' (managers, teachers, technicians, general services employees, students) way of thinking, feeling, and acting; education (Ministries, State and Municipal Education Councils); community (parents, associations, entrepreneurs) in constituting a complex and multifaceted task.

So, it will require overcoming obstacles in order to boost knowledge as a basic task assuming the provocation of public agencies to promote research to diagnose the reality offering subsidies for the construction of a more realistic

education in the present which is able to guide the various participants of basic education: Ministries, State and Municipal Education Councils.

Another big challenge is the orientation of public policy formulation and initial training and continuing professional education, aiming at transformation of pedagogical practice, redesigning curriculum and school Pedagogical Policy Project (PPP), subsidizing the production of teaching materials taking the diagnosis of reality as basilar reference. It is not possible change formulation of public policies for the sector which are able to transform teaching practices that contribute significantly to the quality of education to be achieved if these concerns are not at the center of collective discussions.

The state and municipal education in the State of Piauí chose by the Integrated, Integral School, as an important strategy to improve the level and quality of basic education offered by educational institutions as part of social inclusion policy for the lower classes. Besides the capital Teresina, other three large cities took part in the proposed initial implant: Parnaíba, Floriano, and Picos being 206 schools from 2008 to 2011.

In 2008 when the program was implemented, municipalities needed teacher training to subsidize the professionals who are responsible for the development of the Program's activities in education departments and schools regarding to the guiding principles of the proposed implementation and basic guidelines to strengthen the consolidation program in the municipalities.

Thus, the partnership among the Ministry of Education; Department of Continuing Education, Literacy , Diversity and Inclusion; National University of Piauí; State and Municipal Department of Education (MEC / SECADI / UFPI / SEDUC / SEMECs).

The role of UFPI in the program is responsibility of the Dean of Extension (PREX), as part of the expansion of the University extension policy toward the commitment and responsibility with social issues. Support for public education is priority within PREX/UFPI current policy.

The partnership among the sectors mentioned began with the drafting and approval of the project in 2009 which was consolidated in 2010/2011, with the completion of continuing training of communitarian teachers, technicians of the departments as well as managerial departments of education, supervisors and/or coordinators and managers of schools that joined the program, organized in extension courses 60 hours financed by Ministry of Education and Department of Continuing Education, Literacy , Diversity and Inclusion (MEC/SECADI).

The work done in harmonic partnership, both with the state and the municipal department of education has originated new demands that have generated other updating course involving professionals who are not involved in the current course for limits of places reasons.

It was also timely and strategic, the school principals involvement in the training, as their commitment with the project are directly proportional to the knowledge of the proposals of the program. For instance, there is the design that depicts the evolution of data: schools, resources provided by Ministry of Education (MEC) and students benefited by the program *Mais* Education in the State of Piauí (FIGURE 01).

Challenges, especially related to teacher training grew due to increasing demand for membership of schools to *Mais* Education Program in the State of Piauí as shown in the table above because the success rate of the shaft moves from the ownership of space, time and covering to the acquisition of knowledge, resulting in training for: managers, coordinators, teachers, technicians, monitors, and finally for all professionals involved in the process.

Based on this reality, this text aims to foster a discussion of Integrated, Integral Education proposed by the Ministry of Education, this theme in current policies and their integration with the dynamics of systematization of the school, both in terms of understanding of concepts, relationships established in the school context as well as the pedagogical practices .

Searching the specialized literature about the topic discussed, it is clear that the changes wrought by technological advances experienced by the subjects in training today, the target of school, represent significant changes in the social, cultural, and educational scope.

In the case of integrated, Integral Education focus of this paper, these characteristics are fundamental in this discussion, since the modifications suggest resizing of educational discourses permeating the organization of the school, teacher training as well as education professionals, adequacy of curricular proposals, focused on the areas of learning, which means the way the historical subject learns rearranging school knowledge and extra-school.

Figure 01 – Covering and Development ff *Mais* Education Programme in State ff Piauí

2011- 12.1% of Municipalities

Schools - 302
Students – 39.252
Money – 8.992.837,12

2010 - Evolução do Programa

Schools - 201
Students – 29.694
Money – 5.863.373,68

2009 - Evolução do Programa

Schools - 176
Students – 25.994
Money – 4.714.144,20

2008 – Evolução do Programa

Schools - 61
Students – 23.639
Money – 2.582.285,10
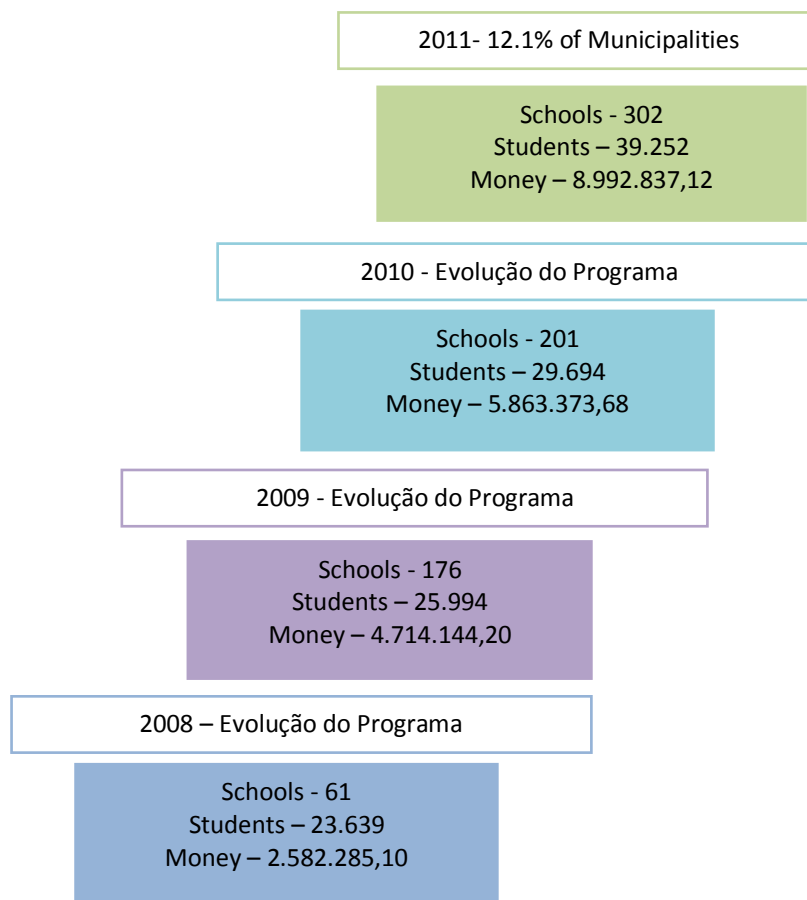
Source: Data offered by State Department of
Education of Piauí/2012

Discussions beyond the initial premises reflect four fundamental aspects to this dialogue: The first is a reflection on education. The second addresses the Comprehensive Integrated, Integral Education and the context of experience. The third refers to a specific reflection on the curriculum which references to pedagogical practice in all levels and types of education and the fourth concerns to challenges faced during the implementation of comprehensive Integrated, Integral Education in the context of Brazilian education which searches for: spaces, teacher training, curriculum and pedagogical practices interrelated with the ultimate premises. One chose to start the discussion with a reflection on what is meant by education. What is education, after all?

What is meant by education?

Brandão (1995, 9) tells that:

> "[...] education is everywhere and in the teaching of all knowledge. So, there is no model of education, the school is not the only place where it occurs, nonetheless the teacher is its only agent. [...] It is the reproduction of knowledge that makes up a culture, therefore, the education of a society has its own identity."[i] (our translation)

Brandão's concept of education that presents the subject in training as the main focus needs to be reinvented, making such subject part of his/her life and routine, including oneself in the popular culture of the communities, whether offered in the school or not school. Therefore, there is only one priority is a prerequisite for the development of a nation that cares about social injustice. Gadotti (2009, p. 56) says: "A quality education is a citizenship education, active, participatory, for forming and citizenship, empowering people and communities."[ii] (our translation) In fact it is open to everyone and belongs to all, social responsibility belongs to all not only to the State.

It is possible that subjects have never wondered about what education is. But the role of the school is to make them understand that EDUCATION happens anywhere and anytime and is not an exclusive product of the classrooms, but it is also product of classroom. Thus, the school needs to reframe its curriculum, it should be centered on the human being as historical subjects in training, which is able to reflect their actions, act on them and transform them.

This means that the school, facing situations that are presented establishes relationships intra-school with its partners and systematized knowledge and extra-school when it involves the community assigning a value, a new sense of action, that is, it is to become significant learning. Of course, the appropriation of knowledge happens gradually because it is closely related to the place where the learner is in the learning process. And this creative act he/she is human, autonomous who produces knowledge and learn.

So, in a broad perspective, it is important to stress that this is not an absolute truth, since the learning is the gateway to which the subject is educate, it comes from the knowledge that is cumulative and suffers through a natural process, modifications through the time, keeping a bit of everything is transformed. Hence it is essential for the construction of historical beings and history of a people. Thus, it is not merit to one teacher or one school, but should be the goal of every teacher and the whole school community.

For this reason, it is absolutely clear that one needs defenders, qualified professionals, thinkers, and above all, the culture of the people who make education and it is made by it. Moreover, it has as main focus the subject; it is constructed from their stories and experiences of their lives. This means that education is focused on the formation of the subject in training so that it is recognized as a citizen in his/her social environment.

That is why one defends an Integrated, Full-time Education, centered in the collective of the subjects to express their interests and needs, so that the school can become really a place where knowledge can circulate as well as space of significant training. If education is built collectively to form citizens it will constitute an instrument of social transformation.

Thus, it is confirmed that Brandao told by the beginning of this item, no subject in training escapes from education which happens at all moments of life and in all places. As Freire (1921-1997) stated: "[...] education is an act of love and courage"[...][iii].(our translation) By appropriating knowledge historically constructed as a historical subject man understands the true meaning of education and becomes human. This is education, so it is understood one can dare to speak of Integrated, Integral Education.

What is meant by Integrated, Integral Education ?

The concept of integral education is that learning is a citizen's right and duty of the state to provide favorable conditions for learning to occur, as expressed in the set of documents guiding the program "*Mais* Education" , the Ministry of Education through the Departments of: Continuing Education, Literacy, Diversity and Inclusion and Basic Education – MEC / SECADI / SEB, in partnership with the National Fund for Education Development – FNDE.

Therefore, learning is inherent to life, being an essential condition for social and economic development of a society that calls itself democratic enjoyment of rights guaranteed by the Constitution, such as: health , freedom , respect , human dignity and the coexistence family and community (PASSO A PASSO, 2009).

This view is centered on the format of comprehensive education emphasizing the offering of diverse activities, articulated with other sectors of society and with the participation of school, family, and community considering that education should not be conceived only as responsibility school community, but also the learning community. Anyway, it takes around the school as a learning space.

In this sense, one explains the confusion that commonly does with the conception of integral education with full time table, full time or a full day. "It is recognized school time and spaces, thanks to the experience of new opportunities for learning"[iv] (Moll, 2009, p. 18) (our translation).

On the other hand, one must consider that we are at the moment currently known as "Knowledge Society" enabling experiences of information through new technologies, which although it is not accessible and also the domain to all one has created a variety of learning spaces, making possible to get faster to underserved populations socially disadvantaged to information widening thus the spaces of training beyond the school walls.

Following this thought, the integral education can be seen as a principle for the organization of the curriculum emphasizing the integration of knowledge from interdisciplinary approaches, experiences and different knowledge, considering that there is only a single space or a single way of teaching and to learn.

Another conception of integral education is the curriculum as experience in learning articulate with thematic projects. In this perspective, the activities are developed from a proposed theme triggering experiences and knowledge articulated from pedagogical practices connected to the reality and needs of the subject to learn (GUARÁ , 2005).

While the concept of integral education as training tool in its multiple dimensions , recognizes the subject integrally, in their biopsychosocial dimension, preparing them for life. By considering the educator's world, the subject in training search direction and attempts to answer relating it to their learning context and needs, which are closely related to his/her own life story. Therefore, they participate in and produce their history of schooling.

Bring the educator's world knowledge to recognize that this discussion is the subject in training brings to the relationship pedagogical knowledge arising from experience permeate of oppressors and liberators senses, they impart a special educational significance, making possible the dialogue with others who live with in order to understand one another, trying different ways of living. So, one sets up relationships making possible significant learning and integral development of the student.

Finally, the concept of integral education linked to the permanence of the student in school requires some primary care in order not to reproduce pedagogical practices developed in partial-time school (Coelho, 2004).

In summary, integral education is based on dialogic meeting of time and quality and quality with time. This means that when it comes to integrated, integral education, the relationship established with the school and education community is constructed in association with the group and intra and extra-school. Since "education takes full time, in school, in the family, [...] in all our daily experiences and livings" (GADOTTI, 2009, p. 22) [v] (our translation).

In this sense, the Brazilian education has moved to the progressive increase of school day (LDB 9394 / 96 Articles 34 and 87), favoring projects of integral education. However, the proposed Integrated, Integral education in Brazil has followed since ancient times, at different moments and from different proposals and experiences.

In the Manifesto of Pioneers of The New School in 1932, on the occasion of the Manifesto of Pioneers of The New School, the discussion of integrated, integral education, appears as a right for all and a duty of the state, linked to park schools designed by Teixeira, in the 40s and 50s and the Integrated Centres for Public Education – CIEPs, designed by Darcy Ribeiro, in the 80s.

The *Mais* Education Program established by Normative Interministerial paragraph number. 17/2007 brings actions with the Ministries of : Education; Culture; Social Development and Hunger Alleviation; Science and Technology; and Environment, with the support of the Presidency, as well as actions taken by the States, Municipalities and Universities (MEC, 2009).

Within this context, it is clear that integral education in Brazil has been conceived as special projects that suffered discontinuity different from what is currently proposed, as a public policy of the State and not as merely a program.

Based on these reflections, one believes that the changes proposed by the Full-time School, especially concerning to school time and space, one may only become historical action, that is, in actuated and active history, if they are designed agents actually involved with education and willing to take a willingness to change, attitudes and personal and professional stance.

In this sense, thinking of a curriculum for Integral Education constructed according to the need of apprentice training, causing dialogic confrontation between school knowledge and social knowledge is "betting on a reconfiguration of an educational field that has a history which is as tense as dense, but it demands to be recognized as a specific field of public responsibility" (ARROYO, 2006, p. 42) [vi](our translation).

However, prior to consideration of a proposed curriculum able to establish relationships with the students' learning, their knowledge and the knowledge of their community, organized by learning situations and not by discipline, overcoming " the fragmented curriculum, organized in grids and based on the isolation of disciplines therefore isolates people and creates ghettos learning " (GADOTTI, 2009, p. 110)[vii] (our translation), it is necessary to pause and reflect a little on what is meant by education.

What is meant by reframing policy Curriculum?

I am convinced that we are living a special moment of Brazilian education. And as every moment of paradigm shift is permeated by doubt and conflict of theories because you can not see clearly the way forward. Maybe that is why this vagueness manages many uncertainties, caused mainly by the fear of leaving a consolidated structure, in which it circulates with relative safety, the familiarity of the living space and professional staff provides us. This behavior is

natural, since the teacher faces critics to values he/she believes in and practices of a life so far unchallenged being questioned.

Integrated, Integral Education proposed by Ministry of Education (MEC) is at the centre of current educational discussions. Therefore, there is no exaggeration to say that will bring positive consequences for the country's education system as long as major challenges are overcome among which point out in that item the redefinition of politics of curriculum in the context of macro and micro school, which paths to point to establish a partnership with the society in which responsibilities are defined among and with the participants. Thus, integrated, integral education will bring beneficial results for the school at all levels and types of education and, as consequence, for all sectors of society.

It is known that the curricular reforms usually had their roots in traditional pedagogy and laws coming from the educational reforms adapted to a context which social demands, whose horizons point to new training needs.

Thus, there is an urgent need to discuss where we set up what we want and where we want to go. In this scenario the "Integral Education must be entered in the broad field of social policies, but do not lose sight of its specificity in relation to educational policies addressed to children, young people, and adults serving a complex and structured set of current legal provisions in the country" (MEC, 2009, p. 21)[viii] (our translation).

It is worth highlighting that even understanding the Integral Education, we need to reframe the curriculum in order to make a dynamic school that can turn its practice into playful moments, in which students are able to grasp the knowledge, enhancing culture, dialogue about the content and curricular practices, giving life to activities. Certainly the difficulties start when the school will have to establish relationships between the law, the official curriculum and its applicability to a given space with diverse realities and real needs. Therefore, in designing the Integral Education, learning takes place not only in the official context , it also goes beyond the school.

So when thinking about reframing the curriculum lacks a detailed reflection of reality, so it can be put into practice. "[...] Hence the importance that the context will have time to establish a real implementation of the curriculum: family background, sociocultural conditions, municipality, possibilities of access to information, media... (informal learning)" (BEARD; CAPELLA, 2012, p. 44)[ix] (our translation).

Then, implanting integrated, integral education in schools requires social commitment and political integration of various sectors of local and national level, as it will be essential to involve all in the educational process as a co-participant and above all a critical and analytical of what it is about formal and informal curriculum in a specific context, which must develop a proposal for integrated and contextualized curriculum what is the major challenge.

Ultimate premises: challenges for comprehensive education

Regarding the challenges faced by education systems, whether under National, State, and Municipal deserves the training of teachers and other school professionals, since their training involves: understanding the meanings of class of teachers beyond teacher; practice as a mediator of learning; the interactive process of teaching and learning; educational acts and procedures.

This discussion leads us also to the challenges faced in the school, when seeking an Integral Education that meets the needs of the individual in training. It is questioned constantly about: the subjects with whom it works, the conditions that are not always appropriate offered, the public policies for the sector, the curriculum organization, the organization of fields of knowledge and school time for this process; and especially with the lack of an appropriately qualified faculty to deal with overcoming the educational model.

The elements of this discussion were designed in order to reflect on the Integral Education in inclusive public policy perspective, not only in the context of including, but also to ensure the permanence of the learners at the school, providing them with an integral education quality. So, one will focus on some challenges as follows:

1. **The curriculum organization** – with special attention to the relationship to knowledge within learning regarding: objectives, goals, content, organization, teaching, assessment, space, time.

2. **Preparation of Pedagogical Policy Project** – must include: planning of teaching activities; community interaction; evaluation criteria; continuing education; everything that refers to learning situations, that is, characteristics that mark the training and teaching practice focus on overcoming the remaining social division of labor and the authoritarian practices that exists.

3. Democratization of Management – maximize participation: school councils, unions, associations, community groups, physical spaces as well as particularities indicators pointing to facilitate public policy and operation of teaching action.

Thus, it is necessary to make some remarks about the configuration that installs Integral Education and its implications in the educational context. Therefore, it requires the understanding of two fundamental concepts for the understanding of the proposed Integral Education: responsible for inter-sectored coordination of the program with the various Ministries, Departments of Education, and Universities integrating knowledge and experiences focused on governance and coordination capacity of the State in implementing the Program.

So, it is necessary to stimulate: the capacity for self-evaluation and self-criticism, professional skills, the ability to work in teams, personal responsibility for their own learning and the need to build capacity for learning throughout life, forming competent individuals, insurance their professional and personal skills and committed to life in society.

Considering what is mentioned above, we observe that the curricular knowledge are crucial for the proper development of educational practices. In turn, *Mais* Education Program points to the need to combine knowledge associated with the formal curriculum with the community as well as their integration beyond the confines of school and educational policies. Undoubtedly, the curriculum, by adding a number of varieties of essential elements in the legislation of education reference, constitutes a basic point for the development of teaching practice.

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Notas:

[i] In the original: "[...] a educação está em todos os lugares e no ensino de todos os saberes. Assim não existe modelo de educação, a escola não é o único lugar onde ela ocorre e nem muito menos o professor é seu único agente. [...] é a forma de reprodução dos saberes que compõe uma cultura, portanto, a educação de uma sociedade tem identidade própria".

[ii] In the original: "Uma educação de qualidade é uma educação cidadã, ativa, participativa, formando para e pela cidadania, empoderando pessoas e comunidades".

[iii] In the original: "[...] a educação é um ato de amor e de coragem" [...].

[iv] In the original: "Trata-se de tempos e espaços escolares reconhecidos, graças à vivência de novas oportunidades de aprendizagens."

[v] In the original: "a educação se dá em tempo integral, na escola, na família, [...]

vi In the original: "apostar em uma reconfiguração de um campo educativo que tem uma história tão tensa quanto densa, mas que exige ser reconhecido como um campo específico de responsabilidade pública".

vii In the original: "o currículo fragmentado, organizado em grades e fundamentado no isolamento das disciplinas que, por conseguinte, isola as pessoas e cria guetos de aprendizagem".

viii In the original: "Educação Integral, deve estar inscrita no amplo campo das políticas sociais, mas não pode perder de vista sua especificidade em relação às políticas educacionais dirigidas ás crianças, aos jovens e aos adultos, atendendo a um complexo e estruturado conjunto de disposições legais em vigor no país" (MEC, 2009, p. 21).

ix In the original: "[...] Daí a importância que o contexto terá na hora de estabelecer uma implementação do currículo real: família, contexto, condições socioculturais, município, possibilidades de acesso à informação, meios de comunicação... (aprendizados informais)" (BARBA; CAPELLA, 2012, p. 44).

Public evaluation and curriculum: teachers' point of view considering educational public policies

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Abstract:

The evaluation applied in states and cities by the federal government having as a reference the quality of Brazilian public education represent a great impact on the educational policies. The data concerned to these evaluations, based on the basic education public school students' efficiency demonstrate higher values every year. These quantitative evaluations applied on basic education, mainly those one concentrated on Portuguese and Math curriculum, have been published by the means of communication throughout government publicity, in a way to indicate that Brazilian public education quality has become better. This research aims to ponder over basic education teachers' reports of some public education nets that were evaluated, in order to try not only to understand teachers' mentality about the improvement of these evaluations' rates, but also to analyze the factors that have been contributing to the progress of these results. The data referred to public net teachers' point of view about the evaluation results were obtained through a qualitative research based on questionnaire and interviews. The results based on teachers' answers in questionnaires and interviews have indicated that the increasing values on the evaluation improvement are not compatible with the quality of public education's reality. The educators point that the main factor of the discussion considering the rates of these evaluation consists on the reason that the rates are only based on targets that should be reached, being apart from educational quality question. This practice has affected, in an expressive way, the curriculum, mainly in basic education, because the government policies insists on aiming the teaching on the students' preparation for these tests instead of building a curriculum based on the formation of a critical citizen. The result of this research puts in question the risen of Brazilian education presented throughout the government evaluation's results.

Keywords: public evaluation, curriculum, public policies

Introduction

"Making the improvement of education". This statement was and will be still reproduced by different governments, in many countries. And the History has proved that the development of the nations, mainly the ones known as "economic potencies" had as base of their development the aim of "improving education". The recent history shows that countries that were dismantled in the Second World War and that, nowadays, are considered as economic potencies had as base of their development an effective investiture in education. Although many of these countries had passed by eventual economic crises in the last decades, they continue with elevated rates of education, sustained themselves over the world-wide average. Other indirect facts of quality in education and in research can also be pointed, such as: technologic patents and number of academic publications in different areas and internationally recognized universities.

In this way, the analyses of the different tools of evaluation in quality of education has an extremely positive factor, because they can become an interesting way to show that investiture in education made by different governments, in the last decades, has been effectively transformed into teaching improvement. So, the different "rates of quality in education" have become more than an important tool of evaluation, but, above all, a mean that can attest whether determinate governmental policy in education effectively results in improvement of teaching.

So, it appears a serious questioning: why can we take place a research discussing about the tools of evaluation of the quality in education rates, if they can be an important tool of analysis in public policies? If a rate in education of certain population has had a constant progress, would this fact be an example, because of the improvement of different factors, such as the teachers' formation and students' curriculum?

Wouldn't be unnecessary, in these terms, to build a work that broach the evaluation tools of education if they are important? If countries with elevated rates of evaluation present successful projects with their students in order that it can be an example for all over the world, why do we discuss about the evaluation tools?

The problem involving the evaluation tools of education begins when they are transformed from "evaluation tools" into "education objectives". This concept can be well understood in the Brazilian education's actual moment.

Brazil has developed, in the last decades, an important economic growth, being considered the economic sixth potency in the world, FMI (2013), the fifth population of the world, IBGE (2013), with an enormous potential labor and infinity fonts of natural resources. Among other things, this growth has allowed the country to patronage international events, some of them, unusual in Latin America, such as World Cup, the Olympic Games and The Youth World Journey. These events has been contributing to build to the world a social and economic development image never been reached by Brazil before.

Other factor that is pointed as a rising of Brazilian development is the investiture of capital in education. Although this investiture is still low in relation to the other countries, Brazil, in the last decade, has invested more resources in education.

These investitures are pointed by the government as one of the main reasons for the constant increasing of the quality of education rates in all over the country. According to the report data of "Education at Glance 2012" from OCDE (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development), Brazil increased funding for education in 149% between the years 2005 and 2009. Even though, the country presents the worst investiture rates among the 34 countries that are members of OCDE. The result shows that, in terms of investiture, Brazil presents the following results in each teaching phase: the thirty second place for the childhood education; the thirty first place, for first years of Elementary School and the thirty second place for the High school.

In 2011, the Ideb's result (basic education index development), one of the most important education evaluation tools made by federal government, shows that the most part of the states and cities considered as poor places or even distant from the main centers, the education rates has become better. According to the Brazilian government, if the growth obtained in the Brazilian evaluation continues in this rhythm, in the next decades, the Brazilian public education will reach the goal of getting, in all over the world, the same quality rates of the most economic developed European countries.

And these positive results are known by Brazilian population even more. The Brazilian government in the three levels of government - federal, state and municipal - patronages publicity that show the people that the Brazilian education quality has increased, facts that can be proved by numbers.

It can be emphasized that these evaluation created to measure the rates of Brazilian public education quality are developed by Brazilian government or throughout companies hired by the government members. It is the result of these evaluation that are detached in the government publicity being not only present in the great means of communication but also being spread on the schools' walls or doors, mainly when they have a good evaluation.

However, the evaluation rates applied in Brazil by international agencies like as PISA, 2009, point that the rates of education in Brazil are considered one of the worst among the countries analyzed. Although being considered the sixth economy in the world, in 2013, according to PISA's report is only in the fifty third position among the sixth five countries that were analyzed. Brazilian results on PISA and in other international agencies are less published by the Brazilian government in Brazilian public school.

In general, these evaluations have pointed to a little improvement in Brazil's education rates, however it was not enough to take the country from the last positions. If we compare Brazilian gross domestic product with the results

obtained in the international evaluations of education's quality, it can be noticed that the Brazilian wealth cannot produce in the same proportion quality in education.

Analyzing only the obtained data of the evaluation made by Brazilian government, it can be gotten the following questioning: is Brazilian people noticing that the rates in education's quality are increasing? Is there a consensus among Brazilian educators that Brazilian education is effectively advancing? Do teachers that act, day by day, in the public schools really think the education is effectively improving?

The answers for these questions are coming from different places, pointing that in the Brazilian case, the rates of evaluation in education's quality should be analyzed with care.

A recent event that shows the population's perception in relation to the Brazilian public education was the wave of protests that took place in July 2013, in the streets of many Brazilian cities. Motivated, in the beginning, because of the bus fares values' rise in the main cities of the country, and, afterwards, questioning the elevated expense with 2014 World Cup's preparation, in which Brazil was chosen as the seat, the several protests involving millions of people on the street and on the social network, increased the list of revendication: the combat to the corruption and the deficiency in the public services, mainly, in health and education.

The Brazilian researchers in education have also presented worries in relation to the actual quality in education, in Brazil, and they also have worried with the politic use of the educational rates. Neto (2013), an Inep's (national institute of educational researches and studies) researcher, considers about the positive increasing results in education: "the grades increasing does not mean an improvement in learning". Considering Inep one of the most important institutions of research in Brazil, the main reason that supports Neto's opinion is that the teaching public net is worrying almost exclusively in preparing the students for the external tests of evaluation rates of quality in education. And, the main tool to reach this aim can be gotten throughout the creation of a curriculum directed to the students.

The applied curriculum in Brazilian public schools has been enormously affected in the last years after the application of external evaluations in Brazilian public schools. The Brazilian scholar curriculum designed for the beginning series, adressed to children from 7 to 10 years old is basically built by the following subjects: History, Geography, Natural Science, Math and Portuguese language. Neto has pointed that governmental evaluation that checks the quality in educations is, in the most, constituted of Portuguese and Math tests. According to Neto's research (2013), it is pointed that, in Brazil, many schools are reducing the curriculum of History, Geography and Natural Science in the beginning series, in order to create an exclusively curriculum based on Math and Portuguese. Besides of encumber the student's formation in other areas of knowledge, the curriculum is not guided "to learn" more concepts of Portuguese or Math, but only to work the topics of these subjects that are more presented in the evaluation tests. In this way, the Brazilian public school's teaching is, each more, centered to the student's training in an external evaluation test, giving a false idea of the evaluation's veracity.

Teacher's reports about the curriculum's role in teaching evaluation

In order to understand and ponder throughout public net elementary teaching, teacher's reports about their understanding about the improvement of these external evaluations's index, it was made a qualitative analysis of questionnaires and interviews in order to investigate the way of these evaluations have influenced their teaching practice. The collected data made with fifty teachers that work in different cities from Rio de Janeiro's state, had the aim to know which factors considered by these teachers have contributed to the improvement of these results.
The first worried data obtained with the teachers that participated of this research point to the same question: 85% answered that the obtained results of these evaluations does not correspond to the reality. For the most part of the teachers that answered the research, the Brazilian education has become worst.

Other question asked the public school teachers, it considerers the occurrence of some orientation from the education secretaries about the necessity of improvement of rates in education's quality in the school they work: 90% indicated that it happened. When they were asked if they suffered some pressure from the schools to reach the establish goals, 80% answered that they did.

One of the teachers that has been teaching Portuguese for two year in the public net on the elementary education commented:

"I earned the equivalent to 500 dollars per month to teach four days in the week. It was said, in the beginning of the year that the only promise of raising our salary it will happen through the gratification for performance. The school that have an improvement in the external evaluation made both by federal and state government and, in the end of the year, obtain a reduction of less than 50% of students failed, it would receive an extra salary as a prize".

Other data pointed by the teachers is the charging made over the Portuguese and Math teachers. These teachers have, in most part of the public nets, double or triple of work hours per week, in each class, in comparison to the other scourge. Even with a working hour higher than the other scourges, these teachers say that they are guided in the pedagogic meetings to maintain the focus on determinate aspects of the subject, forgetting other ones. This fact was related by one of the Portuguese teachers that work in High School classes.

"In the school when I worked some years ago, it was common the teachers hand in their tests to the pedagogic orienting before applying the test for the students, in order to be checked if the tests' content was in agreement with the school's curriculum. The school's guiders said that my tests had too much grammar, and that they should have only texts' interpretation. As I was, in that moment, beginning my carrier, I agreed with the idea, receiving from the school a exercises' list that would be used as an example to be applied in the tests. In the end, I noticed that the external evaluation tests had almost the same questions that were applied in the content I had received previously and in these tests, there was no grammar".

Early ages teachers are those who have more influence from the external evaluation inside the curriculum applied by them inside the class. In the questionnaire, 75% have indicated that received school's orientation to priorize Portuguese and Math's teaching. These teachers also pointed that 60% guided or were forced to apply preparatory tests for their students, aiming the external evaluation tests.

One of the early ages' teachers described the situation that occurred in the school she has been working for more than twenty years.

"In the beginning of the school year, in the first pedagogic meeting, made with the teachers, it was presented certain determinations from the education secretary of the city. First, the town hall department said that they would be hiring for that year, Portuguese and Math teachers to apply reinforcement classes, in order to help the students with difficulties in these subjects. As it would occur a test applied by the federal government, in October, to measure the school's quality in relation to Portuguese's and Math's teaching, it was asked the teachers to teach exclusively these subjects until the test's day. When we asked about the other subjects, the guiders said that they could be taught after this test. The teachers that were hired by the town hall, to apply the reinforcement classes, used a postscript containing a collection of tests that were applied previously by the government. In September, their contract finished and we have not seen them anymore."

Another data discussed was the continuum teachers' formation. When they were asked if the teaching public nets, where they worked, had offered some course of continuum formation in the last ten years, 40% pointed that they had participated of some formation course. In this case, they were also asked what the main theme worked in that course was, and 70% answered that the themes were turned to the Portuguese's and Math's teaching. It is interesting to notice that, in this period of ten years, the evaluations on teaching public nets were intensified.

Conclusion

The result of this research made with Brazilian public net teachers points the necessity in questioning the results presented by Brazilian government, always affirming the increasing evolution in Brazilian education's quality. Teachers point that, in essential basic questions, the improvement of the basic education quality as a (incentive) to the continuum formation, salary rising, improving on work conditions, pedagogic autonomy, among other questions was not improved, on the contrary, it became worst in many places in Brazil. The teachers' report have pointed that the Brazilian public schools are not worried with the quality in education, but only worrying in preparing the students to get good grades in the evaluation tests. This students' preparation process for these tests are the cause of the curriculum's alteration in order to exclusively attend the content that are presented in the education evaluation tests. It is necessary to point that this curricular alteration does not have any pedagogic evidence that can be justified. In this way, this work points the necessity of the existence of investigative researches about the real improvement in Brazilian education that cannot be understood only as a result published by the government. More adjusted criteria to

evaluate the quality of Brazilian education cannot ignore the public net teachers' reports that live the difficult reality of education in Brazil.

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CURRICULUM FOR SOCIAL CHANGE IN HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

This paper highlights curriculum for social change in human development. At various times and in relation to various problems, different individuals and groups stretching all the way from a tendency to include social pressure, norms, values, interest and hospitality to discount the old curriculum are implicated. Therefore, the curriculum planners, administrators, and innovators, interview the teachers, learners, schools, and the communities, whom they are in direct contact with, so as to determine their stages of readiness for change. However, human beings do not change their social arrangements as long as they are perfectly satisfied with them but dissatisfaction with the existing curriculum seems to be a prerequisite for intentional change. Hence, curriculum does not take place within classrooms and school alone but connected to the larger social, cultural, political and historical contexts. The curriculum planners obviously will need to accommodate interest in deliberate social change of the society for the total person in human development as social change in human development is relevant and necessary in order to ensure cordial relations and consolidation of peace for the total person for the interest of the society.

Introduction

In our consideration, curriculum is "the body of knowledge that houses all the experiences, skills, creativity and activities going on in the school environment in order to achieve educational goals". Asoegwu (2006, p. 2). Mkpa (1987) opined that, "curriculum, could be viewed as a vehicle through which the school strives towards the achievement of educational ends, be they those of the nation, state, local Government or even the community." As a vehicle, curriculum carries along the age, attitude, interest, needs, beliefs, norms values, aspirations, socio economic status and practices of the members of the society. Also, Roberts (2008) viewed curriculum not simply as taking place within classrooms and schools but as connected to large social, cultural, political and historical contexts. With the above definitions of curriculum, the researcher contend that the following questions have been answered-what knowledge is of most value? In the distribution of knowledge, whose interests are being served? And how does knowledge help personally and socially in human development?

These also set curriculum in its broadest sense, as the constructing of a learning environment, with activities ranging from teaching social change, to cultural and political activities. Obviously, curriculum should be considered as having its theoretical, practical, explicit, implicit and perceived dimensions. Therefore, the goals of curriculum change include observing, understanding, generalizing, testing, predicting and validating which describe how scientists understand and explain the world around them. However, the group that is apparently rather complacent does not feel that it needs to worry, since curriculum addresses distinct and important issues related to education. These issues tend also to be holistic and trans-disciplinary, and are concerned with the interrelationships among various disciplines.

Moreover, once the existing curriculum answers these questions:

1   What should be taught in schools?
2.   Why should it be taught?
3.   To whom should it be taught?
4.   What does it mean to be an educated person?

These explain the educational practice and the relationship between school programs and the contours of the society as well as the culture in which schools are located. This reflects on the curriculum for social change in human development. Finally, in order for curriculum to meet social change standards to serve educational objectives these rational bases should be met (Offorma, 1994, p. 129).

i.   Relevance to society and it's cultural roots
ii.   Relevance to the school's philosophy of education
iii. Consistency with the theory of learning, and
iv.   Comprehensiveness.

Statement of the Problem

The problem is how to include social change in curriculum to help in human development. It will be a matter largely of converting a vague sense of discomfort and unrest into strong convictions that certain specific ills should be attacked to accommodate the societal needs. The approach to curriculum for social change will encourage the study of human development as a better understanding of the learning process.

Human Development

Human development is a process of enlarging people's choices, which help them to achieve by expanding human capabilities and functioning. Rao (1991) stated that at all levels of development, the three essential capabilities for human development are: for people to live long and healthy lives, to be knowledgeable and to have access to the resources needed for a decent standard of living. These high values, range from political, economic and social opportunities for being creative and productive to enjoy self-respect, empowerment and a sense of belonging to a community. This provides a framework in which advancing human development is commensurate with realizing human rights. The 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights affirms that "everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services… everyone has the right…to education… to work… (and) to social security."

Moreover, human development requires strong social cohesion and equitable distribution of the benefits of progress to avoid tension. Also, sustainability is an important dimension of human development. It means meeting the needs of present generation and compromising the abilities and opportunities of future generations. All these approaches have emphasized the need for human development, with concerns for educational attainment, empowerment, participation, social needs, gender equality, equitable growth, poverty reduction and long-term sustainability. In fact, since the segments of the human development are necessary for social change, curriculum should include them.

Curriculum for Social Change

Curriculum for social change is viewed not simply as taking place within classrooms and schools, but as connected to large social, cultural, political and historical contexts. Rapp and Hanson (1988) supported that; social work is well positioned to mount a major curriculum initiative focused on practice. Curriculum for social change integrates many philosophical and instructional approaches in order to enable students to achieve a true understanding of the world. These encourage ideas, creativity and activities among students, teachers, parents and society at large throughout the student's entire course work. These also help student's to build upon and refine their knowledge, gaining sophistication and independence as they grow. Curriculum for social change encourages students at every grade level to apply similar process skills and concepts to increasingly complex and new materials as symbiotic set of disciplines that requires a competency within each rather than a mastery of only one. This understanding of a comprehensive and state wide course work for students will meet the curriculum standards that are designed to provide guidelines in planning and implementing curriculum at federal, state, local system and individual school levels.

However, the guiding philosophy of this paper is that the process and content standards should be taught in an integrated manner, not in isolation as to accomplish necessary communication, awareness and essential information and broad core of learning. All these skills are needed to succeed in school, in the work place, and in life. Rapp and Hanson, (1988) supported that a content is needed to adequately prepare future cadres of professionals; and proposed a variety of curriculum strategies for organizing such a content.

In addition, there should be cordial-relationship of the home, school and the communities because the data collected from them can be used to replan, modify or improve the curriculum to the taste of the society. Obviously, working together in groups as a whole, the learners will acquire social skills like tolerance, negotiation, insight, norms, value, international styles, compromise, caring and real life task. The learners with different abilities and strengths will support one another, for example, the lower ability learners will benefit from the high level ability learners. These reflect opportunities for the learners to practice and learn challenging, relevant and stimulating skills necessary for their success in the academic world and beyond.

The Curriculum Reform Process

According to Offorma (1994, p. 45-46), the process of curriculum reform takes this form: "If the reform is a routine process, all the stages are reviewed with a view to strengthening areas of weakness so identified". Thus, eleven stages are used in Nigeria.
These include;

    i.   Problem identification
    ii.   Formation of a curriculum team
    iii.   Stating objectives
    iv.   Determining content
    v.   Instructional materials development
    vi.   Personnel development
    vii.   Trial testing (formative evaluation)
    viii.   Modification of materials
    ix.   Installation of materials
    x.   Summative evaluation
    xi.   Renewals (revisionary cycle)

1. **Problem Identification**: This is the initial phase of the innovation. Before innovation is taught about there must be a need felt for which the innovation is being sought. So there is need to identify problem area or areas of need where the innovation is required. This can be done through a survey, which includes observation, questionnaire or document and personal experience.
2. **Formation of Curriculum Team**- When the problem has been identified, the next step is to determine who and who should be involved in planning the innovation at this stage. Here, formation of a curriculum team comprising all the people that concerned with the education of the learners such as curriculum planners, innovators, administrators and educators is undertaken. A representative of each of these group is sent to participate.
3. **Stating the Objective**- The team puts their heads together and agree on what should be the objectives to be achieved. The objectives are stated in lines with the aim of the innovation.
4. **Determining Content**- Obasi (2002, p. 95) stated that "every teacher or curriculum developer knows that one has at one's disposal more content than one can deal with at a given –time, so, some selection must always be made. The extent of knowledge explosion makes it necessary that for effective teaching/learning, there should be selection of those items of knowledge that seem most useful in bringing about the desired outcomes.
5. **Instructional Material Development and Training of Personnel**- It is best to organize workshops at this level for the development of material/training of personnel. A selected group of experts undertake, the development of the materials required for the effective implementation of the innovation. Such materials which include the textbooks are developed for use. The curriculum implementers are trained in accordance with the philosophy, objectives and demands of the innovation; teachers are trained on the tenets of the innovation. Also other school personnel are acquainted with the innovative practices or the alternatives.
6. **Trial Testing (Formative Evaluation)**- Here the materials produced and personnel trained are tried out using a sub-set of the population for which the curriculum is being planned. In this case, an equivalent group is used to test and evaluate the effectiveness, appropriateness and workability of the curriculum content. In the process of the pilot study areas corrections are identified.
7. **Modification and Installation of the Materials**- Having tested the materials; one can incorporate the feedback, effect corrections, disseminate and adopt the modified curriculum for people to start using them in the entire system.
8. **Summative Evaluation** – The feedback collected after installation helps to determine how effective the curriculum is, that is, an arrangement of the curriculum outcome is undertaken to determine its effectiveness.

9. **Renewals (Revisionary cycle)** – At this stage, there is need to revise the new things introduced to find out if they are valid and relevant, after usage for a number of years.

Implications of the Curriculum

The implications of curriculum for social change inhuman development are:

1. This paper showcases the educators and with whom they are in direct contact.
2. It explains the stage of readiness for change and the relevant issues that should be included for much more effect in stimulating effective interest in curriculum for social change in human development.
3. It allows learners with different abilities and strengths to support one another like the lower ability learners will benefit tremendously from the high-level ability learners.
4. Curriculum does not take place within classrooms and schools alone but as connected to larger social, cultural, political and historical contexts.

Recommendations

1. This paper will be useful to Educators and innovators in curriculum, sociology, administration, psychology, philosophy and so on.
2. It will be useful also to the learners particularly and the society at large.

Conclusion

The curriculum for social change in human development should provide solutions for regularized opportunities such as expression, participation, and exchange of ideas. Furthermore, it is said that the only constant in life is change. Obviously, change in curriculum is introduced on the basis of a recognized need. And as such, if a curriculum is perceived as inadequate it should be change or broadened to inculcate a wider range of educational goals. Therefore, curriculum for social change in human development is relevant as being necessary in order to ensure cordial relations and consolidation of peace for the total person include needs and interest of the society.

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The Program Reform ın Primary Education in Turkey: What do Studies Say?

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to analyze the findings of the studies held on the primary education program, which was put into action in 2004. In the study, it was aimed to reach the results of the studies between 2005 and 2012 on primary education program. The findings obtained in this study reveal that school adminastrators, teachers and parents have positive thoughts about the new primary school program, in general. However, there appear some serious problems in the application of the program. Especially, some problems were experienced in the measurement and evaluation aspects of the programs.

Keywords: *primary education, primary school program, classroom teacher*

1. Introduction

Fast-growing and changing science and technology in today's life suggest that knowledge, skills and attitudes that should be made available for an individual must be renewed. What is expected from the individuals who make up today's societies is to produce information rather than consuming it and to actively participate in meaning making process of the available information by questioning and interpreting it rather than accepting it as it is given to them. This fact creates a necessity to order educational programs which will help educate individuals with the mentioned qualifications to answer these apprehensions and expectations. No doubt, in order for the educational programs to provide qualifications brought by the era, they should always be renewed. Thus, countries change their programs structurally, and try to make reforms from time to time. Today, these reform efforts carry a universal qualification. As a matter of fact, there is a great tendency in primary school teaching to make comprehensive reforms covering management, organization, content and evaluation of learning. Countries can be observed to make reforms in primary schools from time to time; and parallel to this to make changes in primary school programs.

In 1980's and 1990's when improvements in science and technology gained acceleration, almost all the countries accelerated their reform studies as well. In 1980's and 1990' when improvements in science and technology gained a faster pace, almost all the countries made reform studies in their educational system faster. In a report, called "A Country at Risk: a Necessity for Educational Reform" published in 1983, in the USA, it was stated that academic standards in the USA gone down, and it could be seen especially in Science and Mathematics education very clearly. In order to solve the problem, a consensus was reached to prepare a more attentive education program, and accepted that the education be made compatible to international competition by determining national performance aims (DeBoer, 2000). Similarly, countries like, Australia, England, France, Russia and China started working on their own educational systems, as well. As rationale for starting the reform studies in all these countries was pointed as the need for new programs in order to transform from teacher-centered education to student-centered education (Boyd, 2000; Sani, 2000; Smerdon et al., 1999; Gough, 1999).

There are other reasons for various countries to focus on modernity and change movements which are named as reform in education. Of all the reasons, the most important one is the phenomena of information society which is considered to be one of the most important concepts today, because in order to create a global economic competition, the need to educate well-qualified human labor arouses (Hargreaves, 2003; Blackmore, 2000, Drucker 1994, Bıkmaz, 2006). In this respect, changing and improving educational programs to meet the expectations of the information society and to provide the well-qualified human labor appear to be a necessity. During this transformation process, it could be said that countries should improve specific reform strategies. As Varis (1996)

stated, the core of transformations in educational programs in Turkey is composed of secularism, facing the West and science.

1.1. Reasons of Rearrangement in Primary School Programs in 2004

İmportant changes related to programs were made in 1926, 1930, 1932, 1936, 1948, 1962, 1968, 1989, 1993, 1998 and 2004, in primary education in Turkey. Studies which could be accepted as reform were made in primary schools and primary education, especially in 1997. In this respect, eight-year primary education was made compulsory and programs were arranged accordingly. Meanwhile, in respect to program development studies, the programs of some courses were prepared separately until 2004. In 2004, however, Social Studies, Turkish, Science and Technology, Life Sciences, and Mathematics courses for 1-5 grades were prepared again in the light of constructivist approach and applied (Gultekin, 2010).

New primary school program which was prepared in 2004, and applied in 2005-2006 academic-year by Ministry of National Education parallel to universal tendencies was arranged in respect to some reasons. Primary school program of Ministry of National Education was stated to be prepared in respect to following reasons (MEB, 2004):

- Reflections of the developments in science and technology to educational sciences
- To increase quality and equality in education
- To provide sensitivity to economy and democracy
- To improve individual and national values in global values
- To provide program integrity for eight-year basic education
- To form conceptual integrity in horizontal and vertical axis
- To make Education Programs compatible with European Union norms

The vision of new primary school program prepared by the reasons above is "to educate citizens of Turkish Republic who embrace principles and revolutions of Ataturk; are equipped with basic democratic values; improved skills of research-question, critical thinking, problem solving and decision making whatever the individual differences are; are lifelong learners, and are considerate to human rights (MEB, 2004). It is emphasized that during the preparation of 2004 educational programs the vision drawn by Ataturk, developments on the world, European Union norms, education model suggested by legal laws, scientific understanding, a participatory approach and ideas of implementing personnel were taken into consideration. It is also stated that, during the preparation of the program educational systems of various countries were analyzed, results of international studies like PISA, TIMMS, PIRLS, etc. were evaluated, results of scientific research were considered, and opinions of teachers, students, parents and inspectors from various civilian society organizations were asked. Moreover, it is also stated that while preparing the program, all the related personnel participated and contributed (MEB, 2004). In this respect, it could be said that the tendency to obey the European Union norms along with the necessities of today's life were taken into consideration. Because it is believed that "new secondary school programs" get the responsibility of integrating Turkey to Europe and the World. It is obvious that the educational system of Turkey has been affected by globalization, international economical competitions, and international political associations along with meeting the needs of the society. Certainly, it is an inevitable necessity for policy makers and educational institutions to improve and implement the educational programs according to contemporary improvements and changes.

1.2. Basic Characteristics of 2004 Primary School Programs

The characteristics of primary school programs according to structural elements could be classified as follows:

Aims: Special aims of the course are defined as gains, being the most important change in terms of aims in the program. *"Gains"* can be defined as knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values to be obtained by students through planned and set experiences during their learning process. The design of the new program was based on constructivist approach and classification of its focused areas are as following (MEB, 2004): using Turkish efficiently and correctly, focusing on cultural values and arts, having satisfaction from reading and learning, conveying feelings and thoughts freely, involving parents into the process and getting their support for teaching-learning process, being competent in at least one foreign language, making use of information technologies efficiently and effectively in accordance with their aims, cooperating and communicating with others, being aware of the changes around and adopting themselves to these changes, being aware that they are responsible to determine their own duties and responsibilities, being eager to search for opportunities in their neighboring environment and different countries, and struggling to make these opportunities real, recognizing that some opportunities could be found if a different perspective is considered, obeying the rules of life, and, objecting to conditioning, recognizing that toleration is the key for a flexible mind.

Content: the fact that the content of the new program is more flexible is what differentiates the 2004 Primary School Program from the previous programs. The activities in units in the news program are formed according to learning fields, while topics and subtopics existed in previous programs. *Learning field* is "a structure where interrelated skills, themes, concepts and values are seen as a whole and it composes learning". Thus, learning field means a structure that should be considered in the units to be taught, and that would edit learning (MEB, 2004).

Teaching-learning process: In the new program a student-centered understanding has been embraced in teaching-learning process, and teachers are expected to prepare activities that allow students actively participate. The suggestions of the program in teaching-learning process are as follows (MEB, 2004):

- Enthusiasm for learning for a child is only possible if his/her desire to do research and natural curiosity could be triggered.
- Learning could be formed by having the student actively participate in student-centered activities rather than being instructed by teacher or a peer.
- Transferring learning into different environments and using them width a creative interpretation is the main goal.
- Problems experienced in the child's close environment, life style, economical activities, and geographical factors are the main content for learning.
- Students should be encouraged to cooperate.
- School does not only consist of four walls, but whole environment.
- Students should be supported to work for social services in their schools and their environment.

Evaluation: In 2004 program, evaluation is a recursive process. That means it also takes the learning process into consideration and during the evaluation of learning process various tools are used. Even though teachers have to use the evaluation tools in the program, they have the freedom to develop their own tools. The evaluation part of the program states that both learning outcomes and learning process is evaluated, and improvement of the child is followed using suitable evaluation tools. The students are also responsible for their own assesment (MEB, 2004).

Various comments have been made related to the secondary school program that was put in use in 2004-2005 academic year, and which has different qualifications from the previous programs in its preparation, approach and suggestions. When research results were put aside, these comments which are more of a report or claims could be considered to be making some criticisms as well. The first important report related to this topic was released by TUBA (Turkish Science Academy) in 2004. In the report, the programs which are considered to be reforms has been criticized as they focus on only one approach and said:

> "Without overlooking the possibility that a program started today could only show its results in 5-10 years, one should be careful not to consider today's knowledge and experiences absolute. Education could be affected by fast changing trends easily. It is not easy to filter values and approaches which have strong bases, and could stand against the passing time in such information crowd that appear in such a way. In practice, larger gains could best be achieved not by applying the newest ideas which belong to the closest era, but by spreading principles and conceptions which are commonly accepted by individuals who could understand the topic in view of their experiences, but cannot be put in practice. Such ideas should also be considered along with more recent and warm approaches."

In the report, it is also suggested that the aim of the new program is to improve the judgment capacity of students related to information, and not give importance to improve their aesthetic judgment capacities; thus, having a reform which also puts emphasis on aesthetic judgment capacities of students would both prepare the students for the coming years better, and provide originality to the program. In the report, it is said that the renovation that Ministry of National Education suggests necessitates a transformation from teacher-centered education to student-centered education, but it also necessitates the current teachers to leave out their habits and have a very important transformation in their teaching style (TUBA, 2004).

In a report which a civil community association whose shortened name is ERG (Educational Reform Enterprise) (2005) had a group of specialists prepare stated that the program, in general, has been prepared in an innovative manner, and has had a structure which puts the emphasis more on the students, and differ from traditional approaches. It is emphasized that the program is noteworthy since it considers the individual differences, but since it was prepared by different individuals same concepts were given different names. As a drawback it was emphasized in this report as in the previous one that the program is weak in terms of aesthetic improvement. In the report, it is requested that a good teacher education, sufficient numbers of students in classes, and how to conduct evaluation should be clarified in order to apply the program successfully.

It is stated in an announcement released by EPO (Education Programs and Teaching) (2005) Board of Professors that the new secondary school program which was put into practice in 2005-2006 academic year has been tried to be developed having an activity based approach in order to have students actively involve in teaching learning process, taking vertical and horizontal relations among courses into consideration, and giving importance to integrate experiences gained both in the classroom and outside the classroom by keeping "student-centered" or "constructivist" approach in mind. The board emphasized that the new program has a potential to contribute to the education at secondary school level, but during the preparation period of the program there had been important lacking points related to program development process and principles, and many problems has been faced throughout the application of the program. In this respect, the board criticized the program for adapting programs applied in other countries, preparing the program in a short period of time, not considering the development process as a complete system, and assigning insufficient time and content for the piloting of the program instead of taking previous program development processes into account, basing the program to only one approach, and improving the programs in use for the secondary school, primary school program.

Undoubtly, the critisms addressed to field experts and institutions should be taken into account by concerned people and necessary studies should be conducted. Moreover, different characteristics of the program, compared with the previous ones, should be tried to be understood. In this respect, the differences of 2004 program having these qualities and previous programs have been classified by Koç et al. (2007) as follows:

Table 1. A comparison of the old versus the new curriculum

Previous Curriculum	New Curriculum
Information does not change	Information changes
Education is for knowing	Education is for understanding
Teacher as the information provider	Teacher as the facilitator
Teacher as the only decision maker	Teacher and students make decisions
One-way communication	Two-way communication
Product-based	Process-based
School for individual's learning	School for everyone's learning
Parents do not know about education	Parent involvement is essential
Competency-based learning	Community-based learning
Norm-referenced assessment	Criterion-based assessment
Teacher knows the answers	There is more than one solution and the teacher may not know all the answers

(Koç et al., 2007)

The primary school curriculum which was started to be used in 2004-2005 academic years carries pretty different qualities than the previous programs in its preparation, primary approach and suggestions. In other words, constructivist approach has brought a different insight into the program. In this respect, Ministry of National Education was also called it as a reform. At this point, this study emerged from the need to determine how the teachers who are the implementers of the program see the suggestions of the new program in constructivist view, and whether they accept it as a reform. This study is expected to contribute to research related to the primary school program that was formed according to constructivist approach and constructivist understanding. Moreover, it is also hoped to determine whether teachers accept the new program as a reform, and what precautions should be taken in order to make it a reform.

1.3. Aims

The aim of this study is to analyze research findings concerning the primary school program put into operation in 2004 in Turkey. In this respect following questions were asked:

- Under which themes are research findings grouped?
- What kind of a general result can be obtained about primary school programs by research findings?

1.4. Limitations

This study is limited with research held between 2004 and 2012.

2. Methodology

2.1. Research Model

This study, which aims to analyze research findings related to the primary school programs put into operation in 2004 in Turkey, was held in qualitative method in screening model. Among the qualitative methods document analysis technique was used.

Document analysis involves the analysis of written sources that contain information concerning the targeted phenomenon or phenomena. It can either be used as a research method by itself, or could be used to support other research methods. The importance of the documents and whether to be used as a data source is determined through research problem. In the studies related to education, teaching programs, student and teacher handbooks, course books, student registrations, in and out school correspondences, student homework and exams, and lesson and unit plans can be used as data sources (Yildirim and Simsek, 2005). In this respect, the data sources of this study involve research related to primary school programs. For this, studies related to primary school programs held between 2004 and 2012 were analyzed. After this, research having direct findings related to primary school programs were chosen; others were left aside. Finally, the findings of the chosen studies were examined to reveal the findings concerning mentioned programs.

The features of the studies involved in the research scope are as following:

Tablo 1. The features of the studies involved in the research scope

Features of Studies		f
Type of Studies	Thesis	19
	Article	7
	Paper	6
Method	Quantitative	24
	Qualitive	5
	Mix	3
Participants	Teacher	22
	Student	3
	Administrator and Teacher	1
	Parent	2
	Administrator	1
	Document	1
	Family and teacher	1
	Administrator, Teacher and Student	1
Year	2004	-
	2005	2
	2006	4
	2007	2
	2008	7
	2009	4
	2010	10
	2011	3
	2012	-

As seen in Table 1. 19 of the studies included in this study are thesis, 7 are articles, and 6 are paper presentations. 24 of these studies are quanitative studies, 5 are qualitative and 3 of them were held in mixed method. Moreover, in 22 of the studies data were clooected from teachers, in 3 from students, in 1 both administrator and teachers, in 2 parents, in 1 administrator, in 1 document, in 1 parents and teachers and finally, in 1 administrator, teacher and student. When the years that studies were published are taken into consideraiton; 2 of the studies were published in 2005, 4 in 2006, 2 in 2007, 7 in 2008, 4 in 2009, 10 in 2010, and 3 in 2011.

2.2. Data Collection

The data for this study were collected by document analysis technique. In this respect, first research findings related to primary school programs for 2004-2012 were found; and themes were formed. As for the reliability of the study, the results gathered through the analysis of the data were compared. In this respect, the researcher and experts from the field compared the gathered results, and a consensus on the coherence of the results was reached. Later, all the data were presented under themes.

3. Findings

Following findings were acquired as a result of the analysis of research findings

Applicability and Efficiency of Primary School Programs

New primary school programs have the potential to contribute to primary school level education (Atasonmez, 2008). The new primary school program is applicable in terms of theoretic approaches that they are based on (Uygun and Genc, 2008). Although new primary school programs differ in application according to the cities they are applied, they are applied in good quality, in general (Gomleksiz, 2005). Moreover, the application level of new primary school programs differs in application. The proposed outcomes, content and education level are efficient in "high" level in application, evaluation is "middle" for Turkish and Mathematics teaching programs among new primary school programs; and as for Introduction to Science, Science and Technology, and Social Sciences teaching programs, the proposed outcomes, content, education level and evaluation are efficient in "good" level (Bulut, 2006).

Although there are positive perceptions related to the new primary school programs, there are also problems in the application. The most problematic topics that teachers have to face are; excessive number of activities, the excessive need for materials, and insufficient teacher-parent interaction. Moreover, the thought that there is uncertainty on how the new primary school program be applied in multigrade classroom reveal that teachers of such classes have too much difficulties. Furthermore, a lot of teachers indicated that informative seminars on the program are not sufficient (Gundogar, 2006).

The Effects of Primary School Programs on Students

When compared to previous primary school programs, unwanted/unexpected student behaviors are reduced with the start of new primary school programs (Saglam, et.al., 2007). Moreover, new primary school programs increase student self-efficacy (Cetin, 2010). According to the teachers, having students present their works in class, helps increase their self-confidence, and helping them gain skills like asking questions, be curious, provide them with an investigative personality (Ciftci, 2010).

The Application of Primary School Programs in Multigrade Classroom

No regularities were made for multigrade classroom in new primary school programs (Tahiroglu, 2008). As a matter of fact, there is an uncertainty on how to apply the new primary school program in multigrade classroom (Gundogar, 2006). The new primary education program is not suitable to apply in multigrade classroom (Sinmaz, 2009). Teachers managing private classes accepted the new program more than the teachers of multigrade classroom, and teachers of multigrade classroom have more difficulty in implementing the program (Gur, 2010). A variety of problems are experienced in the implementation of the program in multigrade classroom: time is insufficient, and it is almost impossible to fulfill the necessities of the new program. Materials and tools are insufficient (Tahiroglu et. al., 2008). Guidance and family aspect are the most important factors to effect the implementation of new programs negatively in multigrade classroom (Gelebek, 2011).

Opinions of Administrators About Primary School Programs

Primary school administrator have positive opinions and high level of perception levels towards new primary school programs in general. The primary school administrator are positive in a great respect for the appropriacy of changing the programs, and their success (Mavis, 2010). Administrators, new curriculum as significantly better than former primary school curriculum (Gelen & Beyazıt, 2007). Administrators working in primary schools found constructivist approach positive, in general. They share the opinion that constructivist approach saves students from memorizing and direct them to do research, and students become more active in-class, and teachers become a guide only (2010).

School administrators adopt all aspects of new primary school programs completely. The aspects that administrators adopted highly are outcomes and teaching-learning processes aspects. The program element, which is perceived and adopted least, is evaluation aspect of the program (Simsek and Adiguzel, 2007). The substructure insufficiencies, the risk and difficulty of not providing materials and tools needed, crowded classes, unsuitable seating are among the problems faced in program implementation (Bulut, 2010).

Opinions of Teachers About Primary School Programs

Teachers' overal opinions about the new program were positive although there were some critisim (Bümen, 2005). According to the classroom teachers, the new primary school program brought some innovations in terms of classroom organization, critical thinking skills, first reading-writing (Sen, 2010). Classroom teachers think positively about the new program (Gultekin, 2010; Korkmaz, 2006, Gelen ve Beyazıt, 2007), and consider the attempt towards primary school programs a reform (Gultekin, 2009). In general, the new program is considered to be successful by teachers (Karacıga, 2008). As a matter of fact, classroom teachers adopt all aspects adequately. The highly adopted aspects of the program are outcomes and teaching-learning processes (Simsek and Adiguzel, 2007). With the start of the implementation of new primary school programs, it was seen that teachers are more effective in preparing teaching materials, and more eager to use methods targeting higher levels of learning products (Aygun, 2009).

The new primary school program reached success in the topics like (1) active student understanding and basic skills mentioned in the new primary school program; (2) suitability for the student levels; (3) suitability to daily lives of the students; (4) comprehensiveness; and (5) variety (Yalcin, 2010). İt was also seen that new primary school program is successful in motivating students, providing learning ease and permanent learning, and forming expected behaviors in students (Gerek, 2006). As a matter of fact classroom teachers stated that (1) with the new programs courses are prepared especially to be away from memorization, funny, inside the life, and usable, (2) in the previous programs, teachers instructed students directly, and topics dealt with in the classes had nothing to do with real life, (3) the applied the activity where teachers only guide students to get information, the most, and (4) the most important problem they face is insufficient numbers of libraries around for the students.

On the other hand, the program element that has the lowest level of perception and adoption by teachers is evaluation aspect (Simsek and Adiguzel, 2007). Teachers underlined that there might be some problems about implementation of the assesment techniques (Bümen, 2005). There are insufficiencies in the area of evaluation (Karacıga, 2008). Teachers complain most about substructure for the application of the new program (Ozpolat et.al., 2007). Resources are scarce at schools (Yalcin, 2010), and in this respect there are insufficiencies of materials and tools. Classes are very crowded to implement the new program, and (Karacıga, 2008) where there is the problem of crowded classes, there you cannot talk about yield (Citci, 2010). Crowded classes, certainly, is a big problem (Korkmaz, 2006; Yalcin, 2010). The fact that parents are not informed about the program (Korkmaz, 2006; Karaciga, 2008) does also affect the implementation of then program (Yalcin, 2010).

Opinions of Parents About Primary School Programs

Parents stated that they do not have sufficient information about new primary school program, they do not find the content of the program and course books adequate, the program creates problems for students with financial problems, program do not prepare students for the nationwide exams sufficiently, the information provided to students in the new program do not fit the needs of the students for daily life, and school bags of students are very heavy because of excessive numbers of books. On the other hand, parents accept that materials and tools are used largely in the new program, the topics direct students to do research/ investigate, the interest levels of students increased with the new program, skills like problem solving and creativity of students increased, newly operated visual reading activities and alternative evaluation tools are beneficial, and with the new program they are in close contact with teachers and school administrators. Parents want the new program to continue, although there are problems in application (Dumlu, 2009). Parents are mostly informed about the new program. Parents who think are informed about the new program, got the information from the teacher of their children. A part of the parents who participated in the study indicated that they got the information about the program from the press and media. The attitudes of the participants to the new program are mostly positive. According to the results of the study, it is observed that most of the parents know the reasons of program change and comprehended the basic philosophy of the new program. Moreover, the findings of the study suggest that parents approve "voice-based reading-writing teaching" and "italic script handwriting". When the answers provided by parents related to the content and implementation aspects of the program are analyzed, parents indicated that the new program puts a financial burden on their shoulders, but they think projects and performance homework are beneficial. Moreover, they suggested that the homework to be completed over the Internet does not add to the students, and since a lot of parents do not have the Internet at their

homes, their children cannot do their homework. Furthermore, parents specified that they find alternative evaluation methods like performance evaluation beneficial together with multiple-choice tests. On the other hand, most of the parents indicated that the new primary school program is not compatible with SBS (Placement Test) system, so they doubt that the new program would be implemented as expected at schools. Moreover, parents worry that allocating most of the class time to activities would decrease their children's exam success. As for the available course books and workbooks, parents expressed positive opinions (Eskicumali, Erdogan and Arslan, 2011).

The Gains Aspect of Primary school Programs

According to the results of the study titled as setting outcomes aiming to make students environment conscious placed in primary school programs, it was concluded that students have a general understanding and knowledge on issues like environmental pollution and the sources of pollution, the results of human activities, and the precautions to take in order to minimize or resolve the effects of the mentioned results individually or in authoritative manner: however, they do not have enough information especially about environmental rights, pollution types like light and noise pollution, the effects of technology on the environment, global environmental problems, and recycling. As a result, findings supporting that most of the outcomes related to environmental consciousness placed in teaching programs of all the courses in all grades were gained in this study (Albas, 2011). All the teachers (100%) stated that consumer education topics in the program are scarce, and students do not have enough information about economical terms, and laws about Consumer Protection and Door step sales (Altiok, 2010).

The Assessment and Evaluation Aspect of Primary school Programs

The element that has the lowest level of perception and adoption of primary school programs by school principals and classroom teachers in assessment and evaluation aspect of the program (Simsek and Adiguzel, 2007). Most of the teachers do not have enough information about assessment and evaluation process (Kazu, et.al., 2008). As a matter of fact, it was observed that most of the classroom teachers could not make activity assessments in the program effectively (Ozpolat et.al., 2007). However, in another study, it was revealed that teachers know assessment and evaluation method-techniques, in general (Pullu, 2008).

Teachers struggle with forms and documents throughout the evaluation process makes it difficult to reach the expected aim of the program (2006). It was also revealed that classroom teachers find projects and performance works beneficial in the scope of assessment and evaluation; but they have time constraints, students have the fear of failure, teachers think that the evaluation takes time, and have difficulties in being objective (Guvey, 2009).

4. Results and Suggestions

The first result of this study, which aims to analyze the findings of studies held in relation to the new primary school programs prepared in 2004 and implemented in 2004-2005 academic year, is that new primary school programs are perceived and adopted positively in general, and they can be applied. However, together with positive judgments concerning the new primary school programs, there are also problems in the application.

When compared with the previous program, the new program has positive effects on students, in general. Similarly, it has positive effects on teachers, as well.

There are no regularities concerning multigrade classroom in the new program; thus, there is an uncertainty of how to implement the program in multigrade classroom. According to the results of studies, the new primary school program is not suitable to implement in multigrade classroom. A variety of problems are experienced in the application of the new program in multigrade classroom.

Administrators of primary schools have positive viewpoints towards the new primary school programs, in general. However, administrators indicate that they have problems such as substructure inadequacies at schools, the risk and difficulty of obtaining tools and materials to be used, crowded classes, unsuitable seating in the classes, etc.

Teachers, especially classroom teachers indicated that the new primary school program brought a variety of innovations, and they think positively about it. Teachers adopt the aspects of the new program in an adequate level. On the other hand, teachers stated that they experience problems on issues like insufficiency of substructures and sources at schools, having too crowded classes, and families' having insufficient knowledge about new programs.

According to the results of the study, the least adopted aspect of the new program is assessment and evaluation aspect. The program element to be adopted and perceived the least is evaluation aspect.

Parents know about new primary school program, but do not have sufficient information about it. Although there are difficulties in the application, parents want the program to continue. In general, parents' approach against new program is positive.

According to the findings of the studies concerning the outcomes of the new program on gaining environmental consciousness, most of the outcomes related to environmental consciousness taking part in teaching programs of all the courses were found to be achieved in all grade levels. On the other hand, it was observed that there is insufficient information about consumer education topics in the program concerning providing conscious consumer behavior, and the students have limited knowledge on the economical terms, laws about consumer protection, and Door Step Sales.

As a result, it is clear that school principals, teachers and parents have positive thought about the new primary education program, which was prepared in 2004 by taking constructivist approach into consideration different from the previous program, and put into practice in 2004-2005 academic-year; and considered by the Ministry of National Education as a reform. However, there are, also, serious problems in the application of the problem. Following suggestions can be made in relation to this result:

1. In order to apply the program better, necessary tools and materials should be provided to schools, number of students in classes should be decreased, parents should be informed about the program, and teachers should be given sufficient information about assessment and evaluation.

2. Primary school programs should be improved continuously by taking program development principles into consideration.

3. Comprehensive studies, which would shed light to decision-makers and practitioners about primary education programs, should be designed, and held.

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THEME 2

CURRICULUM AND ACCOUNTABILITY

How the Digital Technology Shapes School Curriculum—Analysis of Taiwan's E-school Programs

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Abstract

In Taiwan, due to the advocacy of government and business institutions, digital technologies (DT) become a symbol of educational innovation, also a means to correspond to education accountability. DT is changing our learning environments, subject-matter, teacher and student which are the four commonplaces of curriculum. When schools were under the pressure of teaching Innovation and accountability, how did digital technology shape our school curriculum? To enquire the phenomenon, the researcher collected five elementary school curriculum programs (focus on reading and writing) under the "E-schools Projects 2012" supported by Taiwan's Ministry of Education, and analyzed the usage of digital technology and its impact on curriculum.

The main findings are: (1) Teachers and students pay much attention to manipulate technologies, so as to overlook the main purpose of the curriculum. (2) Behaviourism still dominates most school curriculum, so that DT is often used as information storage or channels to deliver information, but not intellectual partners. (3) Technologies are overemphasized, so that human's perception, feelings and life experiences are neglected. However, some educators have tried to find the equilibrium point between technologies and curriculum.

Keywords: Instructional technology, curriculum innovation, accountability

1 Introduction

As the policy slogan "technological Island" emerges, the digital literacy becomes one of key competencies of Taiwan's students. The educational authorities invested a large amount of funds to equip schools with information technology facilities, and offered grants to encourage teachers to utilize computer tools and applications to change the traditional instruction. Some international companies (such as Intel, Microsoft) and local business institutions also sponsored schools to build the "future classroom". "The use of digital technology" becomes a new criterion to assess the degree of curriculum innovation and teaching effectiveness. Thus, DT is taken as a means to correspond to education accountability. In this wave, DT becomes a fashion in education, and instructional technologies become a symbol of innovation. Nowadays, in Taiwan, approximately 90% of elementary school classrooms have DT equipments. Even the schools in the remote area are equipped with new computer applications. Lots of teachers usually use Internet or electronic teaching materials in classrooms.

Some researchers reported that DT enhanced teaching efficiency, and facilitated students' competence of self-regulated and cooperative learning; some suspected the contribution of computers to the learning of attitude and

affection; some criticized that technology deprived students of the opportunities to touch real things. It is indeed a long debate about the benefit of instructional technologies. However, the supporters of DT temporarily won the debate in Taiwan. I agree with Selwyn (2012) that people's enthusiasms for DT are driven by two interrelated beliefs. The first one is a general dissatisfaction with current types of schooling. Secondly, they believe technology provides a better way of doing education.

The supporters of technology are convinced of the capacity of DT to bring about quality change in the world of education in terms of opening the possibilities for improved presentation and delivery of programs. Moreover, information and communications technology (ICT) in learning environment can increase students' active engagement in thinking and problem solving, promote understanding and mastery learning, and ultimately more empowering for the individual learner (Yu et al., 2010). Roblyer (2003) summarized three functions that ICT can do to learning: (1) to evoke and maintain the learning motivation, (2) to Create the unique environments to support teaching and learning, such as connecting students, resources and peers, and (3) to enhance teacher's efficacy, such as managing assessment records and learning processes. U.S. Department of Education (2009) also proposed that there is growing evidences that learning benefits from the use of DT.

In the digital age, it is inevitable that technologies enter classrooms and influence the curriculum. Curriculum is constituted of four commonplaces: teacher, student, milieu, and subject-matter. The interactions among the four commonplaces constitute an organic "ecosystem" (Schwab, 1973). The change of any factor will influence the curriculum system. When technologies involve in curriculum, the form of milieu and subject-matter changes, and as a result, the interaction between student and teacher is different from the one in traditional classrooms. However, when schools are under the pressure of teaching Innovation and accountability, how did DT shape our school curriculum? Did technologies aid create a more democratic learning environment in which teacher and students became learning partners, or technologies control curriculum in which teacher and students follow the ways prescribed by DT? Are students really the master in learning situations? To enquire the phenomenon, the researcher collected five school curriculum programs under the "E-schools Projects 2012" supported by Taiwan's Ministry of Education, and analyzed the usage of DT and its impact on the curriculum.

2   Theoretical Framework

In order to analyze how DT was used in the selected programs, and how it influenced the curriculum, in this section, I would like to review the literature about the role of DT in teaching and the rationales of DT used in teaching.

2.1   Role of Digital Technology in Teaching

Despite the popular use of DT in education, the usages of DT are various. Selwyn (2012) indicated that DT may be used to represent, reconstitute or replace the structure and process of schooling. The first form seldom changes school curriculum, but represent pedagogical content by technologies, such as online courses alongside their classroom lessons. The second form is referred to as a digitally driven "reschooling", such as the tech-based practices of collaboration and inquiry within the classroom. The third form is referred to as a digitally driven "deschooling", such as the online institution which provide an alternative to school curriculum, assessment and qualifications. In Taiwan, the most popular ways to use DT in education include managing learning resources or assessment records, presenting materials or information, and creating online learning communities. These ways belong to the former two forms.

Generally, DT is expected to reconstitute the process of schooling, especially instructional methods, but not replace schooling.

In the case of technology-based instruction, various aspects of content, pedagogy, and assessment are used via computer tools and applications, digital media, and virtual environments. How are technologies utilized? Hsu (2005) analyzed the Taiwan's school programs of integrating DT into teaching, and found that these efforts take four main forms:

(1) Technologies were taken as teaching resources, such as website, electronic teaching materials.

(2) Technologies were used as an instrument to present pedagogical content within classrooms.

(3) Technologies were seen as a communication channel to deliver or exchange information.

(4) Technologies were used as mind tools to enhance the high-level thinking skills.

In the former three approaches, DT is like a traditional teacher who owns rich resources, and delivers knowledge to students. In contrast with those, the last approach takes technologies as "intellectual partners" (Jonassen et al., 2003). If we expect DT to widen the range of instructional designs to fulfill the vision of flexible and creative learning, DT should play the role of intellectual partner.

2.2   Usages of DT under Different Rationales

As new age of instruments, will DT help teachers and students construct their curriculum, or dominate the curriculum? In fact, the impact of DT depends on a teacher's belief or philosophy about teaching and learning which technologies are based on. In general, there are three competing schools of thought on how people learn: behaviourism, cognitivism, and constructivism (Dede, 2008):

(1) The behaviourists emphasize factual knowledge and recipe-like procedures: material with a few correct ways of accomplishing tasks. Therefore, instructional technology is utilized to deliver information, and train students on the appropriate and skills.

(2) The cognitivists assume that knowledge acquisition is a mental activity that also entails internal coding and structuring by the student. The main task of instructors is to organize and sequence knowledge and facilitate optimal mental processing. For the task, computer applications provide three important cognitive processes: (a) selecting verbal and visual information, (b) organizing facts, skills and ideas via conceptual frameworks, and (c) integrating corresponding events in the verbally or visually based model.

(3) Constructivist theories assume that people construct new understandings based on their prior experiences and interactions with others. Instruction can foster learning by offering rich, loosely structured guidance that encourage meaning-making without imposing a fixed set of knowledge. Based on the theory, the best usage of instructional technology is taking the computer applications as learners' mind tools evoke learners' high level thinking (Jonasson, 1999).

In contemporary research, most researchers support the cognitivist and constructivist approach. For instance, Jonassen et al. (2003) encouraged teachers to consider how to engage students in active, constructive, intentional, authentic and cooperative learning when using technologies in teaching. Yu et al. (2010) also emphasized that computer technologies could be used to strengthen learners' higher cognitive skills, and furthermore, provide them the required skills to solve real world problems through more interaction and cooperation among learners. The

computer and applications, with its expanding capabilities, can effectively support meaningful learning and knowledge construction.

Even if the cognitivism and constructivism obtain the higher position, the other approaches function to achieve different purposes. Just as Dede (2008) indicated that no single best medium for learning, no single way of learning is universally optimal and any ICT embody that approach. The most important is how a teacher create the meaningful experiences for their students.

3 Analysis of Five Cases

The "E-school project" provides schools with funding to implement the "integrating DT into teaching" programs. In 2012, 20 schools were evaluated as excellent. In this paper, due to the limited time, I select five elementary schools programs which focus on reading and writing for analysis.

3.1 Overview of Five Programs

School A

Goal: to enhance reading and writing competence

Instruction process: teachers discuss reading strategies with students via smart board, have a quiz by IRS (instant responsive system) and then teacher revises the misconceptions→ Students take photos and interview with people in campus with iPAD→students exchange the collected materials and have online discussions about their topics of writing →everyone writes an article and upload to a community platform→ students review the works of group members and give responses via iPAD→ teacher gives revision opinions→ everyone revises his/her own article→each group recommend an article to share with the other groups

School B

Goal: to enhance reading skills

Instruction process: students read e-newspaper and e-storybook via PAD→ underline the points on PAD→ answer the questions on paper worksheets→write abstract on the PAD→read a new article, and cooperate with group members to finish a concept map by the software "mind map memo"

School C

Goal: to enhance writing skills

Instruction process: teachers explain mind-mapping methods via smart board→ students practice to draw concept maps by the software "x-mind"→ each group presents outcomes by pictures, ppt., or drama.
-Students explore the campus and take 5-10 photos→write several paragraphs to introduce the campus→ produce a film by video-cam→transform into QR-code
-Explore the community around the school→take some pictures and interview with residents→make a storybook by the software "photostory"→ transform the storybook into QR-code, and share with the other groups

School D

Goal: to enable students to understand Chinese calligraphy

Instruction process: students surf web to collect information about Chinese calligraphy→ observe a variety of Chinese writing brushes a calligrapher collects through MSN→invite a writing brush maker to demonstrate the manufacturing

operation→students finish a report about Chinese writing brush with PC→every group makes a design drawing and produce a writing brush→ take photos of the procedure and upload to website → use the writing brush to write and draw a poster to introduce the school→record the process with the software "photostory3"

School E

Goal: to enable students to write and appreciate child poetry

Instruction process: teachers introduce some child poems via smart board→ invite students to read these poems, and perform the content→students surf web and find some poems → Teacher choose several poems offered by students, and invite students to perform the content→ teacher explain the format of child poem via smart board→students write poem individually→teacher transform students' works into e-book, and show them to students→ each group choose a poem and perform it→ all works upload to website to share with parents or peers

3.2   Results and Discussions

All of the programs claimed they cultivated active attitude, high-level thinking skills, and cooperative learning competence through DT. However, Except for school A, the others pay much attention to train reading "skills", such as underlining points of an article and draw concept maps. When teachers focus on mastery learning, smart board or PAD becomes a channel to deliver package knowledge, and the mind-mapping software becomes a drill tool. DT is no longer smart. The basic skills are necessary, but the skills can be learned through more flexible discussion and intensive interaction, like in program A. In addition, for writing instruction, it is more crucial to evoke students' thought and feelings rather than to pass on the knowledge of writing format. In the latter four programs, students were busy in collecting materials with PAD, camera or video-cam for writing, but paid little attention to perceive and discuss their meanings. It seems that main purpose of the curriculum is practicing to use technologies, but not reading or writing.

Another point is how DT is used in the programs? According to two dimensions, "the role of DT" and "rational of teaching", I found the usages of DT in the five programs were as Table 1.

Table 1 : Usage of DT in five programs

	DT used	role of DT	Rationale of teaching
A	Smart board, IRS	Present content Channel to exchange information	Cognitivism: reading strategies inquiry Constructivism: learning the writing skills through peers interaction and cooperation
	Website	Channel to exchange information	
	Community platform iPAD	Mind tools to enhance thinking	
B	e-book	As teaching resources	Behaviourism: practicing the mind-mapping skills
	PAD	Channel to exchange information	
	Mind-mapping software	As a document processing tool	
C	Smart board	Channel to deliver information	Behaviourism: practicing the mind-mapping skills
	video-cam, camera	Tools to collect data or materials	

	photostory & Mind-mapping software	Present content	Constructivism: inquire the campus and community through cooperative learning
	QR-code	Channel to exchange information	
D	Website	As teaching resources; Channel to exchange information	Behaviourism: receiving knowledge about Chinese writing brush
	MSN	Channel to deliver information	
	Camera photostory software	Tools to record	
E	Smart board	Channel to deliver information	Behaviourism: practicing to write a child poem according to format
	e-book	As teaching resources	
	website	As teaching resources; Channel to exchange information	

In every program, varieties of computer tools and applications were involved. I am really surprised that our teachers and students can use so many new devices and softwares. DT aid present and display the learning outcomes, so that students' achievements can be found easily. I think, when seeing the e-book, film or photos produced by students, people will be impressed at the achievements of E-schools. Indeed, the use of DT aids show educators' innovation spirit and thereby corresponds to the accountability. Nevertheless, behaviorism still dominates most classroom curriculum, so that DT is often used as information storage or channels to deliver information, but not intellectual partners.

As for the contribution of DT to instruction, in addition to making jobs easier, all the programs reported that DT motivated learners to engage in learning. ICT is naturally appealing due to vivid images and sound. Therefore, even if reading newspaper on PAD, students felt it interesting. The question is: Is the learners' motivation directed to manipulating DT or studying the course? It's a question worthy of inquiry.

4   Conclusions

In the computer-mediated curriculum, most schools emphasize technologies more than human. It seems that teachers use a technology in teaching because it's new and accessible. Teachers and students are busy experiencing the freshness and joy of technologies, so that technologies usually dominate the curriculum. When DT is overemphasized, students and teachers' real life experience may be overlooked, and "curriculum" becomes the prescribed track more than the meaningful experience constructed by teacher and students. However, some educators like those in school A have tried to find the equilibrium point between technologies and curriculum.

Technology is the best servant, but the worst master. I agree with Roblye (2003) that technology makes good teaching better, but not makes bad teaching become good. Teachers should seek back the subjectivity of human in curriculum, and then they know how to use DT more wisely.

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Results and Accountability.
Alienation of Relations in the Didactical Triangle

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1   Introduction

In today's knowledge society, education is viewed as an important part of dealing with an increased globalized competition that is often expressed as knowledge capitalism and the knowledge economy (Lundahl, 2012). This has resulted in an incessant borrowing of business world rhetoric and the increased use of concepts such as accountability, efficiency and performance standards (Hopmann, 2008; Takayama, 2013; Taubman, 2009). New ideological, political or administrative ways of governing the educational system have consequences for teachers' work at both national and local levels, for example in school (Ball, Maguire, & Braun, 2012; Furlong, Cochran-Smith, & Brennan, 2008). Apple (2010) argues that an *audit culture* has been created with demands for accountability regarding the right skills, the right way of organizing education and teaching effectively. This paper demonstrates the alienating consequences of accountability for schools, interpersonal relations and student learning.

1.1   Pressure for results

Demands for better results in the name of competition are instigated at policy level. These bear down on and affect practices at school and classroom level. Ball et al (2012) illustrate pressure for results as a *delivery chain* from the global to the individual, where performance pressure is passed down through the system. Adapted to the Swedish system, the delivery chain looks like this:
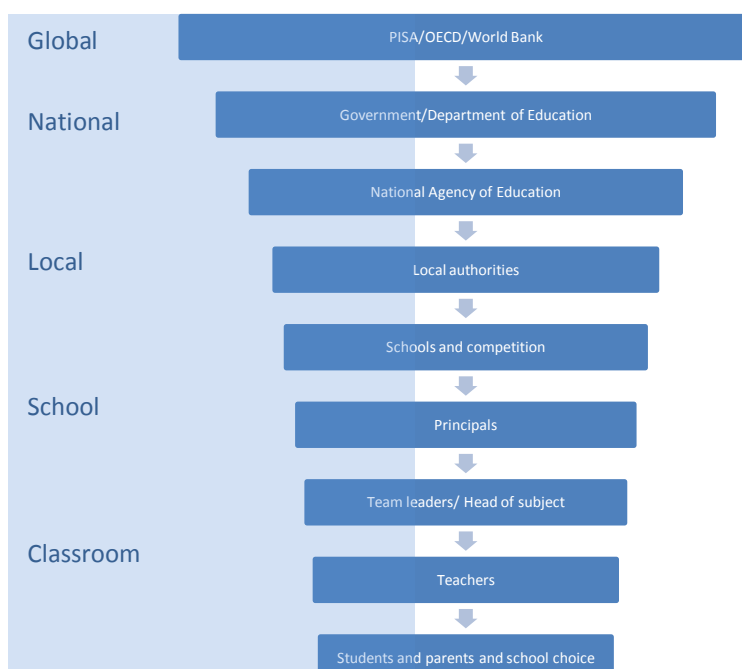
Figure 1: The delivery chain.

Practices of control and comparison are commonplace at all levels and are designed to ensure that everyone in the system performs well. Students are increasingly monitored, tested and graded for this purpose, and teachers are also evaluated on the basis of student performance.

The focus of teachers' work is steered towards improving results, or rather, some results. According to Ball et al (2012), increased monitoring is made possible by the use of artefacts, such as software systems for data production, and takes up teachers' time, attention and effort. As an example, a Swedish survey showed that secondary school teachers spent 24% of their time on documentation, assessment, administration and practicalities, but only 12% on lesson planning and 7% on reflection and professional development (Skolverket, 2013). Bejerot's survey of some 3,000 teachers and principals indicated a radical increase in teachers' workload. For example, 60% of the teachers reported that they often worked during their lunch breaks, on an evening and at weekends (Hedenrud, 2013). When teachers have to spend their energy on keeping up or coping, their time for reflection and professional development decreases, which may impact their students negatively.

1.2   Consequences for the relational aspects of teachers' work

Teachers' increasing focus on results means that they spend more time monitoring and recording students' work and less time interacting with students (Skolverket, 2013). Closeness in relationships students, particularly to students who are not very academically inclined, is central for all teachers (Davidson, 1999; Oreshkina & Greenberg, 2011). Andersson (2007) showed that spending time with teachers was particularly valuable for secondary school students with minimally educated parents, and helped them to achieve better results. As building and sustaining relationships with students requires an investment of time (cf. Oreshkina & Greenberg, 2011), limiting the time spent with students who are in need of help can be detrimental. Moreover, as the relational basis of a school organization promotes the achievement of academic results, severing relations for narrow academic purposes can be counterproductive (cf. Bingham & Sidorkin, 2004).

The relational work of teachers tends to be neglected in both policy and theory. For example, when educational reforms were launched in Sweden, the government spent 3-6 billion SEK on teacher in-service education, with a focus on reading, writing and calculus for primary teachers and subject specialization for secondary teachers. As experienced teachers perceive the relational aspects of their work as being particularly difficult, something that is also indicated by research (Wideen, Mayer-Smith, & Moon, 1998), this emphasis was unfortunate.

1.3   Variations between schools

The pressure to improve results is unequally distributed, and efforts to boost performance give varying results. However, some teachers and schools work very hard but only achieve modest results, mostly because the context is an "active force" and not just a backdrop (Ball et al. 2012). Schools that perform well according to inspections and tests have considerably more autonomy in relation to policy initiatives, so-called "earned autonomy". In other cases, and increasingly, policy is enforced through practices such as lesson observations and other forms of surveillance (Lipman, 2010). Testing and competition not only tend to produce incentive, but also stress, frustration, discouragement, depression and demoralization for teachers and students alike (Yates, 2013). Teachers who are required to "measure and compare their students and seek to extract 'productivity' gains from them" (Ball et al 2012, p. 73) are uncomfortable when they are unable to act in accordance with their professional judgement of what the best interests of the students are. In short, the psychosocial and affective dynamics of these processes have not been given sufficient attention (cf. Hargreaves, 2000; Zembylas, 2003).

2   Method

This paper presents results from a research project exploring the relational interplay between school personnel and students, its functions and complexity in the secondary school context. The study is explorative and generative. Studying a complex phenomenon requires an open approach that allows for many variables. The methodology and case study have been chosen in order to understand how complex relational processes develop over time (Creswell, 2009; Yin, 2003).

A year-long case study was conducted during the 2012-13 school year at a newly renovated secondary school, where the aim was to improve the school environment. Multiple data sources were used, including document analysis, mapping, contextual observations and interviews. Official statistics, newspaper articles and school quality reports were used to contextualize the case (Creswell, 2009).

The quantitative data was retrieved from the databases of the National Agency of Education in order to contribute to a deeper contextualization of the case school and to allow for comparisons between the different data sources so that the data could be triangulated. The analysis of documents, interviews and newspaper articles is based on thematic analysis (Boyatzis, 1998). The processing, analyzing and interpretation of the material was done using the software Atlas.ti through coding, linkages and memos.

2.1   The didactical triangle model

For the purpose of deepening our understanding of the dynamics of the above mentioned circumstances, we have used an elaborated version of the didactic triangle. The triangle used for capturing the triadic relation of teacher, student and content is widely known (e.g. S. Hopmann, 2007).
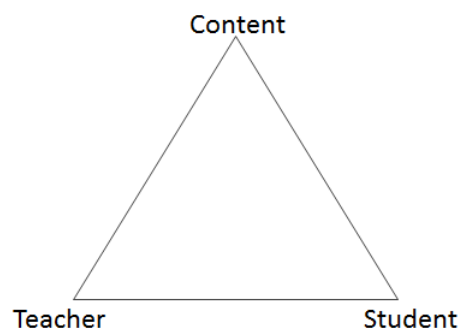
Figure 2: The didactic triangle

These relations are embedded in an instructional situation, in turn taking place within a school and in a society (Hudson & Meyer, 2011). The sides of the triangle can be viewed as relations: the teacher has a relation to the content or subject matter at hand and so does the student. They also have a relation to each other. All the relations in the triangle affect each other in complex ways. For example, a teacher's informed relation to the content may improve the student's relation to the content. Further, a science teacher who is passionate about environmental issues may spread this passion to her or his students. However, the spread of such a passion is dependent on the existence of an educational relationship between the teacher and the student (cf Frelin, 2013).

It has been shown that the quality of the teacher-student relationship is important for educational processes (Cornelius-White, 2007; Pianta & Hamre, 2009). In this paper we examine the teacher-student relationship with regard to content and how it is affected by audit culture practices aimed at accountability.

3. Relations in the Didactical Triangle

In the case school, a secondary school (pupils between the ages of 12-15 years) located in a small town in Sweden, the municipality demanded improved results. The municipality's Chief Education Officer (the official responsible for all the schools in the area) presented the recently published low merit scores to the teachers in the following way:

We took a real dive /…/ I just had to bang my fist on the table: This is not good enough. So everyone realized that there was only one way forward, and that was to shape up. Everybody was aware of it. It was so obvious: This is simply not good enough. It was such a clear message.

In order to achieve better results the school has made relatively large efforts in line with national reforms relating to reading, writing and calculus for primary teachers and subject specializations for secondary teachers. Despite these lines of action the results have not improved in the expected way. The former principal took additional actions, one of which was to set up charts that identified and visualized "target students" who were in danger of failing in one or more subject.

2.2   Consequences for teachers' work

The teachers were instructed to put an X (a fail-warning) against their subject on the class lists displayed in the staff room and to repeat this each month. This practice required teachers to analyze their documentation and to make continuous judgements as whether to signal fail-warnings for their students or not. As science teacher Gerald suggested, he would rather give too many warnings than too few, because he did not want to risk missing students who might fail. The monthly practice of documenting fail warnings was additional to the teachers' other work tasks and was later extended. The teachers were also asked to write performance statements for each target student each month, which took up an enormous amount of their time. As the teachers' work load was already high due to increased demands for documentation, they had little choice but to cut down on other tasks, often against their professional judgement.

2.3   Consequences for relationships in school

We have used the didactic triangle to examine how the practices initiated as a response to pressure for results affected the dynamics of the relationships between content, teachers and students.

2.3.1   The teacher-content relationship
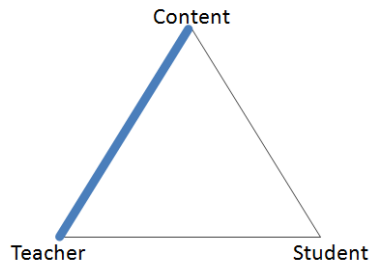
Figure 3: The teacher-content relationship

The teachers conveyed that the increased requirements for documentation and follow-up with students and parents also reduced their time for planning and professional development. Gerald argued that the increased documentation affected his lesson planning negatively, so that his lessons were not as well planned and interesting as before, which disadvantaged his students' learning. One of the consequences was that teachers felt that they were not sufficiently up to date or informed about certain areas of their teaching. The narrow focus – i.e. reading, writing and calculus – of the ongoing reforms meant that professional development in other school subjects was neglected.

2.3.2   The student-content relationship
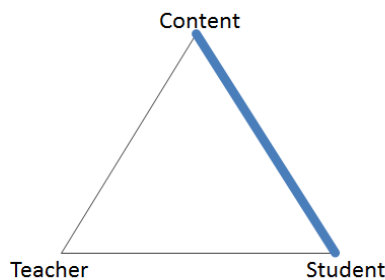
Figure 4: The student-content relationship

Despite the monthly reports, some of the students' results have not improved as expected. In interviews with students, several mentioned qualities in teachers other than subject specialization. They appreciated that teachers acknowledged the students and cared about them. However, they asked for more variation in class, especially in some subjects. One of the students said that he particularly liked the teacher of his favourite subject.

2.3.3   The teacher-student relationship
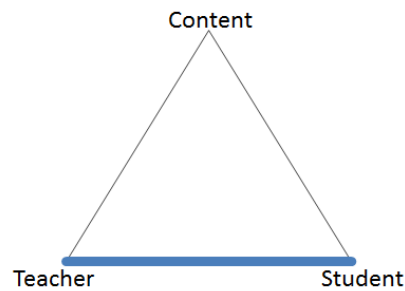
Figure 5: The teacher-student relationship

The relational climate in the school is cordial, and teachers make a habit of acknowledging the students they meet, often chatting informally with them. Sven, for example, argued that the teacher-student relationships that he developed outside of the classroom helped him in his work:

Speaking about time, the time I give them in the corridor and what they give me in return, it all comes back to me during lessons. If we have a relation, we talk and I listen /.../ then they'd rather not make trouble in class either.

The importance that teachers assign to the teacher-student relationship means that when administration and documentation take up a lot of their time they prefer to cut down on other tasks, or spend more time at work, than sever this relationship. However, such a prioritization often has repercussions, such as a high level of sick leave.

2.4 An additional triangle

The pressure to improve results also led to innovative suggestions when the current principal asked how the target students might be helped. One suggestion was to pair each student with a "coach", someone who was not the grading teacher but who had a positive relationship to the student in question. The task of the coach was to connect personally with the student and cheer her or him on in the pursuit of attaining a passing grade.
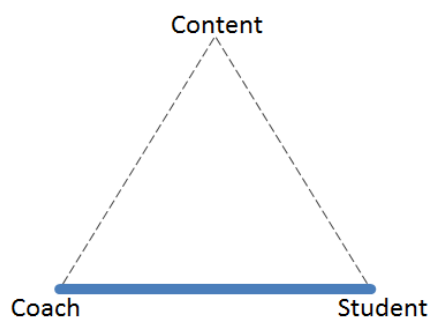
Figure 6: The triangle shows the indirect relationship to content in the coach-student relationship

The coach-student relationship was different to that between a teacher and a student, in that there was no direct relation to the subject content in question. Here, the quality of the interpersonal relationship at the base of the triangle took priority over the other two relationships, and served as a complement to help the student with his or her relation to the content. Here, it can be said that the relation to the content is indirect. The grading teachers and the principle say that the coach-student relationship has helped students to perform better in the subjects in question. However, as the teachers volunteered to coach these students without further remuneration, it added to their already heavy workload.

3   Conclusion

In this paper we have examined the teacher-student relationship, together with both parties' relation to the content and how they are affected by audit culture practices aimed at accountability. The increased demand for results leads to an increased monitoring and control of how students perform and a greater control of the relationship between the student and the content. Teachers are forced to prioritize this relationship at the expense of the teacher-student relationship and the teacher-content relationship. The consequence is often alienation in these relationships, which for some students may mean alienation in the student-content relationship (such as when lessons become boring). This in turn makes learning more difficult: the practices become counterproductive. The results of the research study show that relatively extensive reforms with a strong focus on subject knowledge do not necessarily improve the results of some student groups – usually students from families with a low socio-economic status.

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Transitions – experienced curriculum by students in transition for other schools or for the labour market

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Abstract

The transitions between educational stages and beyond are crucial moments in the social life of students as well as core aspects of the structure of educational systems in general and of the experienced curriculum particularly (Abrantes, 2005). School transitions have been a frequent topic in research literature (e.g. Akos & Galassi, 2004; Mackenzie, McMaugh & O'Sullivan, 2012). This topic undertakes special relevancy when dropout rates and youth employability crisis are major aspects of the global jobs crisis (ILO, 2012) calling for urgent actions in educational systems at global, regional and local levels. So, there has been increased concern from schools in knowing about their former students' transitions to other schools or to the labour market. The Observatory of Life in Schools has been addressing this concern along with a network of middle and high schools by developing a questionnaire that can easily be used by school leaders to understand how the school curricular and extracurricular work influenced the academic, professional and social transitions of their former students. The questionnaire was completed by 207 former students of 9 schools that participated in the pilot study. The results have been analyzed by grade (9th or 12th) and cross-analyzed in order to detect tendencies and features of the questionnaire that should be improved. The paper presents the results of this pilot study, as well as some insights about school transitions in terms of school choices and the perceptions of students about the experienced curriculum. Some suggestions to improve school curriculum will be made.

Keywords: experienced curriculum; transitions; students; schools; Observatory of Life in Schools.

1   Introduction

Transitions between educational stages and beyond are crucial moments in the social life of students as well as core aspects of the structure of educational systems in general and of the experienced curriculum particularly (Abrantes, 2005). School transitions have been a frequent topic in literature (e.g. Akos & Galassi, 2004; Mackenzie, McMaugh & O'Sullivan, 2012), both from the point of view of students as from a curriculum development perspective (Leite & Pacheco, 2011) related with matters of curricular sequence. However, both rely on the idea that a full integration in contemporary societies demands mastery of *powerful knowledge,* that is, one that is transferable (Nowotny, Gibbons & Scott, 2001) and flexible enough to be applied in diverse contexts or used to interpret and assign meaning to events and situations throughout one's lifetime.

As responsible for a compulsory formal education, school has an increased responsibility to develop the students' knowledge and skills in order to empower them to be able to succeed in their transitions. This topic undertakes special relevancy when dropout rates and youth employability crisis are major aspects of the global jobs crisis (ILO, 2012) calling for urgent actions in educational systems at global, regional and local levels. More than ever, schools must assess the work they do in mitigating these problems and help students to succeed in their life paths. Former students' successful transitions to other life stages might be seen as indicators of the schools' performance in those matters. Since 2012, the Portuguese General Inspectorate of Education (IGE) has started to include these indicators in the schools' evaluation reports. So, there has been increased concern from schools in knowing about their former students' transitions to other schools or to the labour market. Moreover, schools have been seeking guidelines and

instruments that allow them to improve their self-evaluation procedures and data for comparative analysis between schools.

The Observatory of Life in Schools [OBVIE] integrates researchers that work closely with middle and high schools organizing a network of integrative knowledge from research projects, shared expertise, experiences and insights. Recently OBVIE developed a pilot study to help school leaders to understand how the school curricular and extracurricular work influenced the academic, professional and social transitions of their former students

This paper presents this pilot study. It begins by exploring some ideas concerning the study of students' transitions. Afterwards, it presents the main results of a questionnaire that was developed and applied to former students of a network of middle and high schools. Some final remarks about the perceptions of students about the experienced curriculum are made as well as modest suggestions to improve the school curriculum.

2 Studying the students' transitions

The importance of studying the students' transitions lies primarily in their strong relation with the students' integration in other schools and universities. Students' integration depends not only on students' characteristics but also on their previous schooling experiences, both determining whether they will persist and be successful in their educational objectives (Kuh, Kinzie, Brian, Bridges & Hayek, 2006). So, these issues should be given close attention long before concerns with educational achievement arrive, assuming that educational achievement implies a certain degree of successful integration in the new academic or professional stage. Indeed, it is commonly recognized that students having integration difficulties tend to have lower approval rates and greater risk of dropping out (Rhodes & Nevill, 2004). Furthermore, these difficulties also degrade the students' quality of life and generate negativistic environment that may affect the schools' or universities' reputation (Palmer, 2001). Studying students' transitions can give important insights about the successes and difficulties experienced by students in their integration in new contexts and clues on how previous schooling experiences prepare them for an adequate integration.

Some data has been provided by studies on the transition of students to Higher Education courses. Mouraz and Sousa (2011) have suggested that the development of the students' "soft skills" can determine the students' success in their integration. So, bigger attention must be paid to the role of previous academic stages in promoting the students' "soft skills". By the other hand, Costa and Lopes (2008) have pointed out three functional types of difficulties experienced by students that determine different ways and times of failure and maladjustment: 1) lack of information to support academic choices and consequent uncertainty about the correctness of the choice; 2) increased distance from previous supporting networks and consequent doubts about initial objectives; and 3) inability to transfer previously acquired strategies, expectations, relationships, etc., to the new situation. These difficulties must be addressed in early academic stages in order to minimize their appearance in the integration in further contexts.

3 Methods

Three main objectives guided the pilot study described in this paper: (i) To produce and validate a questionnaire to evaluate the work that schools carry out to facilitate their students' transitions to other stages; (ii) To produce knowledge about the features of the experienced curriculum in the students' transitions to other stages and (iii) To identify effects of their formal education in further academic performance and in active exercise of a job.

Before administering the questionnaire, a seminar was organized in the Faculty of Psychology and Education Sciences, in which researchers from OBVIE presented, discussed and validated with teachers from partner schools, the procedures for collecting data and the developed questionnaire. The questionnaire is organized in 4 categories: (I) General informations; (II) Appreciation of the work carried out by the School; (III) Perceived importance of the skills, attitudes, experiences acquired while in the School for the present performance (academic or professional); (IV) Experienced difficulties in the transition from the School for the current situation; (V) Significant episodes experienced in the School. In this respect, it should be noted that the questionnaire intended to collect opinions not only about experienced difficulties but also about successes in order to better identify which "soft skills" play a more important role in the students' integration and how the schools promoted them. Moreover, the questionnaire followed the main

perspectives identified in the literature review regarding students' transitions and focusing on students' skills, schools' interventions and experienced difficulties related with these two issues.

While items from groups I and V had a mixture of open and multiple choices questions, items from groups II, III and IV were sets of statements which the respondents were asked to evaluate through a 5- point Likert scale using the levels: 1 - Strongly disagree; 2 – Disagree; 3 - Neither agree nor disagree; 4 – Agree; 5 - Strongly agree.

In each of the 9 schools that participated in this pilot study, a pivot teacher was assigned to gather the students' sample and to make available the questionnaire to the students. Between March and May of 2013, 207 questionnaires completed in a valid way were obtained and analysed. A descriptive statistics analysis was made by the last grade attended by the students and by school, followed by an exploratory factorial analysis in order to validate the questionnaire. The intention was not only to give back to schools data about how their former students evaluate their experiences and learning in the School, when comparing to other schools, but also to give back a validated questionnaire that schools can use in the next school year.

4   Presentation and discussion of results of the pilot study

Although several analysis were made to the data, this paper focus the results of the descriptive statistics analysis made to answers to items of categories II, III and IV, organized by the last grade that students attended.

4.1   Appreciation of the work carried out by the School

To present the results of the level of agreement of the students with the statements of these items, the responses were counted by grade. Assuming a quantitative level of agreement of the Likert scale (1 to 5), the average level of agreement was calculated. The results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Appreciation of the work carried out by the School.

Items	Average level of agreement	
	9th grade	12th grade
II.1 *I always considered that the School cared about me and my success.*	4,14 (σ=0,699)	4,13 (σ=0,505)
II.2 *I received all the support I needed to have better results.*	4,18 (σ=0,799)	4,24 (σ=0,529)
II.3 *I acquired a set of work / study methods that I always use.*	3,99 (σ=0,755)	3,87 (σ=0,694)
II.4 *I developed competences to work in a team.*	4,16 (σ=0,635)	4,31 (σ=0,514)
II.5 *I was always encouraged to expose my ideas.*	4,07 (σ=0,710)	4,11 (σ=0,682)
II.6 *I was encouraged and learned not to give up when I failed.*	4,19 (σ=0,783)	4,31 (σ=0,557)
II.7 *I did most of the friendships I have today in the School.*	4,11 (σ=1,040)	3,77 (σ=1,172)
II.8 *I was accustomed to do a self-assessment of my abilities and my weaknesses in the work / study I develop.*	4,23 (σ=0,684)	4,07 (σ=0,618)
II.9 *I was always told that to be fair, to worry about others and to act rightly were important attitudes for life.*	4,31 (σ=0,729)	4,20 (σ=0,625)
II.10 *I made contact with knowledge and technology that I did not know existed.*	3,87 (σ=0,955)	3,60 (σ=0,956)
II.11 *I felt a concern to relate the School contents with our life experiences which made me realize the usefulness of what we learned.*	4,10 (σ=0,856)	4,10 (σ=0,856)

The level of agreement with the statements was very high in students of both grades since in almost all statements the average level of agreement was above 4 ("Agree"). Only in items II.3 and II.10, the average level of agreement was slightly below 4. In items II.7 and II.10 the dispersion of answers was very high despite the high average level of agreement of the students. To evaluate the differences between the answers of groups of the two grades, Levene's test of variance was applied and the differences were not statistically significant (> 0,05 for a CI of 95%).

4.2 Perceived importance of the skills, attitudes, experiences acquired while in the School for the present performance

The same procedures were used in this category of items. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Perceived importance of the skills, attitudes, experiences acquired while in the School for the present performance.

Items	Average level of agreement	
	9th grade	12th grade
III.1 *I find it easy to integrate myself into a new team.*	4,01 (σ=0,795)	4,02 (σ=0,657)
III.2 *I can recognize that I need help and I know how to get it.*	4,17 (σ=0,627)	4,09 (σ=0,514)
III.3 *I am organized enough to be able to plan and perform tasks in deadlines.*	4,04 (σ=0,798)	4,23 (σ=0,565)
III.4 *I master essential knowledge that is required of me.*	3,93 (σ=0,688)	4,00 (σ=0,482)
III.5 *I like to accept challenges to do things that are not so easy for me.*	3,93 (σ=0,820)	3,89 (σ=0,487)
III.6 *I find it easy to go to the essence of issues that are proposed to me.*	3,92 (σ=0,770)	3,93 (σ=0,580)
III.7 *I recognize the importance of mastering writing competences.*	4,18 (σ=0,797)	4,33 (σ=0,640)
III.8 *I can use information and communication technologies in a sufficient way for what is required of me.*	4,13 (σ=0,714)	4,27 (σ=0,654)
III.9 *I find it easy to explain my points of view to a group of people.*	3,89 (σ=0,752)	3,89 (σ=0,745)
III.10 *I recognize the importance of mastering the foreign languages I have learned so far.*	4,19 (σ=0,755)	4,31 (σ=0,633)
III.11 *I can recognize less proper situations and behaviors of some people, and keep myself away from them.*	4,21 (σ=0,772)	4,49 (σ=0,549)

Also in this category, the level of agreement with the statements was high in students of both grades, ranging from 3,89 to 4,49. When applying Levene's test of variance to evaluate the differences between the answers of groups of the 2 grades, no statistically significant differences were found (> 0,05 for a CI of 95%).

4.3 Experienced difficulties in the transition from the School for the current situation

The same procedures were used in this category of items. The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Experienced difficulties in the transition from the School for the current situation.

Items	Average level of agreement	
	9th grade	12th grade
IV.1 *I wasn't used to the study / work load that is now demanded.*	3,38 (σ=1,189)	3,07 (σ=1,223)
IV.2 *I wasn't used to the rigor and demand that I now have to put on my study / work.*	3,33 (σ=1,242)	2,91 (σ=1,019)
IV.3 *It was difficult for me to do new friendships.*	1,96 (σ=1,207)	1,75 (σ=0,839)
IV.4 *It was difficult for me to adapt to the new rules I have to follow in my current study / work.*	2,52 (σ=1,190)	2,07 (σ=0,828)
IV.5 *The learning I developed is insufficient what I need now.*	2,50 (σ=1,232)	2,16 (σ=0,843)
IV.6 *I found no people available to understand my difficulties and help me to overcome them.*	2,08 (σ=1,147)	1,98 (σ=0,771)
IV.7 *The study / work that I develop now does not suit my expectations.*	2,38 (σ=1,182)	2,19 (σ=0,824)
IV.8 *It was difficult for me to solve practical issues of everyday life.*	2,34 (σ=1,154)	1,86 (σ=0,675)

Unlike the previous categories, the average level of agreement of the students with these items was moderately low in students of both grades (below 3), but with a high dispersion in their answers. Only in items IV.1 and IV.2 the average was above 3 suggesting some level of agreement with the stated difficulties in the study / work load, rigor and demand. When applying Levene's test of variance to evaluate the differences between the answers of groups of the 2 grades, statistically significant differences (< 0,05 for a CI of 95%) were found in items IV.2 and IV.4. Data suggests that former 9th grade students valued the experienced difficulties in the rigor and demand of their study / work in a higher level than former 12th grade students. Also, former 9th grade students seemed to have experienced more difficulties in the new rules of their study / work than former 12th grade students which might be related to the fact that the given support by schools to Basic Education students is traditionally more individualized than the one given to Secondary Education students.

5   Final remarks

The presented data suggests that the surveyed students tend to positively value the work done by the schools they attended and their effects on current integration and devalue the experienced difficulties in their current situation.

For example, and regarding the appreciation of the work carried out by the School, the 2 items more highly valued by former 9th grade students were the promotion of a self-assessment of abilities and weaknesses in the students' work /study (II.8) and of fairness and righteousness as important attitudes for life (II.9). By the other hand, the 2 items more highly valued by former 12th grade students were the development of competences to work in a team (II.4) and the given encouragement to never give up towards one failure (II.6). In which concerns perceived importance of skills, attitudes, experiences acquired while in the School for the present performance, former 9th grade students valued quite highly the recognition of less proper situations and behaviours and the need to move away from them (III.11) and the recognition of the importance of mastering foreign languages (III.10). Likewise, former 12th grade students also valued quite highly item III.11, followed by the recognition of the importance of mastering writing competences (III.7).

The only difficulties that stand out for being slightly more valued, either by students making the transition to Secondary education (9th grade), whether by students who moved to Higher Education (12th grade), are those associated with the increased volume, rigor and demand of the study / work in the academic cycles they are presently attending. However, the dispersion of the results indicates very diverse experiences in students. Students who go to Secondary Education also appear to experience greater difficulties in following new rules of study / work, which may have to do with the fact that the support given to students in Basic Education is usually more individualized that in Secondary Education. Accordingly, the acquisition of a set of work / study methods (II.3) and the possibility of making

contact with new knowledge and technology (II.10) were less valued items by students of both grades, which might, in part, explain some of the experienced difficulties.

These data suggests that the partner schools have been on the right path in developing projects that help students to feel well integrated in their future contexts and provide them with important "soft skills" to make an easy transition (e.g., persistence, ability to work in a team, ability to self-assess, sense of fairness, etc). However, further educational projects should take into consideration a better preparation of students in terms of study / work methods to face increased volume and rigor in their future academic and professional performances.

It must be remarked, though, that deepened studies and analysis must be made to confirm or refute these results with wider samples of schools and students. As this was assumed to be a pilot-study, the current availability of a validated questionnaire will hopefully allow researchers of OBVIE to broaden the research in this topic during the next year.

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The impact of the external evaluation in the professional identity of the early childhood education teachers based on a quality evaluation model

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Abstract

Nowadays Early Childhood Education (ECE) is suffering multiple transformations that are changing the construction and the cultural identity of the Curriculum in this field. In a society that regards ECE in a charitable perspective, answers are searched, organization structures are changed and educational processes are modified in order to increase the credibility of this educational stage.

One of the changes is related with the Portuguese Social Security Institute (ISS, I.P.) proposal to the institutions of the non-profit sector with ECE services, with the ambition to create a normative referential that allows an evaluation of the quality of the services delivered and, subsequently, distinguish positively the institutions by the development of evaluation models in social services, such as day care centers (ISS, I.P., 2005). In the context of the external evaluation, a concept related to the institutional evaluation (Sobrinho, 2003), we intend to study the impact of the Portuguese school external evaluation on the professional identity of the ECE teachers based on a quality evaluation, applied to grant a quality based self-evaluation process, to foster its effectiveness and to implicate all participants in the evaluation process, considering the guidelines for school improvement (Stufflebeam, 2003).

Like in every changing process, this normative referential, which has resemblances with an external evaluation tool, increases the conflict and the opportunities, promoting the questioning of the professional identity in the ECE teachers and the entire community. Consequently arises the debate about the impact of the professional development that the external evaluation tools and the quality evaluation models are causing in the identity of the ECE teacher.

This presentation is a part of a research project funded by the FCT (PTDC/CPE-CED/116674/2010) entitled "Impact and effects of external evaluation on non-higher education schools" regarding the study of the impact and the effects of the external evaluation in the education system and the community development. The methodology used in this study was qualitative, based on interviews with ECE teachers (Bogdan & Biklen, 1999).

The empirical results presented are focused in the formulation of a curriculum organization for ECE services based on quality standards towards an educational productivity, particularly in the valorization of Tyler's rationality and to justify the learning results that ECE should meet based on the accountability approach (Taubman, 2011; Pacheco et al., 2013).

Keywords: early childhood education; external evaluation; accountability; quality; professional identity.

Introduction

After the political changes in the 1980 decade in Portugal, including a paradigm change to a less present state, inducing an evaluation and regulatory system in public services, different conceptions emerged and an evaluation approach in the educational system was established (Clímaco, 2006). Since then, different European national models of school external evaluation aroused based on international evaluation systems (Eurydice, 2004).

Several factors catalysed a broad concern for quality assurance in educational systems. Some of those factors are related with the increment of the managerialism in the decision making platforms and educative agents, reflected in the establishment of accountability politics, throughout the entire school system (Taubman, 2011; Afonso, 2012).

Consequently the curriculum development was influenced by this, focusing aspects like efficiency, effectiveness and quality assurance (Lima & Afonso, 2002).

Consequently it's important to reflect about how the school external evaluation that is impacting on both public and private educational services, regarding the effects on the professional development and identity of Early Childhood Education (ECE) teachers. The relevance of this article is to determine the perceptions of ECE daycare teachers about the school external evaluation and, most specifically, about the Portuguese Social Security Institute (ISS, I.P.) quality referential for the ECE daycare services (0-3 years old children). This referential represents the creation of standardized procedures for ECE daycare services with implications to its entire structure, namely, the establishment of performance standards and needed quantifiable criteria that when implemented in a gradual way allows an evaluation of the entire work, measuring the satisfaction and perception of service users, workers and stakeholders (ISS, I.P., 2005a).

1   Goals and research methodology

This research included collecting the perceptions of ECE teachers regarding the following goals: i) Describe the ISS, I.P. quality referential in ECE daycare context; ii) Analyze the ECE daycare teachers' perspectives regarding the effects of the ISS, I.P. quality referential as an evaluation device; iii) Describe the impact of the ISS, I.P. quality referential as an evaluation device in the curricular decisions of the ECE daycare teachers.

To understand and describe the ISS, I.P. quality referential in ECE daycare context, the document was analyzed using the research technique of document analysis. The research methodology used to gather the research data was based on a qualitative approach, namely in the realization of semi-structured interviews with six ECE teachers (n=6) working in non-profit daycare institutions providing ECE services, that were implementing the ISS, I.P. quality referential as a guide for their educational activities. The data collected with the document analysis and the interviews was treated using the content analysis (Bardin, 2006; Bogdan & Biklen, 1999).

2   Discussion of ISS, I.P. quality referential document analysis

The ISS, I.P. quality referential begins with a welcome note, contextualizing the implementation of the Quality Management System (QMS) in the governmental strategy. The document is divided in four points: 1) introduction, 2) concepts of reference, 3) model for assessing the quality of social responses, 4) evaluation methodologies (ISS, I.P., 2005a).

The document guideline, called "normative referential" (ibid, p.5), presents a concept of quality to "ensure that citizens have access to quality services" (ibid, p.5). The objectives presented relate mainly to the quality assurance process based on organizational performance self-assessment, effectiveness and efficiency of processes, customer participation in services and the satisfaction of the expectations and needs of the organization stakeholders, with the aiming to differentiate positively the social responses guaranteed by ISS, I.P., including also official establishments and private entities, "obtaining harmonized national operating rules for the services provided by establishments, guaranteeing the same high quality of service, regardless the legal nature of the establishment." (ibid, p.6).

Regarding a model that had as "references the NP EN ISO 9001:2000 - Quality Management Systems - Requirements and the Excellence Model of the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM)" (ibid , p.9), the intentions of the ISS, I.P. quality referential in ECE daycare are clarified in the third point, establishing a qualification system of social responses divided in A, B and C levels (from the most to the less demanding) and eight evaluation criteria of quality with evaluation indicators and four levels of qualification. The evaluation methodology mentioned in the last point of the quality referential is applied in the results collected, which consists "on audits performed by an external entity recognized under the Portuguese System of Quality" (ibid, p.48). In addition to the three different types of audits (audit grant level A, B and C) are also referred to the surveillance audits, renewal, monitoring and auditing extraordinary. After the audit process a report is made in which flags non-conformities and other relevant observations classified by more or less critical. After the audit report, the board of the social response prepares an improvement plan listing the actions to overcome the non-conformities and observations identified and timeframe for implementation. After these procedures, the responsible entity issues a certificate that can be level A, B or C.

As a tool to support the implementation of the ISS, I.P. quality referential it was created the Processes Key Manual (PCM) and the reference of Customer, Employees and Partners Satisfaction Evaluation Questionnaires (ISS I.P., 2005b). The PCM begins with a contextualization of social response daycare arguing that "the goals of the daycare social response aim to provide the welfare and development of children from 3 months to 3 years, in a climate of physical and emotional security for the time when they are not together with their family environment through an individualized care and working closely with the family on shared care and responsibility throughout the evolutionary process of the children" (ibid, p.3). Regarding a quality management, the PCM is subdivided into six key processes of service: i) Application; ii) Admission and intake; iii) Individual Plan (IP); iv) Planning and monitoring of activities; v) Personal care; vi) Nutrition and feeding. There are presented not only through the objectives and the scope they are addressed, but also the operative mode, which follows a systematic approach to the identification of input data, data process and output data. This approach is carried out in parallel with work instructions described as being the best practices mirrored in the documents that serve as working tools and as registers of actions. The PCM also highlights that the key processes should take into account the mission and goals of each organization, making possible to adapt the work instructions and documents.

The Customer, Employees and Partners Satisfaction Evaluation Questionnaires supporting the ISS, I.P. quality referential states that it aims to: i) "Assess the degree of satisfaction with specific aspects and the global social response; ii) identify strengths and areas for improvement " (ISS I.P., 2005c, p.1). The referential is implemented by three questionnaires applied to the universe of customers, employees and partners, anonymously. The results should be published and actions should arise to improve the satisfaction of the respondents.

3   Discussion of the interviews data

Regarding the ISS, I.P. quality referential the ECE daycare teachers consider that the model increased the demanding in services, and a difficulty in the registers in different processes: *"It emphasis certain aspects, such as the level of activities, the space organization and all that stuff, as well as the organization of the pedagogical intentions of each teacher... It also has its downside, because has so much bureaucracy, hasn't it?"*(E1). ECE daycare teachers highlight the difficulty in managing time between registers and also ensure the efficiency of processes (ISS, I.P., 2005a): *"The procedures only cause us stress, because we always have to register, otherwise it's a nonconformity, and someone may point us the finger and say that we aren't competent!"*(E4) and the pedagogical component: *"We ended up giving more importance to the paper work than children"*(E2). In the interviews arises a concern for the autonomy of the ECE teacher as an educational professional. About the professional development that the ISS, I.P. quality referential for daycare offers to the ECE teachers, the results point to different perspectives. On one hand, some consider that *"In Portugal we need to have things written to everyone else see that we aren't playing there (…) It helps passing an image to the parents that we work effectively with children..."*(E5). On the other hand, some say that *"I realize that this model leaves us a bit without autonomy, so we also have to be guided by the model itself and the documentary part in the institution"*(E3). This question reveals the disturbance about the curriculum decisions. The ECE daycare teachers revealed that the key processes (ISS, I.P., 2005b) allow a better understanding of the child, and also obligates the ECE teacher to think and reflect about the child, especially referring the individual plan (IP), however, all respondents agree that: *"We have to subtract some quality time with the kids, because we're so trapped in the competencies that must be acquired that we fail to focus on children and their real needs."*(E3), transforming the educational approach in a mechanization of processes.

Generally the interviewees demonstrate some difficulty in exposing their opinions and perspectives, which raises many questions, such as the low involvement of the teaching staff in the implementing of the ISS, I.P. quality referential, making it a technical and methodological matter, or in terms of actually improving the educational activity, showing the reduced reflection that exists in the pedagogical teams about the educational goals. The interviewees refer some examples of the leadership issues in their professional daily living: *"Many times, I think is that the coordinator is not there to assist us in the transition, but to harm us..."*(E3), reflecting the existence of a top-down style of leadership (OECD, 2012). Consequently, it's pertinent to reflect on the importance of promoting a common organizational culture, constituted by professionals on continuous training and developing maturity by themselves (Day, 2004), without interfering with the autonomy and identity of each professional: *" I think people work hard for themselves and want to stand out too much for the work that they perform in their activity rooms and we often lose moments of sharing and team spirit which I believe is essential for the quality assurance…"*(E3), as indicated by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), mentioning that the process of leadership should be built based on discussions with consultants and all the stakeholders in the timeline required to create a quality and

sustainable process (OECD, 2012). Regarding the effect of leadership, its unanimous the demand for standardization of educational practices that is seen to have positive repercussions *"When we have common goals, the educational process is easier."*(E2) and also negative repercussions implying that discourages the educational context and their different characteristics. One of the interviewed mentioned the importance of individuality: *"Before teachers we are people. With defects and qualities. And it's normal that a little of our defects are mirrored in our work. It may influence, not just the way of thinking of the coordinator, but also the opinion she has from us (...) The educational process is also developed through mutual trust, both at the household and institutional level, should trust teachers and assistants who care for their children"*(E1).

Finally, regarding the professional identity, ECE daycare teachers shared some thoughts that can contribute to the knowledge of the profession, the benefits of the curriculum for the profession and the daycare social response, as well as the contribution of external evaluation devices to the profession, stating that the ISS, I.P. quality referential is a device of external evaluation and it contributed to the awareness of the educational community about the quality effects: *"Nowadays parents give much importance to the image that an institution has and most parents seek an institution that gives them security... And one of the security standards is undoubtedly the evaluation model... quality assurance"*(E2). Another interviewed empathizes the internal assessment alongside with the external evaluation: *"The internal evaluation is also an assessment, because it places us under constant evaluation"*(E3). About the possibility of curriculum guidelines for daycare, the interviewed were unanimous in saying that it would be positive: *"I constantly pick up the existing curriculum guidelines for pre-school and adapt, it's an orientation!"*(E6). The ECE daycare teachers agreed on the question about the recognition of the profession: *"I think it's not valued"*(E1), explaining the difficulties: *"There are teachers who are humble and know how to value the work of their colleagues! Also there are others who don't value and make it a competition! Also some educational assistants recognize the ECE teachers who work with them by the practices that they develop, but there are others that basically assess... whether good or bad a teacher is! And often without understanding their intentions"*(E1), which is contrary to the recommendations of the OECD (2012), particularly in terms of the open door culture, based on sustainability, knowledge sharing and peer learning, advocated as essential for professional development and continuous improvement (Day, 2001). This situation creates situations like the one that E3 shared in the interview: *"The valorization of our work must come from the core, and therefore should come from internal structures and only later at the community level. Unfortunately it's not something that I feel..."* and it shows the portrait of the fragility of the identity of ECE daycare teachers who are participating in the implementation process of the ISS, I.P. daycare quality referential in non-profit institutions.

4 Conclusion

The research data reveal that the daycare institutions have adopted assessment and benchmarks procedures defined by the ISS, I.P. quality referential in ECE. A situations that exists not only due to a context marked by educational policies focused on quality, accountability and efficiency, but also assessment strategies common to public and semi-private sectors, namely the discursive level, pre-defining processes, systems and regulations, demonstrating that the European educational policies of each EU Member State follows a globally structured agenda, with visible effects in national policies and in terms of homogeneity and uniformity in detriment of identity (Pacheco, 2009).

The prevalence it's important to analyse the effectiveness the school external evaluation and its consequences in the performance of the professionals and the improvement of the educational system (Eurydice, 2004). The research data demonstrates that the ISS, I.P. referential has different impacts for the ECE daycare teachers, but, all the research participants' demonstrated effects on their educational activities, professional development and identity, by promoting evaluation based on political accountability.

According to the research data it's important to debate if it's possible to determine the procedures for daycare education quality as the ISS, I.P. referential does, because if it is, there are parameters that aren't included in the ISS, I.P. quality referential, like the procedures for early intervention, pedagogical orientation for children with special needs, or professional development of the ECE teachers. Therefore that's not possible, the ISS, I.P. quality referential in ECE, has a naming problem, because calling itself a quality referential, and certificating institutions based on a qualification system, may delude many intervenient (ECE teachers, management organs, parents, community...), promoting a deconstruction of the education role and its complexities.

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Assessing curriculum development through schools' external evaluation – which referents in Portugal and England

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Abstract

Schools face an increasing demand to develop a curriculum of quality for all students. This sets the basis for accountability discourses, within the need of assessing whether their function is being fulfilled with the basic quality standards, and whether school education goals are being achieved (Clímaco, 2005; Key, 2002; Alaíz, 2003). These underlie the establishment of schools external evaluation processes and agencies, in many European countries, targeting schools' ability to provide a quality education.

Considering school's function to provide a quality curriculum and learning environment for all, it seemed relevant to study how schools evaluation referential address this part of schools' work. In this sense, within a PhD study focused on schools' external evaluation processes in Portugal and England, a research was developed to analyse, through content analysis (Krippendorf, 2003), the frameworks from the external evaluation agencies in both countries (IGEC and OFSTD, respectively), focusing on the provision of educational service domain.

It was possible to conclude that: 1) IGEC's referential covers a wide range of key points to be assessed and focus mostly on curriculum development initiatives; 2) OFSTED's referential focus mostly on teachers' posture and dedication, and on the learning environment.

Keywords: curriculum development; schools external evaluation; referential.

1   Introduction

As societies' continuously evolve, school becomes more and more a key stone as it actively contributes for the development, growth and equilibrium, by promoting the individuals full growth. This scenario, alongside with the increasing concerns with an education of quality, resulted in more attention drawn to schools' functioning, results and the work they develop. This sets the tone for accountability discourses and measures, as a response to demands of ensuring that schools meet the basic education quality standards and the goals and targets defined for school education (Clímaco, 2005; Key, 2002; Alaíz, 2003). Following this intention, some European countries chose to implement external evaluation processes as a means of assessing schools' ability of providing a quality education. This concern with quality entails a wide range of aspects inherent to schools' work, covering structural and functioning issues, but more importantly, the issues related to curriculum and pedagogical approaches, which are directly linked with schools achievement rates.

In this sense, considering both the centrality of school education in modern societies, and the attention drawn to the quality of its work, and also the implementation of external evaluation processes as a means to ensure such quality, it seems important to understand the place of the curriculum in the evaluation referential followed in Portugal and in England. So, the study focuses schools' external evaluation and self-evaluation processes in these two European countries. The choice for these countries in particular rested on the fact that both of them are targets of the same European guidelines and demands.

In this paper it is focused particularly the evaluation referential used in each of these countries by the IGEC, in Portugal, and by the OFSTED, in England, which are responsible for the external evaluation processes. Specifically the analysis focuses the curriculum and the teaching and learning process.

2   Scope

Education central part in responding to the socioeconomic and technological challenges faced by Europe, its nations and citizens in modern society (European Union Council, 2009) makes it essential to ensure a quality and effective educational service, able to reach its the goals and mission, by means of adequate practices (Figueroa, 2008; Grek, et al, 2009). This need arises from the competitive and demanding features of a globalized world, that demand from societies, institutions and citizens the capacity of adaptation to a constantly changing world, by managing the best tools and practices. Being a crucial element of modern societies, schools were addressed with this same demands, which resulted in a number of measures and changes implemented in educational systems, both at a management level, as well as curriculum and teaching and learning levels. All of these situations led to development of discourses defending the implementation of processes able to assess whether schools are providing a quality educational service, meeting the goals and functions addressed to school. Hence, within the scenario of concerns with quality and efficiency in school education, and as a means for responding to the societies' development and growth, the European context has been a milieu of recommendations related to schools' evaluation. For instance, documents such as the *Quality of School Education: Sixteen Quality Indicators (2000)*; the *Qualitative assessment of school education (2001)*; the *Effective Schools Self-Evaluation Project (2001)*, and the adaptation for education of the *Common Assessment Framework (2012)*; and also other international initiatives aiming for comparison of the state of education in European countries, like the PISA program, constitute examples of measures driven by concerns with education quality.

Hence, alongside with pressures for more quality in education, the setting of basic standards for school education, and also, the belief in evaluation as a means of ensuring that quality, many European countries opt for developing and creating agencies and processes for their educational systems, focusing mainly on schools and their work.

The belief in the potential of evaluation as a promoter of higher quality and development aroused from an evolution of evaluation itself, to cover the functions of analysis and diagnosis, as well as judgement. That is, the process of evaluation covers, nowadays, a range of functions that makes it a strong ally of individuals and institutions when searching for improvement. It enables to analyse and assess the work developed and its correspondence with the goals previously defined, but it also enables to identify the main issues that influence the work's quality and the development, both by enhancing it as well as by constraining it. Furthermore, scientific research has been arguing in favour of evaluation as a useful strategy for regulating and developing institutions and services, by providing conditions for the creation and implementation of adequate measures (Reezigt & Creemers, 2005; Plowright, 2007; Sun, Creemers & Hong, 2007; Campbell & Levin, 2009; Coe, 2009; Hofman, Dijkstra & Hofman, 2009).

Thus, the process of school evaluation enables to assess how the schools work is being developed, both in what concerns to schools' management as well as to schools' results (Clímaco, 1992; 2005; Díaz, 2003; Scheerens, 2003). Is serves as an accountability measure, but mostly, it allows to collect information on the school, school environment and school reality, which allows to identify key aspects of its functioning, both positive and negative. Based on tis identification, it is possible to set some strategies and measures in order to overcome the problematic situations and, consequently, promote the school's development (Hayman & Napier, 1979; Hadji, 1994; Marchesi, 2002; Reezigt & Creemers, 2005; Coe, 2009). It also provides knowledge to identify needs and difficulties, and sets the basis for improvement actions (Campbell & Levin, 2009; Coe, 2009).

Bearing this in mind, school's external evaluation processes constitute a good ally in planning and implementing adequate measures and interventions in schools. This is particularly important when it is considered the curricula developed and taught in schools, giving that it constitutes the primary matter in teaching and learning, and it is in relation to its mastery that students are evaluated and results are settled. Therefore, it seems important to analyse how the issue of curriculum is addressed in the external evaluation processes, and how it is addressed in the referential guiding those processes. This paper presents the results of an analysis of the evaluation referential used in schools' external evaluation, in Portugal (IGEC) and England (OFSTED), focusing the issue of curriculum.

3   Methodology

As previously said, this paper presents the results of a part of a PhD study focused on schools' external evaluation and self-evaluation processes. This research contemplates a theoretical research phase with documental analysis and field work with a multicase study. For the purposes of this paper, it was selected the analysis of the evaluation referential

used by the IGEC (Portugal) and by the OFSTED (England). These documents were analysed through content analysis (Krippendorf, 2003) focused mainly in the referential domain dedicated to the provision of the educational service, which addresses curriculum issues.

4   Results and conclusions

By analysing the referential guiding the school external evaluation processes, it was possible to draw some conclusions on how the issue of curriculum is addressed in both agencies. For instance a first look upon the referential showed that the Portuguese referential is more detailed when considering the provision of educational service, in comparison to the English one. IGEC's referential presents a more detailed framework to address curriculum issues and seems to be more concerned with specific practices considered positive. OFSTED's referential has a more general approach and seems to address more the intentions and philosophy of teaching and other general concerns.

The IGEC referential presents three sub-domains to specify practices and approaches to curriculum and teaching and learning, namely: i) *Planning and articulation*, which is particularly related to curriculum issues; ii) *Teaching practices*, which, as the name indicates, focuses on teaching, but also contemplates curriculum issues, even if implicitly; and iii) *Monitoring and evaluation of teaching and learning*, which is dedicated mostly to evaluation aspects. These three sub-domains are, themselves, divided in specific indicators to be taken into account when evaluating the provision of educational service, and are considered as key aspects for assessing the state and quality of this domain. Concerning specifically the curriculum, IGEC's framework contemplates aspects of curriculum development or adaptation, in the classroom environment. For instance, in *Planning and articulation*, it's possible to find specifically interesting indicators in what concerns to curriculum a) *Curriculum articulated management*; b) *Curriculum contextualization and opening to the place*; and c) *Use of information on students school course*. These seem to assess the curriculum adaptation and development strategies used by teachers in their daily practices. It can also be found in *Teaching practices* indicators that are related to curriculum issues, such as a) *Adequacy of educational activities and teaching to students' capacities and learning rhythms* and b) *Use of active and experimental methodologies in teaching and learning*. All these indicators clearly indicate a concern of how the curriculum is developed to meet students.

The OFSTED referential addresses this domain by focusing seven general indicators covering mostly teachers' dedication, posture and teaching philosophy, and some general consideration on teaching strategies. For example, it focuses on how teaching promotes students' progress; how teachers' assess whether students effectively understand the content they taught, if teachers provide a constructive feedback able to promote students' learning, and if teachers use adequate teaching strategies to meet students' need. These are the indicators more dedicated to teaching strategies and that could be related to curriculum development. OFSTED's referential also focuses on teachers' dedication by addressing the interest and expectation teachers show towards their students; and on the learning environment by assessing whether teachers are able to establish a productive and positive learning climate. This is particularly interesting when considering that the specific name of this domain is, in fact, *Quality of teaching in the school*, which could point towards a more profound consideration of curriculum development aspects, alongside with teachers' strategies and teaching posture.

In general terms, the analysis of IGEC and OFSTED's external evaluation referential made possible to conclude that IGEC's referential covers a wide range of key points to be assessed and focus mostly on curriculum development initiatives; while OFSTED's referential focus mostly on teachers' posture and dedication, and on the learning environment, but not particularly on curriculum or curriculum development. Nevertheless, a referential focusing teaching postures and curriculum development strategies, that take into consideration the students and their characteristics, can provide an insight on the quality of such measures and point directions to be followed in order to improve it. This can culminate in better quality in schools and, particularly, in the curricula.

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Quality Assurance through Curriculum Development

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Abstract

According to the literature, quality, quality assurance and curriculum development are complex concepts that need to be addressed before stating what constitutes a quality assurance curriculum development process. Pond (2002) emphasised quality as a major priority that should be listed at the top of most institutions' agendas. Improving quality is regarded as the most daunting task facing any institution, due to the dynamic nature of quality and the multidimensional concepts that are involved. The participation of various role players in curriculum development contributes to the fact that 'quality' is considered to be a controversial concept. Quality is not easily measured because of major discrepancies in people's views of quality and because no two experts agree on what constitutes a good university or a good curriculum. The key purpose of quality assurance at institutions of learning is to ensure the improvement and effective performance of the participants involved in a programme. Gawe and Heyns (2004) state that quality processes must be built in from the outset in order for these processes to become the providers of a quality management system. Once this aim is reached, quality will become evident in the inputs, process and outputs of curriculum development. It is thus essential that each phase during the process of curriculum development be quality-driven from the outset. The aim of this paper is to reflect from a quality assurance perspective on my experience concerning the various challenges that were encountered in leading a curriculum development process involving various role players. This is a theoretical paper in which concept analyses as method was used with the aim to support rational communication of those involved in assuring quality in curriculum development.

Keywords: Curriculum; curriculum development; quality; quality assurance; quality culture

1 Introduction

Human and academic projects form critical arenas for transformation at the University of the Free State (UFS). The uncompromising attitude towards academic standards is approached with an openness to confront and address deep social and academic issues.

In 2009, the Faculty of Education (FoE) was constituted at the UFS as a separate faculty. The vision, mission, faculty structure and proposed new initial teacher-education curriculum provided the foundation for strategic thinking in the Faculty as well as a clear statement regarding academic excellence and a commitment to social justice.

Intrinsic to the transformation process is the notion of quality. It is the intention of this contribution to reflect specifically on the process of the development of the initial teacher-education curriculum through the lens of quality assurance.

2 Quality and Quality Assurance

2.1   Terminology

There is no consensus on what defines the concept 'quality' or an accepted 'objective' definition of quality. Quality assurance is described as 'the planned and systematic activities implemented in a quality system so that quality requirements for a product or service will be fulfilled' (ASQ, n.d.). The US Department of Health and Human Services (n.d.) equates this description with 'quality improvement'. According to their view, quality assurance (product-centric) measures compliance against predetermined standards, whereas quality improvement (process-centric) is proactive with the aim to improve the processes and the systems.

In Higher Education (HE) the quality of an academic programme can be determined at two levels (Luckett, 2003). Firstly it is about interrogating the extent to which the purpose of a programme adheres to the mission and vision of the institution. This is seen as a 'fitness of purpose' judgement with product as focus. Secondly it refers to the alignment that can be established between the inputs, processes and outcomes of a programme. At this level, the programme should demonstrate the intended purposes which is a 'fitness for purpose' judgement with process as focus. 'Fitness of purpose' is judgemental by nature, whereas 'fitness for purpose' is developmental by nature (Luckett 2003).

There is no consensus in the literature on what distinguishes the concepts 'fitness for purpose' and 'fitness of purpose'. Vlãsceanu, Grünberg and Pârlea (2007) define quality in terms of 'fitness for purpose' that conforms to generally accepted standards as defined by an accreditation body. This contradicts their view of quality as a transformation process. A transformation process is about change, development and the encouragement of one's critical ability that enables the student to become a lifelong learner (Harvey & Knight 1996). Campbell and Rozsnyai (2002) pointed out that 'fitness of purpose' complements 'fitness for purpose' to ensure comprehensiveness and relevance of purposes in order to ensure improvements. It is important to take note of Harvey and Newton's (2007) concern that, during the quality assurance processes, a compliance mode can work against improvement. This is cause for concern in the South African HE context where both external and internal role players are involved in quality assurance.

2.2   Role players in quality assurance

A procedural approach to quality assurance might not be supportive towards the improvement of that programme, but curriculum developers can use the Stewhart cycle for quality assurance to guide them through heuristic steps (Plan, Do, Study, Act) needed to ensure that the processes are as efficient and effective as possible (Weinstein & Vasovski 2004). It is most likely that curriculum developers will intuitively follow this cycle of quality assurance due to its simplicity and logic.

Four prominent social roles in quality assurance in HE function within two categories, namely 'the involved' and 'the affected' (Luckett, 2003). Three of these roles belong to 'the involved' category. The clients are the students and the motivation for quality and/or improvement of student learning provides the motivation for quality assurance of the project. The decision-making and expert roles are both externally and internally represented. There are internal decision-makers within Higher Education institutions (HEIs) and external decision-makers from government and other government agencies. The internal experts will be those within faculties as well as staff from planning units at HEIs responsible for the quality assurance project. The external experts can be from accreditation bodies and from the Department of Higher Education.

Lastly, the role of the affected in the second category is the academics responsible for the implementation of quality-assurance policies. The key role of academics in quality-assurance varies according to their involvement in the formulation of and their disposition towards the policies (Luckett, 2003).

2.3   Developing a quality culture

It can be counterproductive if a HEI only focuses on the efficacy of systems (compliance mode) that generate reports and not on the engagement with the heart of the academic endeavour to ensure development. HEIs need to move away from an audit culture. Stakeholders should rather be empowered, especially those fulfilling the role of the affected, to critically engage in establishing a quality culture that is supportive of continual improvement which, in itself, can be regarded as a form of accountability (Harvey 2009; Harvey & Newton 2007).

Harvey (2009) as well as Harvey and Stensaker (2008) raise important aspects to be considered when establishing a quality culture. According to them, a quality culture:
- cannot be imposed;
- should be creatively developed and integrated with everyday practices;
- cannot be disengaged from a wider lived reality;
- is a lived, learned experience that generates rather than simply processes knowledge;
- a critical engagement with the 'way of seeing';
- is not a tool but a socio-political construct;
- demands a critical deconstruction of the purpose and underlying ideology behind the quality-assurance requirements;
- is nothing if it is not owned by the people who live it, and
- merges with the ideological preconceptions of the central characters and is rendered invisible.

3 The need for Curriculum Development of initial teacher-education programmes

Policy documents from the State on qualification frameworks and teacher qualifications necessitated the re-design of initial teacher-education programmes in South Africa. A shortcoming (quality risk) in the design of programmes in the past was that national directives were uncritically adhered to without challenging their fundamental assumptions. That resulted in teacher-training programmes that emphasised the implementation of the curriculum of the day instead of professional teacher-education programmes seeking to educate professionals who will be able to interpret, design and implement a curriculum.

The challenge was thus to design quality initial teacher-education programmes which are not compliance-driven but developmental by nature and that could address the needs of education within the context of the broader schooling community.

The first step in designing a curriculum theoretical framework is to analyse and understand the education and institution contexts.

3.1   Stakeholders

Since 2008, lecturers in the FoE at the UFS have been involved in the process of re-conceptualising a curriculum for initial teacher education and understanding the process of curriculum development. Forces impacting on a curriculum; phases of curriculum development; three major representative curriculum designs; approaches to curriculum design; curriculum design dimensions and principles guiding curriculum design were interrogated (Carl, 1995; Doll, 1974; Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998).

A bottom-up approach was followed in conceptualising the design of the curriculum for initial teacher education. Various stakeholders such as alumni, students, principals, and mentor teachers at schools were involved in this process. Officials of the DoE were invited to workshops with a view to obtaining their opinions and inputs regarding the needs and

challenges facing education in practice. Student involvement materialised through written and verbal input from alumni and through continuous participation from current students. As part of a reflective exercise, lecturers and students visited functional and dysfunctional schools that portrayed the rich diversity of the school context in South Africa. During these visits, the students interviewed members of the school-management team with the aim of understanding the context of the school and to take cognisance of challenges facing teachers daily in implementing the curriculum. Collaborative reflective discussions followed on these visits and students wrote group and individual reflective reports on their experience. These reports served as resources contributing towards the conceptualisation of a teacher-education curriculum.

The intention to establish and foster a culture of critical engagement and development through self-empowerment in curriculum development was paramount in this process and bear evidence of a quality assurance commitment. A curriculum reflective group met twice a month since 2010 to engage with the curriculum-development process. All academics in the Faculty (including external visiting scholars) were invited to critically engage in monthly debates on burning issues regarding the curriculum process. These meetings were informative and provided a platform for further engagement to all academics of the Faculty. Re-curriculation has been a standing point on the agenda of faculty board meetings since mid-2010.

Lecturers from the Faculty visited other faculties of education at HEIs in South Africa to reflect on their process of conceptualisation and designing of the curriculum. Colleagues from different institutions in South Africa were also invited to share their perspectives on the redesign of an initial teacher-education curriculum at a seminar in February 2011 with discipline co-ordinators from our Faculty.

All of the above provides the means and platform to critically engage with the design of the BEd programmes.

3.2   Purpose of the initial teacher-education programmes

The design process started by reflecting on the question: "What should a Bachelor of Education graduate at this Faculty be able to do?" The discussions with various stakeholders (see above) and reflections and engagement with literature on initial teacher education generated a list of attributes that we believed our graduates must have (Fwu & Wang, 2002; Grossman, 1995; Passos, 2008).

Against this background, and taking cognisance of national imperatives, the purpose of the BEd programme was formulated, namely to provide a well-rounded education that will empower graduates with an integrated knowledge base enabling them to demonstrate applied competence, commitment and responsibility as academically and professionally qualified beginner teachers. Implicit to this purpose are the qualities supportive of both the academic project (making the institution an excellent, internationally recognised research-intensive university) and the human project (development of a community of diverse people, based on tolerance, openness and reason).

Knowledge played a pivotal role in the design of this curriculum which is in line with a student-centred curriculum design and is also supported by Young's (2013) statement, namely that: "… curriculum theory must begin not from the learner but from the learner's entitlement to knowledge." Content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) and curriculum knowledge were central to the design of this curriculum. These are also the kinds of knowledge that a teacher needs (Shulman, 1986).

3.3   Generic curriculum framework

The conceptualisation of this teacher-education curriculum provided evidence that a curriculum should be progressive, implying that both process and product are valued. Although the curriculum was designed around the student, the boundaries between this

design and the other two forms of design, namely subject and social problems designs, were blurred due to the fact that the importance and value of knowledge and social forces impacting on the curriculum needed to be strengthened (Du Toit, 2011).

The approach to the design of the curriculum is both experiential and holistic (Carl, 2009). The institutions values, namely academic freedom and autonomy, excellence, fairness, service, and integrity (www.ufs.ac.za 2011) overarched the entire process of the curriculum design. These values served as the 'glue' that ensured a holistic integrated approach instead of a fragmented approach in the design of the curriculum. Effective learning (De Corte, 1996) is the driver of the learning process, emphasising the importance of social and cognitive learning as well as the balance between these two types of learning.

The foregoing discussions led to a generic structure for a BEd qualification. Students' entitlement to knowledge implied that relevant knowledge types discussed above were at the core of this curriculum. Only at this stage relevant policy documents from the institution and statutory documents from the state were rigorously interrogated by all academics at various workshops. More external (DHET staff) and internal (DIRAP staff) role players were invited to critically engage with the curriculum reflective group and the rest of the academic staff on the envisaged curricula. This continued until the programmes were submitted to the various statutory bodies for approval.

3.4 Reflection on the quality assurance of the curriculum designed

Members of the Curriculum Reflective Committee (CRC) served on task teams of the Council of Higher Education (CHE) that evaluated various education programmes at South African institutions. The programme director also served on the accreditation committee of the CHE. Most of the CRC members serve on various committees related to academic planning, teaching and learning and policy development at the UFS. It can thus be accepted that action taken by the CRC and the leadership provided by them were most probably intuitively from a quality-assurance disposition.

Quality assurance was not the formal starting point or the driver of this curriculum-development process. There is though a correlation between the literature on quality assurance and the various actions taken in the process of re-conceptualising the initial teacher-education programme at the UFS.

The restructuring of the FoE was a transformation process which involved every staff member of the Faculty which to a large extend contributed towards establishing a culture of belonging. The re-curriculation process provided the means to build forth on this culture, and intuitively a culture of quality developed. This was enhanced by a theoretical framework based on strong academic arguments that led to the formulation of the purpose of this programme. The purpose and, ultimately, the intended curriculum were not the result of the work of one or two persons, but it was rather a socio-political construct owned by all academic staff. This was a lived, learned experience integrated with everyday practice that generated knowledge. All academic staff must aim to "live" this curriculum when implementing it. The dissemination of this curriculum and its expectations were inherent to the process, implying that all academic staff members were continuously informed as they co-developed the curriculum. None of the role players who fulfilled any of the four social roles participated from a position of power. The curriculum development process supported continual improvement and growth. The curriculum furthermore adhered to the design dimensions, and this in itself created a sense of the staff owning the curriculum.

National and international external experts were requested to evaluate the programme. This is evidence of the dynamics of the curriculum-development model where the designed curriculum is evaluated before being implemented. The feedback was

overwhelmingly positive, but some aspects that need to be reflected upon were pointed out and were improved.

In summary it can be stated that a culture of quality was successfully established (although mostly intuitively) when measured against the guide lines of a quality culture (Harvey, 2009; Harvey & Stensaker, 2008). The programme demonstrates the intended purpose and it can thus be referred to as a 'fitness for purpose' judgement which is developmental by nature. The 'fitness of purpose' judgement is in process.

6 Quality assurance of the last two phases of the curriculum development process

The biggest challenge in the quality-assurance process will be to ensure that the implemented (experienced) curriculum is equivalent to the intended curriculum. 'Fitness to practise' must be achieved. Students who successfully complete the degree must register with the Council for Educators in order to get a license to teach in South Africa. This is no guarantee of 'fitness to practise'. However 'fitness to practise' could be ensured by challenging students with real-life simulations lasting a few days in which they must demonstrate their applied competence. Their degree certificate could be a proof of 'fitness to practise' based on successful completion of the simulation challenge together with a portfolio (compiled over two years).

Evaluation by means of a longitudinal research project, where students' performance and attitude are researched over a period of three years, could be supportive to the continuous improvement and growth of this programme.

7 Conclusion

Quality assurance can easily become a system driven by the bureaucracy. The challenge is to move away from an audit culture towards a quality culture. This is possible if the process of curriculum development is based on sound academic grounds and facilitated by good and informed leadership. Within such a quality culture 'fitness of purpose' will complement 'fitness for purpose' that could ensure comprehensiveness and continual development and growth.

Quality culture needs to be conceptualised by all involved. All those involved in the process should have faith and experience certainty in respect of the curriculation. It must create harmony and moral love among students, lecturers and role players in various schools involved in teaching experience and in the community at large. Excess of, for example, autonomy and/or procedures must be excluded. The curriculum-development process must add symbolic meaning and lead to development and growth within the institution. Finally, the curriculum-development process should provoke a critical disposition in students and academics. This implies that role players should be able to discern and reflect on curriculum-related issues in the broader sense of the word.

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The emergence of Accountability in the Portuguese education system

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Abstract

The issue of accountability has gained a renewed social, political and educational importance. This is one of the reasons why it should continue to be an object of theoretical and conceptual reflection, particularly in the social sciences. Regarding, more specifically, education, the contributions that have the issue of accountability at their core are still few, particularly in countries where democratic political regimes are relatively recent. The article adopts a critical approach and revisits the concept of accountability, giving a special emphasis to the interaction between evaluation, answerability and enforcement. This brief theoretical and conceptual framework is then applied to some aspects of the Portuguese educational reality and we conclude that the issue of accountability is still, in this specific context, relatively recent and uncertain

Keywords: accountability in education; partial forms of accountability; Portuguese education system.

1. Introduction

In this text, I intend, mainly, to discuss some concepts and stress the presence and importance of the issue of accountability in the field of Portuguese education. However, the discourses that call for the introduction of accountability mechanisms are not always motivated by explicitly democratic reasons. There are also demands which are influenced by more instrumental or control reasons, or which aim to cater to rationales that feed or exacerbate competitive inequalities even though, as often happens in education, they seek to justify themselves as an inevitable compensasory consequence of the loss of power, namely of the State, in the course of autonomy and/or decentralisation processes. These contradictory perspectives and rationales, with different emphases and consequences, also and increasingly affect public education policies.

Taking this into account, in this text I aim to stress aspects of the issue of accountability which I believe are necessary to maintaining the debate on some of its more pertinent dimensions for the field of education – and following from this, share some experiences and the content of some legal norms which are being implemented in Portugal.

2. Towards a definition of accountability

Although it is often translated into Portuguese as synonymous with *answerability*, the word accountability displays some semantic instability because in reality it corresponds to a concept with plural meanings and magnitudes. In order to avoid some of the pitfalls surrounding a concept which requires greater reflection and which could certainly be the object of an interesting theoretical-conceptual exercise, I will attempt to make the discussion of the meaning of accountability more accessible, opting, to this effect, to closely follow one of the most widely referenced works by Schedler (1999), though still including, where appropriate, my own reinterpretation.

For Schedler, accountability has three structural dimensions: an *information* dimension, a *justification* dimension and a dimension of *enforcement* or sanction. Accountability, as an obligation or duty to provide answers (*answerability*), is not simply a more or less benign discursive activity that is exhausted in information and justification; it also includes an authoritative, coercive or sanctionative dimension (*enforcement*). In light of the huge variety of existing situations, those three dimensions (information, justification and sanction) may not always be present but, "even if one or two of them are missing we may still legitimately speak of acts of accountability". However it seems to me that, even though these "acts of accountability" may exist in isolation, they can only gain density if they are integrated and combined in a broader model.

From my point of view, a model of accountability will still be incomplete if its heuristic capacity is not extended by including the pillar of evaluation. In this sense, I suggest that the pillars of evaluation, answerability and enforcement

should be combined, thus creating a more complex model of accountability that is consistent and has new interactions and interfaces**.** So, what I call the pillar of evaluation refers to the process of collecting, treating and analysing information, theoretically and methodologically oriented and grounded in order to produce value judgments on a given social reality. In this case, whenever it is justified or deemed necessary, evaluation may precede answerability, but it may also take place between the answerability stage and the enforcement stage.

I suggest an interpretive typology which distinguishes *partial forms of accountability*, *models of accountability* and *systems of accountability*. I can regard as *partial forms of accountability* those actions or procedures that only relate to some dimensions of *answerability* or *enforcement*, which therefore do not constitute an integrated model or structure. On the other hand, a *model of accountability* is a more complex structure, preferably adaptable, open and dynamic, in which different dimensions or partial forms of accountability display congruous relations and intersections, function and make sense as a whole. Lastly, a *system of accountability* is an articulated collection of models and partial forms of accountability which, having their own specificities and potentially different degrees of relative autonomy, however constitute a structure congruent with the action and orientation of the State, (or another agent or organization of mega, macro or meso-regulation, or within multilevel regulation), for example, in the context of public policies founded on certain values and principles.

3. Accountability: Evaluation, answerability and enforcement

Among many other objectives and roles, evaluation may be used as a condition for the development of processes of answerability and enforcement (*accountability*). That is, answerability, as an act of justifying and explaining what is done, how it is done and why it is done, implies the development of some form or process of evaluation or self-evaluation. In a democratic society, to be able to be held to account we must evaluate in a way that is well-founded and as objective as possible; and be held to account in order to guarantee transparency and the right to information in relation to the pursuit of policies, orientations, processes and practices. And if for whatever reason the voluntary assumption of possible personal, political or institutional responsibilities is not expected or appropriate, or if, in the course of answerability, there is room for prizes or sanctions or other forms of enforcement for institutions, organisations or people, that should still take into account, depending on the specificities of each case, a rigorous and prudent evaluation from a technical-methodological point of view (based not only on previously defined criteria, objectives and standards, but also widely participated and formative processes), while also bearing in mind the cultural, ethical and legal framework that envisages democratic procedures and safeguards fundamental rights.

Evaluation precedes (or should precede whenever possible) answerability and enforcement (Dimmock & Hattie: 1990), given that following answerability there should also be an evaluation that considers the information provided and the arguments produced regarding the policies, actions and performances at stake. Likewise, without the congruence of assumptions, values, procedures and methodologies of evaluation, answerability and enforcement it is harder to have a search for objectivity and transparency regarding political, social and educational decisions and practices, which may compromise the achievement of the democratic right to information and, consequently, raise the possibility of distancing and alienating citizens in relation to what happens in institutions and organisations that are public or of public interest. In relation to this last aspect, it is necessary to consider resistances and deal with real obstacles which may follow from the failure to understand or insufficient interiorisation of rights, or which may be induced by factors such as the poor functioning and bureaucratisation of the administration of justice, the levels of cultural, civic and moral development of individuals, the nature and purpose of the education and training systems, the frail presence of ethical issues in business, in the different types of organisations and in civil society in general - in sum, the low intensity of substantive democracy in a given historical context.

Also for these reasons a model of accountability may be felt as an "anathema" when its social representation coincides with a "potentially punitive image" (Ranson, 2003: 460). When this happens, the different dimensions of a model of accountability are forgotten and suspicion concerning the real meaning of the consequences inherent to the pillar of enforcement (which, as was noted above, do not necessarily have to be negative) takes hold. But since a model of accountability often implies a complex web of relations, interdependences and reciprocities, as well as differentiated possibilities of justification and explanation, the enforcement dimension is especially delicate, as can be easily seen when we think about the role and action of teachers and educators, for example.

Teachers and educators, perhaps today more than ever, develop their professional activity in the midst of highly contradictory pressures and demands, having to answer simultaneously to various hierarchical units (from the ministry to the school principals), to peers and supervisors, to students in many cases, as well as parents, the education community and society in general. Here lie, among other aspects, the roots of the decisive importance of a

reflexive practice of accountability. For example, if we expect teachers to answer to parents regarding the school progress of their children, these teachers will also have legitimate expectations that parents reinforce their care with learning processes. That is, expectations and responsibilities are reciprocal, although different (and possibly conflicting) perspectives regarding what counts as learning and what approaches are more effective for that learning to happen in a significant way may still be in conflict. In this sense, building consensus, communication and dialogue are fundamental dimensions in a "discursive practice of accountability". In fact, as Stewart Ranson observes, "The positive potential of this intelligible, reflexive accountability has been neglected in much contemporary theorizing of accountability" (Ranson, 2003: 460-461).

In fact, the systematic reference to accountability is in vogue and it is worth improving our understanding of the reasons (convergent and divergent) why some of its mechanisms and models have been referenced both by neoliberal and neoconservative orientations and by orientations from different ideological frameworks (from social democracy, the labour movement, the third way, among others). In relation to this, Biesta (2004: 234) states that "the idea of accountability may be relatively immune to political ideology", as in fact, in the case of England, both the New Labour governments and the Conservative party governments that gave such an emphasis to it show. As I myself have noted, this relative indifference to political-ideological differences has also been present in relation to evaluation policies in the last ten years (Afonso, 2001), although these policies had more specific connotations when the neoliberal and neoconservative coalitions emerged and made evaluation one of the leading instruments of the *new right* (Afonso, 1998, 2009).

4. Emergence of the issue of accountability in Portugal

Regarding the issue being analysed, and bearing the Portuguese educational reality in mind, the first observation we must consider is the existence of models which are still unfinished or are being built that seek to integrate and combine, in a more or less explicit manner and with varying degrees of consistency, the three dimensions of accountability: evaluation, answerability and enforcement. For this reason the presence of what I referred to above as *partial forms of accountability* is more evident, that is those actions or procedures that refer only to some dimensions of a model.

Considering only non-tertiary public education, it is mainly results from standardised tests, in the form of nationwide exams and other international evidence (including PISA), as well as the external school evaluation model, which have been used to share with the government, parents and society in general some of the specific dimensions of the operation of the education system (thus being part of the issue of accountability). On the other hand, since its relatively recent introduction, following from the review of the statute of the teaching career of Portuguese teachers in non-tertiary education, the process of implementing a model for evaluating teaching performance is also underway. In line with these fragmentary reforms, a new autonomy and management regime of state schools that introduces the figure of the principal as a unipersonal management body was also approved and is currently in force – a change that constitutes an important break with the tradition of collegiality that began in the stage following the democratic revolution, over three decades ago.

If we begin with this school management norm, we find that it includes several references to answerability and other congruous principles (Decree-Law no. 75/2008). It states that the autonomy and management regime of schools operates "on the principle of the responsibility and answerability of the State, as well as of all the other agents or intervening parties". It also emphasises that participation and intervention in the "strategic management" of school establishments or groups by families, teachers and other agents in the community "constitutes an initial, more direct and immediate level of the answerability of the school in relation to the people it serves". In fact the "strategic management" body, the "general council", is a particularly propitious arena for answerability, enabling the involvement of the education community in the information and justification processes (answerability). It reiterates that the exercise of autonomy "presupposes answerability, namely through self-evaluation and external evaluation procedures". Potential consequences of inspections and external evaluations are also highlighted, which may, for example, justify the dissolution of governing or managing bodies or interfere with the development of *autonomy contracts* between schools and the ministry of education. These principles and orientations allude to forms of evaluation, answerability and enforcement, clearly indicating that this autonomy and management regime of state schools includes dimensions that are very close to constituting a model of accountability.

Another political measure within the (relatively recent) emergence of accountability in education in Portugal regards the school external evaluation programme. The Inspectorate-General of Education is responsible for this programme, although it also involves invited external specialists who make up the evaluation teams. This external evaluation

programme encompasses an initial stage of collecting and systematising information, by the schools, from which a self-evaluation report is produced. This is followed by a second stage where the various documents and reports produced are provided to and analysed by the external evaluation team, in order to adequately prepare a visit to these schools. In a third stage, during the visit by the external evaluation team (which involves two members from the Inspectorate-General of Education and one evaluation expert), different panel interviews are held where members and representatives from all sectors of the education community are heard (members of the management body, teachers, support staff, students, parents, representatives from the municipality and other local institutions or associations...). The purpose of these interviews is to clarify and explore in greater depth aspects contained in documents and reports initially produced by the schools and/or following from statistical data provided by the Ministry of Education, and are thus opportunities for dialogue, justification and argumentation. At the same time, based on a previously defined script, other pertinent information is collected related to results, provision of education services, school organisation and management, leadership and capacity for self-regulation and improvement, as well as more specific data on academic performance, participation and civic development, behaviour and discipline, valorisation and impact of learning, articulation and sequentiality, monitoring of teaching practice in the classroom, differentiation of support, comprehensiveness of the curriculum and valuing of knowledge and learning, conception, planning and development of activity, human resource management, management of material and financial resources, participation of parents and other members of the education community, equity and justice, vision and strategy, motivation and dedication, openness to innovation, partnerships, protocols and projects, self-evaluation and sustainability of progress. In the following stage, the external evaluation team considers all the information and data collected, awards a classification to each area assessed, signals what it believes are the strong and weak points of the school visited and draws up a report that is sent, some time later, to the relevant school. Once this report has been received, the schools that deem it necessary will have an opportunity to contest it, that is, they will present reasons why they do not agree with the classification awarded and, as a result, the factual data may eventually be corrected. Both the report of the external evaluation team and the school's response are later published on the website of the Inspectorate-General of Education. More recently, in response to requests from school principals, an "appeals proceeding was established" to reanalyse the classifications awarded in the final external evaluation report.

In my view, these external evaluation procedures of Portuguese state schools reveal the presence of important dimensions of a model of accountability. The centrality of the pillar of answerability (where the production of information, arguments and justifications plays a structural role) is clear, and the pillar of evaluation is also present, in two different moments: during the self-evaluation process (or *ex-ante* evaluation) and during the external evaluation process (or *ex-post* evaluation). However the pillar of enforcement could be made clearer, even though it is known that there are other legal norms which involve consequences that depend on the results of this external evaluation. Therefore regarding this external school evaluation programme, we can provisionally conclude that it too is not a complete model of accountability, although in its specific configuration it includes several *partial forms of accountability* which may, eventually, be better combined and evolve into a *model* or more complex and consistent structure.

Regarding the evaluation of teaching performance, it is still not possible (or desirable) to draw conclusions about its configuration, particularly because there have been fluctuations and tensions surrounding its negotiation and legal regulation and the necessary conditions for its long-lasting stabilisation and implementation are not yet fully established, in spite of the existence of some experiences in schools that are based on the legislation produced and that allude, directly or indirectly, to the changes in the statute of the teaching career**.** In any case, the information currently available seems to indicate that the model for evaluating teachers will take shape not only as a professional development process, but it will also have connections, although indirect, with *partial forms of accountability*, which may eventually be integrated into a *model of accountability*. These connections are, in fact, to some extent envisaged by the actual statute of the teaching career where it is mentioned that evaluation will have "effective consequences" for career development, making it possible, for example, to "identify, promote and reward merit". The statute of the teaching career also emphasises that the evaluation of performance "is aimed at improving the school results of the students", showing that there is a relation between those two factors (performance of teachers and student results). This last issue, which is not new in other countries, was considered in the initial regulatory norms of the statute of the teaching career, although in a later stage it was (provisionally) set aside. However an evaluation of teaching performance that is connected, even if indirectly, to the results of external national exams is also to some extent implicit when, for example, in the current external evaluation of schools the comparison between the results of the internal evaluation of students and the external exam results is taken into account, as well as when the percentage of *excellent* and *very good* mentions is conditioned by the results of that same external school evaluation.

Lastly, standardised exams and tests (national or international), although they are often valued as being (or having the potential to be) at the basis of a model or system of accountability, have not actually been more than a dimension of answerability, that is, an act or a *partial form of accountability*. Likewise I can consider school rankings, which follow from the national exams, as also being a *partial form of accountability* (in this case driven by civil society and the market), propelled, in a decisive way in the Portuguese case, by some important (private) media bodies and politically conservative sectors (Afonso 2009).

5. Concluding remarks

Considering the examples above, we can emphasise that, in Portugal, there is enough evidence to suggest we are still in a initial stage of building models and systems of accountability in education, given that, in almost every case, the focus is on the discursive dimension and some practical experiences related to the pillar of answerability, that is, related to the dimensions of justification, argumentation and information.

There is therefore a wide open arena to exercise the sociological outlook and recover the more expressive and advanced meanings of an issue that, in many situations and contexts, runs the risk of being confined to narrow visions and impoverished versions of social, educational and political action. For this reason, which is as or more important than the methodological issues implicit here, it is necessary to assume, from the outset, that the construction of democratic and transparent models of evaluation, answerability and enforcement also implies the social, cultural and political valorisation of processes of participation, negotiation and justification, and the adoption of explicit models of justice and equity (social, educational and evaluative).

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External Evaluation of Schools in Portugal: effects on schools' dynamics.

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Abstract

In Portugal, concerning basic and secondary education, the demand for quality in education has justified policies regarding to external evaluation of schools (EES) among other political measures. Although the statement of these policies has emerged in mid-80s, only at the beginning of the XXI century the EES was legally defined (Law No. 31/2002). It was based on this Law that between 2006 and 2011, under the responsibility of the General Inspection of Education (GIE), took place the 1st phase of schools evaluation, in which every Portuguese basic and secondary school was evaluated. The 2nd phase of schools' evaluation started in 2012, following the same guidelines that framed the 1st phase, and taking as reference the recommendation of the National Council for Education (2010), as well as the knowledge produced.

The Portuguese model for EES, which have a formative orientation (Leite; Pacheco, 2010), allows schools to develop an improvement plan, seeking to respond to accountability demands, as well as to promote school improvement (Alaiz *et al*, 2003). In this context, and considering that the act of evaluation is directly related to the verification of results and outcomes (Davies et al, 2007), this communication presents the **effects that the EES generates in improving school and curricular organization**. To do so, 40% of the school evaluation reports from the 1st and 2nd phases were analyzed.

The content analysis (L´Écuyer, 1990; Bardin, 2007; Krippendorf 2003) of the reports was performed using the NVivo (v. 10) software. To perform this analysis, the following categories were considered: *organizational changes*, *curriculum and pedagogical changes* and *academic results*. This procedure enabled the identification of the effects that EES is generating in the improvement of the overall work developed in schools, and allowed to conclude that the EES is generating qualitative changes in school work and some innovation dynamics.

Keywords: External evaluation of school; quality; education.

1   Introduction

The need of implementing procedures able to promote and ensure educational quality has been recognized as a consequence of an investment in expanding the access to school education, responsible for its massification. In this sense, public policies in several countries and governments have focused on regulatory and evaluation educational systems. International organizations within OECD and UNESCO have produced recommendations concerning the search and assurance of educational quality. It was considered: the «external school evaluation is becoming well established but the culture of evaluation and improvement needs to be strengthened; the external school evaluation model embodies a number of features of best practice but there is an insufficient focus on learning and teaching; school self-evaluation requires to be strengthened» (OECD, 2012: 104-105).

In Portugal, concerning basic and secondary education, the demand for quality in education has justified policies of external evaluation of schools (EES), among other political measures. Although the statement of these policies has emerged in mid-80s, only at the beginning of the XXI century the EES was legally defined (Law No. 31/2002). It was

based on this Law that between 2006 and 2011, under the responsibility of the General Inspection of Education (GIE), took place the 1st phase of schools evaluation, in which every Portuguese basic and secondary school was evaluated. The 2nd phase of schools' evaluation started in 2012, following the same guidelines that framed the 1st phase, and taking as reference the recommendation of the National Council for Education (2010), as well as the knowledge produced.

The Portuguese model for EES, which have a formative orientation (Leite & Pacheco, 2010), follows a data collection procedure focusing: documents produced by the school, interviews in panels constituted by elements of the educational community and observation of school situations. The collected data is, then, analyzed based on a framework that focuses, among other aspects, academic achievement, curricular organization, and leadership and self-evaluation procedures followed by the school. The process ends with the production of a report systematizing the strengths and improvement areas identified. With this information, schools develop an improvement plan, to which they are committed, seeking to respond to accountability demands, as well as to promote school improvement (Alaiz *et al*, 2003).

In this context, and considering that the act of evaluation is directly related to the verification of results and outcomes (Davies *et al*, 2007), this paper aims to analyze what ***effects does EES generate in improving school and curricular organization***. To do so, the school evaluation reports from the 1st and 2nd phases, concerning all schools, were analyzed.

2   External Evaluation of Schools: effects on schools' dynamics.

In Portugal, the GIE is the entity responsible for the external evaluation in primary and secondary schools and the work that is developed has the objective to promote the improvement of educational quality services and to improve schools work at different levels.

The benchmark used in this EES was based on "How good is our school?" (Clark, 2000), and focuses on aspects related to student outcomes, the educational service provision, issues of organization, management and leadership and school dynamics self-assessment. In the 1st phase of EES, this benchmark was structured around five areas, which in the 2nd phase are reduced to three: (1) results (2) educational service provision, and (3) leadership and management.

Regarding to public schools, the evalution process is inserted in a framework of a policy measure that can not be ignored and that can drag different conceptions of education and evaluation. This same idea is conveyed by Figari (2007) that states that the meaning of the evaluation should be investigated in the context of the evolution of human and social sciences and, more specifically, science education, thus having a holistic view of all aspects that this concept represents. It implies reflecting on the epistemological status of the evaluation and to take into account that this is a subject of strong demand, both institutional and professional.

Concerning to Stufflebeam (2003), all the important aspects of the school should be evaluated in order to promote individual and collective improvement. It is with reference to this idea that we associate the evaluation of schools to promote conditions conducive to the overrall development of schools. This is corroborated by Clímaco (2005) when she stated that the evaluation can contribute to the improvement or progress of what is evaluated. In the case of the fields of analysis that are focused in this study - *organizational changes*, *curricular and pedagogical changes* and *academic results* - it is assumed that the EES held at the 1st phase generated effects in the 2nd phase of EES.

3 Methodological Procedures

The study developed followed an interpretative orientation, based on a qualitative analysis (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Flick, 2004) of discourses made in reports by EES teams. The analysis focused on 40% of the reports from North and Central Portugal, concerning the two evaluation phases.

The content analysis (L´Écuyer, 1990; Bardin, 2007; Krippendorf 2003) was performed using the NVivo (v. 10) software. The coding units were sentences/clauses, although, in some circumstances, full paragraphs were also considered as units. Nevertheless, in all cases, it was the unit sense that guided the coding procedure and the rule of mutual exclusiveness of the categories-was not followed (L'Écuyer, 1990).

To perform this analysis, the following categories were considered: *organizational changes*, *curriculum and pedagogical changes* and *academic results*. This procedure enabled the identification of the effects that EES is generating in the improvement of the overall work developed in schools. In this sense, the content analysis was based on a categorical system: (1) Organizational Changes, that includes the subcategories *institutional self-evaluation* and *administration and management leadership*; (2) Curricular and Pedagogical Changes, which considers *sequentially and curricular articulation* and *monitoring and supervision of teaching practice*; (3) Academic Results, that includes three subcategories, namely *evolution of external results by levels of schooling and discipline, quality of success* and *school dropout*. These categories and subcategories are also related to *strengths*, *weaknesses* and *improvement opportunities* of schools.

4 Discussion

The presentation that follows counts the references that were associated with categories and subcategories that organize the three dimensions under study. Overall, there are more coding units in the 1º phase of EES than in the 2º phase. There is a significant difference in the number of coding units in the category "organizational changes" from 1st to 2nd phase (see graphic I).

Graphic I: Distribution oh the number of coding unites by phases.

Graphic I: Distribution of the number of coding units by phases

■ 1º phase   ■ 2º phase
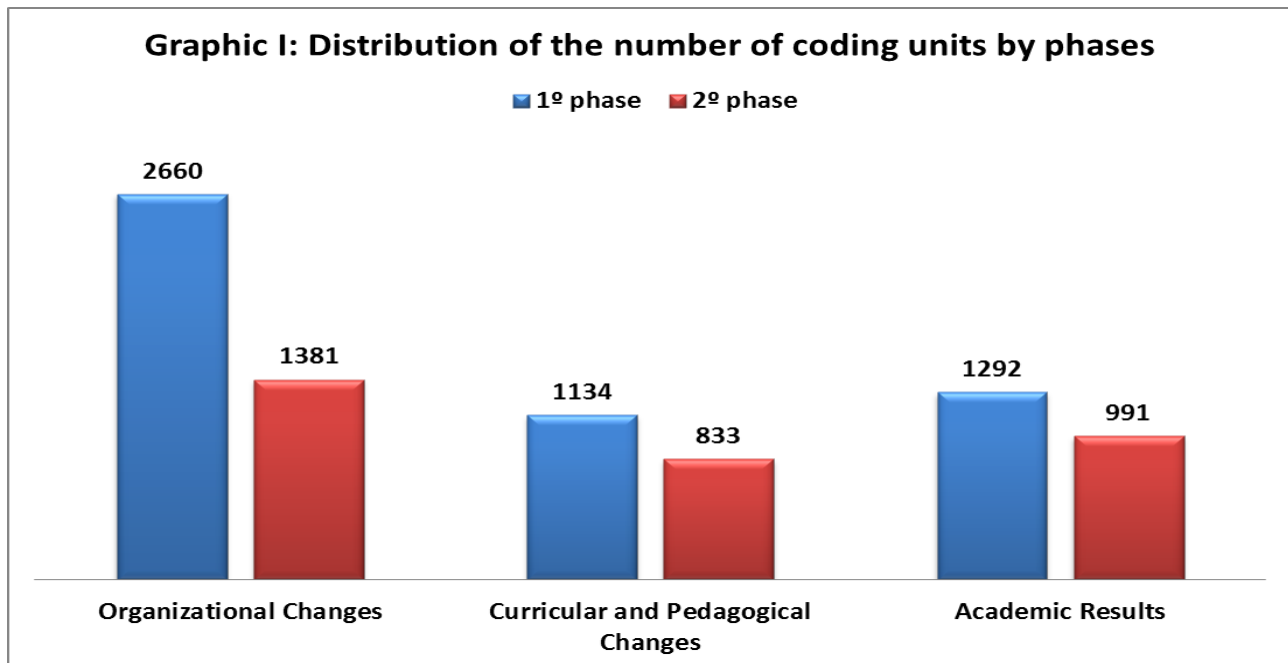
In 1st phase of EES, there are more coding units related to "organizational changes" in the *strengths*, *weaknesses* and *improvement opportunities*. The number of *weaknesses* related to "curricular and pedagogical changes" is greater

than the number of *strengths*. The number of references to *improvement opportunities* is also minor in this category. In contrast, "academic results" have more strengths than *weaknesses* (see graphic II).

Graphic II: Coding units by "strengths", "weaknesses" and "improvement opportunities" in 1st phase of EES

Graphic II: 1º phase - coding units by "strengths", "weaknesses" and "improvement opportunities"
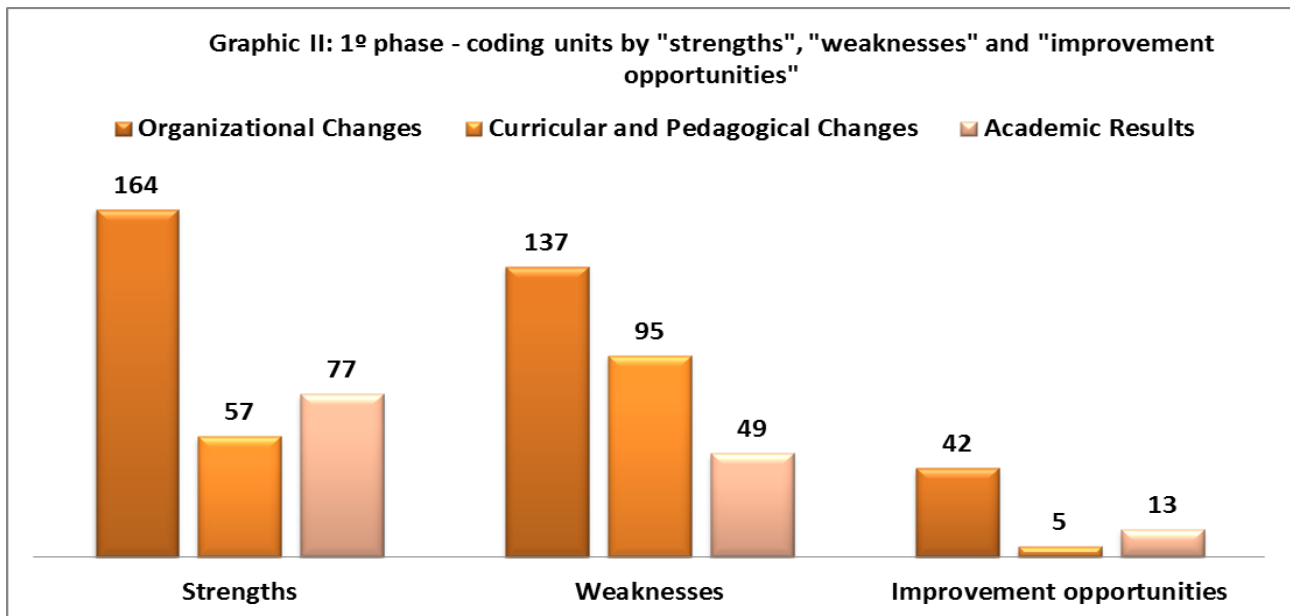
Here are some examples of extracts taken from EES reports in the 1st phase.

Strengths:

«Motivation and commitment of executive leadership for the improvement of school organization» (in organizational changes)

«Improving outcomes for pupils with educational needs and multiple disabilities» (in curricular and pedagogical changes)

«Stability in the four years 2003/07, rates of completion / transition of the 1st and 2nd cycles (above 95%)» (in academic results)

Weaknesses:

«No assumption of the educational project as an identification of the whole community and as an educational tool for sustainable development of the organization» (in organizational changes)

«Poor articulation of the work between the study cycles and levels of education and teaching, which does not favor the sequentially of learning» (in curricular and pedagogical changes)

«Significant decrease over the three cycles of study of student outcomes in 2006/07, the external proofs of Mathematics - levels tests and examinations (down 14.7 percentage points from the 4th to the 6th year and 31 6 points from 6th to 9th grade) » (in academic results)

Improvement Opportunities:

«Deepening of the process of self-assessment, with the implementation of a monitoring and evaluation plan for improve schools' actions and set the extension to other areas of performance» (in organizational changes)

«Extension of training alternatives in order to respond to the needs of students» (in curricular and pedagogical changes)

«Lack of indicators for internal evaluation of the success of the students» (in academic results)

In 2nd phase of EES, the *weaknesses* were transformed into *improvement opportunities*. In the three categories, only in "curricular and pedagogical changes" the numbers of improvement opportunities are greater (see graphic III).

Graphic III: Coding units by "strengths", "weaknesses" and "improvement opportunities" in 2nd phase of EES
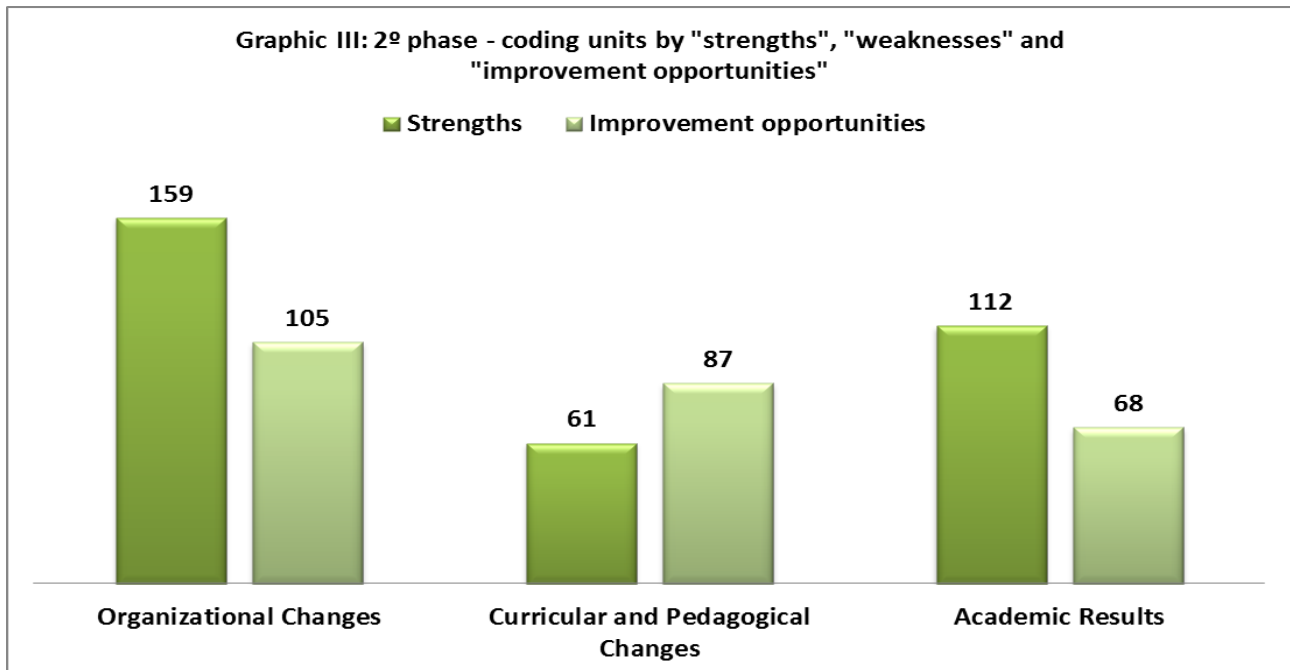
Here are some examples of extracts taken from EES reports in the 2nd phase.

Strengths:

«Cooperation with the City Council and celebration of partnerships and agreements with other entities, with positive impact on the educational service» (in organizational changes)

«Diversity and expression of activities designed to encourage student participation, with a positive impact on the level of education for citizenship and the learning» (in curricular and pedagogical changes)

«Results obtained by the students in national examinations in 9º and 12º year in the discipline of Portuguese / Portuguese and Mathematics» (in academic results)

Improvement Opportunities:

«Monitoring the work of the technical assistants and operational, as well as strengthening the training provided to these professionals, in order to raise their self-esteem and level of work motivation » (in organizational changes)

«The definition and implementation of strategic plans to promote the development of students with learning capabilities above average» (in curricular and pedagogical changes)

«Maintenance and strengthening measures implemented to combat indiscipline in school-based, in order to ensure an environment of tranquility and respect in classrooms» (in academic results)

Within each of these categories, the subcategories were also analyzed. Table 1 lists these units.

Table I: Coding units by "strengths", "weaknesses" and "improvement opportunities" in 1st and 2nd phase.

Organizational Changes	1st phase	Stre.	Weak.	Imp. Opp.	2nd phase	Stre.	Imp. Opp.
Institutional Self-Evaluation	54	7	39	8	52	12	40
Administration and Management Leadership	182	101	75	7	115	75	40
Curricular and Pedagogical Changes	1st phase	Stre.	Weak.	Imp. Opp.	2nd phase	Stre.	Imp. Opp.
Sequentially and Curricular Articulation	44	4	37	3	36	11	25
Monitoring and Supervision of Teaching Practice	37	1	36	0	42	1	41
Academic Results	1st phase	Stre.	Weak.	Imp. Opp.	2nd phase	Stre.	Imp. Opp.
Evolution of external results by levels of schooling and disciple	29	9	20	0	47	17	30
Quality of success	33	14	16	3	21	11	10
School dropout	23	18	4	1	31	26	5

Concerning to *organizational changes*, there are more coding units related to "institutional self-evaluation" in 1st phase, with the majority relating to *weaknesses*. Regarding to *improvement opportunities*, the number is similar in the 2nd phase. The coding units related to "administration and management leadership" are higher in the 1st phase. Both in 1st and 2nd phase, the coding units related do *strengths* are superior.

In *curricular and pedagogical changes*, and regarding to "sequentially and curricular articulation" there are more coding units in 1st phase of EES. The *weaknesses* are superior in the 1st phase and the *improvement opportunities* in 2nd phase. In "monitoring and supervision of teaching practice", there are more coding units in the 2nd phase and the *strengths* are superior.

At last, in Academic Results, and about "evolution of external results by levels of schooling and discipline", there are more coding units in the 2nd phase, which most concerns to *improvement opportunities*. In "quality of success", there are more coding units in the 1st phase and the *weaknesses* are higher. In the 2nd phase, although not very significant, the *strengths* outweigh the *improvement opportunities*. In "school dropout", there are more coding units in 2nd phase, in which the majority is *strengths*, keeping up the trend of the 1st phase.

5   Concluding Remarks

As it was said, this study aimed to analyze what ***effects does generate EES in improving school and curricular organization***. From the treated data it is possible to state that EES is an external factor of school change. Broadly one can conclude that in an organizational perspective Schools are more aware of the importance of self-evaluation and this topic is still an opportunity to improve, namely among schools that were poorly evaluated by GIE reports.

Regarding curricular and pedagogical issues, the look of GIE was a factor of changing practices related to curriculum sequence and articulation. Again, this is a topic that GIE evaluators recommend to improvement. Therefore, one can conclude that the EES is generating qualitative changes in school work and some innovation dynamics.

Among pedagogical issues, teaching supervision was the main topic that was considered a weakness and an opportunity to improve. From 1st to 2nd phase under analysis GIE gave more attention to this particular issue. Concerning to academic results, the descriptor that is more impressive is the evolution of external results. Again GIE evaluators seem to attribute higher attention to the topic at the 2nd phase, which relates with more improved opportunities registered.

Therefore, one can conclude that there is a changing nature of GIE attention in schools evaluation purposes. This could be explained by trends that shape European schools evaluation, to a more external and centralized control of schools action and performance (Kuiper, 2008).

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External School Evaluation in Portugal – a glance at the impacts on curricular and pedagogical practices

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Abstract

Answering demands for an increase of accountability in terms of public education, and intending to lead to an improvement of the quality of education (Conselho Nacional de Educação, 2010), external school evaluation has been taking place in the continental territory of Portugal since 2006. All the schools having been evaluated once, in what is known as the 1st cycle of external evaluation, and a 2nd cycle of external evaluation is underway since 2011.

This paper presents a part of a national project funded by the Foundation for Science and Technology, which aims at identifying and describing the impacts and effects of external school evaluation[1]. We frame external school evaluation as a contribution for the accountability of public service and for the improvement of practices and organizations (Bolívar, 2012). In particular, we will address impacts on pedagogical and curricular practices, inferred from the analysis of the «strengths» and «areas for improvement» identified in the external school evaluation reports of schools which have been evaluated in both cycles of external evaluation.

In order to achieve that, we have carried out a category-based content analysis, using the N-vivo 10 software, over a research *corpus* comprising 40% of all the reports of schools evaluated twice, half of which correspond to the schools with the highest appraisals, and the remaining half to schools with the lowest appraisals.

The results we have found when comparing the areas requiring improvement in the 1st cycle of evaluation, and the strengths found in the 2nd cycle of evaluation, suggest a positive impact of external school evaluation on teachers' curricular and pedagogical practices.

Keywords: External School Evaluation, curricular practices, pedagogical practices.

1. Introduction

The study presented in this communication stems from a larger ongoing research Project: "Impact and Effects of External School Evaluation on non-Higher Education Schools" which intends to uncover how external school evaluation taking place since 2006 has impacted schools. In particular, with this communication we intend to acknowledge curricular and pedagogical changes. In order to do so, our study has focused on schools which have been evaluated twice: in the first cycle of evaluation, which took place between 2006 and 2011 and in the second cycle of evaluation, which started in 2011 and is still underway.

When developing our research, we assumed the following presuppositions:

- External Evaluation (EE) influences the way schools are organized and how they function;
- The «opportunities for improvement» indicated in EE reports are subject to privileged attention from schools;
- EE appreciations focused on «what do we do well?» and «how can we improve?» (Rogers & Williams, 2007) motivate schools to change and improve.

Starting from these assumptions and in order to guide the study we present, we defined the following research questions:

- Which «strengths» are recognized by External School Evaluation (ESE)?

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[1] Project «Impact and Effects of External School Evaluation on non-Higher Education Schools» is funded by the FCT

(PTDC/CPE-CED/116674/2010).

- Which «opportunities for improvement» are pointed out by ESE?
- What evolution has taken place, from the first cycle of ESE to the second, at the level of curricular and pedagogical changes?

Apart from this introduction, the text is structured according to four main topics: a brief background on ESE in Portugal; presentation of the methodology used for the study; presentation and discussion of results; and conclusion.

2. External School Evaluation in Portugal

The concept of quality is subject of intense debate, particularly as it is always contingent on the interests of the ones defining it, as well as their priorities and expectations. This complexity has fundamental implications on how such quality is assessed, and on the models chosen to do so (Coelho, Sarrico & Rosa, 2008), as well as on how the results of such an appraisal are used.

In a context in which more stress has been placed, on the one hand, on school autonomy and on the other, on accountability and responsibility of schools before society, External Evaluation of non higher education schools has been thought of and implemented as a mechanism aiming to respond to those demands. In Portugal, this process has begun in 2006 (CNE, 2010).

We believe that, as one of the main aspects of globalization, homogenization of educational discourses and policies is operated through internationally produced, diffused and affirmed key concepts (Seabra, Morgado, & Pacheco, 2012). Several transnational organizations are relevant to this process, including the OECD, World Bank and European Union. The concept of accountability and centrality which evaluation assumes in its scope, has been one such powerful concept, which has had deep impacts on the Portuguese sphere. Political, institutional and pedagogical forms of regulation stem from this concept. In this context, ESE is placed simultaneously as an instrument for political regulation, as it collects data which informs policy making by the central government, institutional regulation, as it determines, to some extent, what a high quality school is, and pedagogical regulation as it indentifies which objectives, processes and results schools should pursue in a logic of «best practices».

ESE in Portugal was designed to be closely articulated with schools' internal evaluation processes, and with the process of designing autonomy contracts with schools, within a relation between schools, external evaluation and the ministry of education (Oliveira, *et al.*, 2006). As autonomy depends on the processes and results of evaluation, it operated a shift from a regulation based on objectives, norms and principals, to a form of regulation based on processes and results (Fialho, 2009; Pacheco & Seabra, 2013). In effect, ESE can be framed within two main European tendencies: decentralization, and benchmarking, that is, decentralization of means accompanied by results based regulation (Azevedo, 2005).

Underlining aspects related to the quality of practices and results, a self evaluation culture, the capacity of schools to be autonomous, the regulation of the educational system, accountability of schools before society and the implication of the educational community as a whole, ESE has assumed the following objectives:

– To foster a systematic questioning of schools regarding the quality of their practices and results;
- To articulate contributions from ESE with the culture and devices for schools' self evaluation;
- To strengthen schools' capacity for autonomy;
- To contribute to the regulation of the educational system;
- To contribute to a better knowledge of schools and the public service of education, fostering social participation in schools' lives (IGE, 2009: 7).

The process of ESE was coordinated by the General Inspection of Education (later General Inspection of Education and Science), and piloted in the year 2006. The model it assumed during the first cycle of ESE, (2006-2011), during which all schools in the continental territory of Portugal have been evaluated once (Oliveira *et al.*, 2006) is based on a referential portrayed in table 1.

Domains	Factors
1. Results	1.1. Academic success 1.2. Valuing knowledge and learning 1.3. Behavior and Discipline 1.4 Participation and civic development
2. Educational Service	2.1. Articulation and sequence 2.2. Accompaniment of educational practice in the classroom 2.3. Differentiation and support 2.4. Encompassing curriculum and valuing of knowledge and learning
3. School Organization and Management	3.1. Conception, planning and development of activity 3.2. Human Resource Management 3.3. Management of financial resources 3.4. Participation of parents and other elements of the educational community 3.5. Equity and justice
4. Leadership	4.1. Vision and strategy 4.2. Motivation and commitment 4.3. Openness to innovation 4.4.Partnerships, protocols and projects
5. Capacity for self-evaluation and improvement	5.1. Self-evaluation 5.2. Sustainability of progress

Table 1 – Referential of analysis of the 1st cycle of ESE (IGE, 2009).

In practice, ESE is carried out by teams of three elements: 2 inspectors, and an external element, usually a higher education professor, who visit schools for two to three days and gather data based on document analysis, interviews and observation. This team produces a public ESE report.

After the 1st cycle of ESE ended in 2011, the model was readjusted, and its objectives redefined, taking into account the quality schools movement and the European tendencies associating academic results, autonomy, and quality, based on accountability (Seabra, Morgado & Pacheco, 2012), thus centering on academic achievement (Almeida *et al.,* 2011). Changes to the model also addressed the recommendations of the National Council of Education (2010), which included the introduction of an «expected value», close to the idea of a school effect and allows for the framing of students' academic results by considering context variables, and the referential of analysis was simplified, integrating only three domains, each comprising three fields of analysis (Almeida et al., 2011), as expressed in table 2.

Domains	Fields of analysis
Results	Academic results Social results Community recognition
Educational Service	Planning and articulation Teaching Practices Monitoring and evaluation of teaching and learning
Leadership and Management	Leadership Management Self-evaluation and improvement

Table 2 – Referential of analysis of the 2nd cycle of ESE

The redefinition of the objectives of ESE highlighted students' academic achievement and school responsibility:

- To promote the progress of students' learning and achievement, identifying strengths and areas for crucial improvement of schools' work;
- Increasing responsibility at all levels, validating schools' self-evaluation practices;
- Fostering the schools participation in the educational community and local society, offering better knowledge of schools' work;

- Contributing to the regulation of education, endowing educational policy makers and school administrators with pertinent information (IGEC, 2012).

Despite all the debatable aspects we have considered, we believe ESE also contains a strong potential as an elicitor of school change and improvement:

> Even if the purpose of evaluation is conditioned by accountability (Taubman, 2009; Schuetze & Mendiola, 2012), (…) institutional evaluation can never be dissociated from its formative aspect, that is, in the words of Belloni and Belloni (2003), of a transformative and constructive component (Pacheco, Seabra, Morgado & VanHattum, 2012).

It is our assumption that ESE does have consequences for schools, both because the production of a public report may help identify areas for improvement (more recently, leading to the mandatory drafting of a plan for improvement) and because schools, when preparing for evaluation and aiming to obtain better results, strive to approach the model of quality depicted in the ESE referential. Once reports are public, they induce processes of school comparison and impact potential users of the schools' service, creating a quasi-market and producing peer pressure processes, similarly to the process of comparison between countries defined in the Lisbon Strategy for the European level – the open method of coordination (European Council, 2000).

We focused our attention on the documental analysis of ESE reports of both cycles, in order to infer effects and impacts on curricular and pedagogical practices at the evaluated schools, identifying tendencies for change and improvement.

3. Methodology

Data gathering was made from a selection of ESE reports produced in both cycles of evaluation, representing 40% of all schools evaluated twice in the five geographical areas considered by the General Inspection of Education and Science (North, Center, Lisbon and Tejo Valley, Alentejo and Algarve). Half of all reports considered correspond to schools with the highest classifications, and the remaining half to schools with the lowest classifications. 200 reports were analyzed, distributed as described in graphic 1.

North and Center = 104 / North and Center = 104
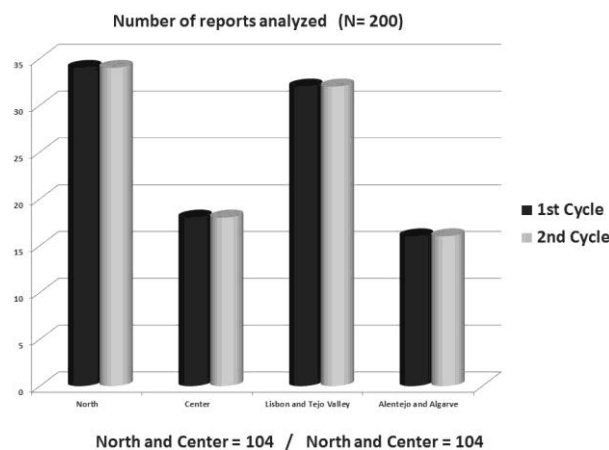
Graphic 1 – Distribution of reports analyzed

The analysis of these reports focused on the Educational Service dimension, namely on the curricular and pedagogical changes observed in schools, and was done by content analysis, using the NVivo 10 software, with predetermined categories, as described in table 3

Categories	Subcategories
Differentiation and pedagogical support	•Special Educational Needs •Cultural Diversity •Others
Accompaniment and supervision of teaching practice	•Lecture/teaching practice observation •Teaching practice observation – Teachers' professional development •Teaching practice observation – Teachers' sharing and reflecting •Teaching practice observation – Improvement of learning/achievement
Curriculum articulation and sequence	•Sequence among teaching levels/courses •Content articulation (vertical and horizontal) •Articulation with the community •Articulation of procedures/practices •Others
Evaluation and assessment of learning	•Criteria •Diversity
Experimental activity	

Table 3 – Categories and subcategories of content analysis – Curricular and Pedagogical changes

4. Results and discussion

The presentation and discussion of results are made taking into account the research questions outlined in the beginning of this text, and the number of references to each of the categories considered in each cycle of ESE.

4.1. Strengths

The number of references to strengths – that is – areas in which the school's performance is deemed of (very) high quality – considered in the reports is included in Graphic 2.

Strengths: % references in the 1st and 2nd cycles of ESE

	1st cycle	2nd cycle	1st cycle	2nd cycle	1st cycle	2nd cycle	1st cycle	2nd cycle
	NORTH		CENTER		LISBON		ALE. & ALG.	
■ Accompaniment and supervision of teaching practice	50%	50%	0%	0%	0%	100%	0%	100%
■ Curriculum articulation and sequence	27%	73%	25%	75%	38%	63%	60%	40%
■ Evaluation of learning - Criteria	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	100%	0%	0%
■ Evaluation of learning - Diversity	50%	50%	0%	100%	20%	80%	0%	0%
■ Differentiation and pedagogical support	49%	33%	47%	38%	35%	65%	63%	38%
■ Experimental Activity	0%	100%	29%	71%	23%	77%	67%	33%

Graphic 2 – Strengths

Data gathered allows us to verify the most referred strength concerns *Differentiation and pedagogical support,* which demonstrates these are solid practices in many schools, which value differences among students and support those with greater difficulties. The number of references to this area is slightly larger in the 1st cycle of ESE, although the difference is not significant. It is also noteworthy that differentiation and pedagogical support, issues concerning special needs are more often referred than cultural diversity – stressing, in this case, strategies for inclusion, equality, equity and social justice – and a several other aspects and actions aiming to optimize the range of educational options, improving learning, reconfiguring teaching practice and curricular enrichment activities.

Next in percentage of references as strengths are *Curriculum Articulation and Sequence* and *Experimental Activity*, central aspects for the development of teaching and learning activities. Data reveals a higher percentage of references to these aspects in the 2nd cycle of ESE (except for the Alentejo and Algarve region) which allows for the inference that many schools have invested in these areas since they were first evaluated. In the case of curriculum articulation and sequence, in order of importance, the following aspects were mentioned: (i) sequence between grades/levels of teaching; (ii) articulation of contents; (iii) articulation of procedures/teaching practices and (iv) articulation with the community. As these references allow us to hypothesize, a clear precedence is given to the cognitive dimension, visible in how contents are sequenced and articulated with one another.

Lastly, the strength in the third position, concerning percentage of references is *Evaluation and Assessment of Learning*, especially referencing diversity of instruments and means of evaluation. We should also clarify that this aspect is not mentioned as a strength in reports from Alentejo and Algarve, and that evaluation with reference to criteria is only referred as a strength in schools of Lisbon and Tejo Valley. Such facts lead to the deduction that, being a structuring dimension of teaching and learning processes, evaluation and assessment are consolidated practices in most schools. Only some ESE teams may have felt the need to underline this dimension, either as a strength or as an opportunity for improvement.

4.2. Opportunities for improvement

The percentage of references to opportunities for improvement – that is, areas onto which schools should direct their efforts for improvement as priorities – in the reports we analyzed, are shown in Graphic 3.

Opportunities for improvement: % references in the 1st and 2nd cycles of ESE

	1st cycle	2nd cycle	1st cycle	2nd cycle	1st cycle	2nd cycle	1st cycle	2nd cycle
	NORTH		CENTER		LISBON		ALE. & ALG.	
■ Accompaniment and supervision of teaching practice	0%	100%	0%	100%	14%	81%	83%	17%
▢ Curriculum articulation and sequence	5%	89%	22%	78%	96%	4%	14%	86%
■ Evaluation of learning - Criteria	0%	50%	0%	50%	0%	100%	0%	0%
■ Evaluation of learning - Diversity	0%	100%	0%	100%	0%	100%	0%	0%
▨ Differentiation and pedagogical support	14%	86%	17%	83%	91%	9%	0%	0%
▢ Experimental Activity	0%	100%	0%	100%	100%	0%	0%	0%

Graphic 3 –Opportunities for Improvement

Among opportunities for improvement, *Curricular articulation and sequence* and *Accompaniment and Supervision of Teaching Practice* are the most frequently referred aspects in the reports we analyzed. In what concerns *curriculum articulation and sequence*, references appear almost exclusively in the second cycle of ESE, with the exception of the Alentejo and Algarve region, where the opposite happens. Aspects mentioned, from the most to the least frequent, were: (i) sequence between grades/levels, (ii) contents articulation (vertical and horizontal), (iii) articulation with the community and (iv) articulation of procedures/ teaching practices. Regarding *accompaniment and supervision of teaching practice*, it is more frequently references in the second cycle of ESE, except for the Lisbon region. In its scope, issues mentioned, from the most to the least frequent were: (i) observation of teaching practice, (ii) observation of teaching practices/classes and its effects on teachers' professional development, (iii) observation of teaching practices/classes as procedure for sharing and reflection by teachers, and (iv) observation of teaching practices/classes related to the improvement of students' achievement and learning.

After the category most referenced in reports, after considering the ones already mentioned, is *Differentiation and pedagogical support.* In the regions of the North and Center, this category is most referenced in the 1st cycle of ESE, however in Lisbon it most mentioned in the 2nd cycle and in Alentejo and Algarve it was never mentioned. When it comes to the investments schools should privilege to improve differentiation and pedagogical support, they concern (i) Special Needs education, in the first place, and (ii) cultural diversity and (iii) pedagogical support for children with lower achievement next.

Areas for improvement also include, ordered from the most frequently mentioned to the least frequently mentioned: *Evaluation and assessment of learning by reference to criteria* and *Evaluation and assessment of learning referencing diversity*, both referenced only in the 2nd cycle and absent in reports from Alentejo and Algarve.

Lastly, the reference to *Experimental Activity*, is expressed differently in each cycle and geographical context: In the North and Center it is only referenced in the 2nd cycle, in Lisbon only in the 1st cycle and in Alentejo and Algarve it is never mentioned.

4.3. Curricular and pedagogical changes

When analyzing the evolution of ***Strengths*** related to curricular and pedagogical changes between cycles of ESE, we verify:

a) *Differentiation and pedagogical support* are the most frequently acknowledged strengths, particularly in schools with the lowest classifications. There are no significant differences between cycles in this regard;

b) *Experimental activity* is significantly more referenced in 2nd cycle reports than in 1st cycle reports, except for Alentejo and Algarve;

c) There is a small increase in references to *Curriculum articulation and sequence* as a strength in the 2nd cycle, except for the reports from Alentejo and Algarve;

d) *Accompaniment and supervision of teaching practice* is referred slightly more frequently in the 2nd cycle in reports from Lisbon and Alentejo and Algarve;

e) Evaluation and assessment of learning, by reference to diversity is more referenced in the 2nd cycle, which is significant particularly in the Center and Lisbon areas.

Regarding the evolution of ***Opportunities for improvement*** concerning curricular and pedagogical changes, we note:

a) *Accompaniment and supervision of teaching practice* and *Curriculum articulation and sequence* are significantly recognized as areas for improvement in the 2nd cycle of ESE, except for Alentejo and Algarve;

b) Although it Is recognized as a strength in many schools, *Differentiation and Pedagogical support* is still referenced as an area for improvement, particularly in the North and Center;

c) *Evaluation and Assessment of learning* – both when considering criteria or diversity – are almost ignored in the 1st cycle but gain expression in the 2nd, except for Alentejo and Algarve.

5. Conclusion

Generally, data have revealed an evolution both of strengths and opportunities for improvement from the 1st to the 2nd cycle of ESE indicative of a positive impact we can consider to emerge from this process of school evaluation. In particular, the analysis of opportunities for improvement the comparative analysis of reports from both cycles allowed us to detect changes within each school, revealing an evolution based on the effects and impacts of external evaluation.

Also noteworthy is the fact that some of the opportunities for improvement pointed out in the 1st cycle of ESE – such as pedagogical differentiation and support and Accompaniment and supervision of teaching practice in several geographical regions – are now acknowledged in the 2nd cycle as strengths, allowing us to infer ESE does have impacts and is capable of producing significant impacts on curricular and pedagogical practices taking place in schools.

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Curriculum and Accountability

Impact and effects of external evaluation in public and private preschools

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Abstract:

The Portuguese law nº31/2002, of 20th December started a new way of seeing education through external evaluation (Stufflebeam, 2003). With an outsider look, an external team started to help public schools to improve their services by pointing their fragilities but also its stronger points leading each school to find a way to self-improve (Sobrinho, 2003).

By the same time, private schools started their own process of evaluation. Different schools are being evaluated by different organizations with similar objectives (but not the same).

In the 2000 decade, external evaluation has become a common procedure in every public school and in consequence preschool education is now far more recognised than before (Pacheco, Seabra, Morgado & van Hattum, 2014). The empirical studies we are undertaking attempt to find out what was the impact of external evaluation in both institutions – public and private. To accomplish this objective we decided for a qualitative study based upon content analysis of documents and interviews (Bogdan & Biklen, 1999). The interviews were made to directors and preschool teachers of public and private schools from S. João da Madeira.

Despite the preliminary results, we can say that external evaluation gave a great contribution to preschool education prominence either in public as in private institution.

If public preschools are pointed as a reference in articulation with other school levels and in curriculum sequence, private schools evaluation leans towards efficiency and accountability criteria.

1. External Evaluation:

Over the last decades of the last century, evaluation assumed crucial importance in many subjects and education was not an exception. Either seen as measure (Tyler, 1949), or a way to decide the merit of something (Scriven, 1967), or in order to produce a judgement (Barbier, 1990; Hadji, 1994) or even with the purpose of collecting information to take decisions (Stufflebeam, 2003; Pacheco, 2002), evaluation has come along with accountability policies but also to help schools to improve themselves, to understand the way they work and to make public the information they gathered.

Most authors defend external evaluation allied to internal evaluation in order to respond to the complex challenges faced by schools. There are plenty of ways to evaluate schools but most of the models turn to indicators that put into practice a concept of quality supposedly measurable and easy to be compared (Stake, 2006). Indicators bonded to efficiency by students results (Pacheco, 2013), answering to the responsibility of giving information and observe if everything is according to established central rules.

Now, standard results lean towards measurable and summative evaluation neglecting formative aspects, as the context or the process.

Although transnational politics tend to regulate knowledge and its forms of evaluation and, if we accept school evaluation as a systematic investigation conducted by the school, for the school and the needs of its community

(Sanders & Davidson, 2003), then, evaluation should be based upon a dialogue between schools, teachers, principals and community members.

There are many models to evaluate schools but, we will focus upon the Portuguese reality in public and private establishments, with special care for preschool education.

2. The evaluation of public and private schools in Portugal:

In Portugal, different historical moments helped to develop two different types of preschool establishments: public and private. While the first highlight education issues, private schools emphasise more the social needs of the families. Among other consequences, they evaluate themselves, differently.

The Portuguese model, introduced in 2006 in the public system, after some changes in 2011, focuses evaluation in three domains: results, educative service and leadership and management.

IGEC (General Inspection of Education and Science) model, in both cycles (2006, 2011), didn't take in consideration the specification of preschool education during external evaluations, nevertheless teachers are eared and participate in the same way as teachers of the other school levels.

Schools and assembled schools are advised by self-evaluation. External evaluation tends to be complementary to internal evaluation, a different perspective that helps schools to find the better way to self-improve. However this can also be a clear sign of politic tendencies for accountability and social responsibility.

On the other hand private schools started sooner their own internal evaluation as they needed to justify the payments and the advantages of their services. They had to prove their quality of services by providing solid data to parents or to other interested members of the community (the stakeholders).

More recently private schools also started different external evaluation processes according to the different organisms they respond. The most common depends on Social Security that has its own evaluation model based on the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) model. Nevertheless, IGEC also surveys their work relying on DGESTE (General Delegations of School Establishments) to confirm if, both private and public preschools are walking in the same direction.

Our investigation intention was to find out the impact of the external evaluation in public and private preschool establishments and if preschool education is now more recognised and respected, not only by other teachers but also by educational community and society.

3. Methodology

To answer this questions we proposed a qualitative study based upon interviews (Ghiglione & Matalon,1997) and document analyses (Santos Guerra, 2003), respecting all ethical advises given by Bogdan e Bicklen (1994).

The documents analysed were the reports of IGECs evaluation on two grouped schools from S. João da Madeira, located in Aveiro district, the two mainly reports of IGEC (2006, corresponding the term of the first external evaluation cycle and 2012, corresponding to the first report of the second cycle) and finally the document that supports private preschools evaluation surveyed by social security institute – QUAL (Quality evaluation model in day nurseries).

The interviews were made to four school directors (two from the public grouped schools and other two from private preschools) but also to twelve preschool teachers: four from public schools (two from each grouped schools) and four from private schools (one from each private preschool existing in S. João da Madeira).

The documents and interviews were then analysed using content analysis (Esteves, 2006) choosing the major questions as a form of categorization.

All inferences were made according to the accomplished results.

4. Results:

The preliminary results of our research point to different effects in these two realities. In private schools the process seems to be more systematic, continuous and formal. Public schools are evaluated each four years and preschool evaluation tends to be diluted in the other cycles of school except in social results, curricular articulation, parenthood and community participation.

Private preschools show more complete documents with more systematic data as its partners in public schools are more occasional, usually preceding external evaluation by IGEC members.

But, preschool teachers in public establishments point out that, since external evaluations they are more recognised by the other members of the social group. It can also be because now they belong to decision structures and are more involved with the grouped schools dynamics.

Private school teachers also make out more social gratitude of their work from parents and community, but not in the same terms, that is, public preschools still are pointed as the best schools to learn and private schools better to fulfil their social needs of caring.

5. Conclusions:

Schools are no longer just a place where we acquire knowledge. Schools face new problems since the last decades of the XX century. More students, new society need for qualifications, equal rights for everybody brought schools and teachers new challenges.

The new economic politics defend school autonomy as a way to reduce costs and apply more social responsibility upon schools and teachers. It's a new age for Portuguese schools – the accountability age. Autonomous schools have now the obligation to answer to society by providing information and data that justify their results and the way they are managing public money. And the best way to reach that goal is through self-evaluation. All the school members should be involved in its process – teachers, students, parents, educational community, and other interested members of society. As they are the best to respond about the school, they must gather efforts to improve it and then be prepared to confront external inspection (Clímaco, 2010).

But external evaluation has its effects. Pacheco *et al* (2014) point administrative, curricular and pedagogical effects. But in Portugal these effects are insignificant. It is still missing an evaluation culture. It's time to change mentalities of teachers and school directors in order to prove evaluation as the best way to achieve success, improvement and quality.

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The impacts and effects of external evaluation of schools on the structure of intermediate level of management

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Abstract: Nowadays, all the countries of the world are worried about the performance of their schools and how to make them more effective, enhance quality and raise standards of achievement. So, in the last years, a steady change has been occurring in schools. Demands for higher quality, more efficiency, as well as, pressure for more accountability has been slowly increasing. The role of leadership has been found as a positive and important response in dealing with all of these pressures. The link between leadership and improvement is hardly new and, given the complexity of schools, the principal cannot be viewed as the only responsible for the changes because "an effective team can accomplish more than what is possible through individual efforts" (Zepeda, 2004, p. 65)

This communication results of a master degree on Curriculum Development and it's attached on an investigation project called "External evaluation of schools" (FCT – PTDC/CPE-CED/116674/2010) led by Minho's University.

We pretend, in this communication, to analyse key concepts as: accountability, quality, leadership and efficiency linking them with the external evaluation of schools in Portugal. For that we will use a quantitative and qualitative (Bodgan & Biklen, 1994), approach. As techniques of data gathering we also use interviews, inquiries and documental analysis.

Evaluation of schools

The pressure to produce an evaluation of public services, including schools, has beginnings and different logics that can't reduce the assessment to a "technical dimension" because it holds political, social and economic "views, interests and expectations" (Azevedo, 2005). The ultimate goal of this pressure is to modify and make more effective public management systems and to seek a quality of service that reflects a society oriented towards knowledge-based economy.

The evaluation of schools is a task tend conflicted because schools are organizations. When you shake this power, the evaluation will interfere with the interests, motivations, and ultimately create conflicts. Despite the difculties that can be created by the evaluation of schools, this is a justified need because of the reverence by society of efficiency, quality and accountability.

Increasingly more, schools understand evaluation as a tool essential as an improvement procedure and progress strategy, developing self-evaluation procedures or asking for external evaluations. Azevedo (2005, p. 22) sees the institutional assessment as an advantage because it "enhances teacher skills, the desire for achievement and need for improvement of teaching practices, the development of an ethic marked by responsibility and care, fostering" professionals communities" in schools.

Accountability

Current policies are created to measure, judge and improve the performance of schools, blaming them responsible to external standards. Accountability is presented, as a worldwide movement linked to schools and public institutions as a philosophy of transparency towards public authorities that support them (Alaiz, Gois & Gonçalves, 2003). We live in a time of assessment, accountability, results and indicators, as well as an age of surveillance media, always eager to share the results.

In Portugal, one can't deny the existence of a discussion on the subject, nor the increasing attention given to this issue. The discussion about accountability becomes especially intense when assessment practices produce reforms that influence schools, such as standardized testing and broadcasting of tables ordered schools classified according to the results obtained (rankings). Accountability can be seen as a justification of what is done, how it is done and how, implying, in most cases a development of a form of assessment (Afonso, 2011). Since 2001, the results of external examinations are the support for schools rankings that are then released to the public giving rise to many debates about its relevance and the social and educational use.

The policies of accountability are seen by some critics "as a mechanical and intrusive control, which prevents professionals of expressing their creativity and a sense of responsibility and threatens the most important educational values" (Barzanò, 2009, p. 75).

Quality

The majority of the institutions want quality to be associated with all that is built and schools as organizations are no exception. The fight against illiteracy, democratization and mass expansion of education, the extension of compulsory education as well as social problems, which eventually became school problems, put the education system under pressure. Therefore, in recent years, the concern of governments in relation to quality education has been showed in their initiatives. The universal economic crisis and its results, namely, unemployment and technological changes have led to questions about the capacity of schools in promoting appropriate training to new realities and labor needs.

The idea that everything can be measured has been gaining ground in everyday life and, in spite of, the discussion about the quality of education is not something new, the importance and complexity that the education system acquired intensified it (Clímaco, 1992). Assess the quality of something always implies a set of tools that allows us to compare something. Stake and Schwandt (2008) state that distinguish the quality is always a matter of expectation and comparison, and the comparison is critical. Stoll and Fink (2002, p. 168) say that the key words to use when it comes to judging quality of a school should promote

"self-accountability translatable into wider accountability – teachers and principals need to know they make a difference to their pupils'   progress, development and achievement, provide useful indications of what works well and what needs to be improved; guarantee equal opportunities for all pupils; determine trends in schools' effectiveness and improvement over time; lead to further development".

Effectiveness / Efficiency

Stoll and Mortimore (1997, p.9) argue that" the last decade has seen a burgeoning of interest in the twin fields of school effectiveness and school improvement by politicians, policy-makers and practitioners". In Portugal, policymakers have become more absorbent to a speech focused on the values of efficiency, which has been gaining supporters among the structures of management and administration of schools, externally pressured by public opinion or by the families, to become more effective and everlastingly improving organizations.

Bolivar (2003, p. 39) states that the effective school is one that is "focused on cognitive outcomes of students". To Gois and Alves (2005, P. 21) the effective school is one that "has achieved its goals with a great maximize resources, whether material or human" while Stoll and Fink (2002) consider that an effective school is the one that

"promotes progress for all its pupils beyond what would be expected given consideration of initial attainment and background factor; ensures that each pupil achieves the highest standards possible; enhances all aspects of pupils achievement and development; continues to improve from year to year".

Leadership

Today the study of leadership is on the agenda because an organization, be it a business or a school, is much more efficient and productive the better is their leader. For policymakers effective leadership can be seen as the key to solving many of the problems that the school faces (Riley & McBeath, 1998). Leaders are largely responsible for the success or failure of an organization and are seen as agents of changing.

More recently, Bolivar (2012) refers to the existence of an ideal leadership called "distributed leadership." This type of leadership recognizes that different people can be sources of influence on different occasions, in other words "governance in education presupposes that leadership is not a hierarchical monopoly and recognizes that leadership must be understood as an emergent quality in an organization" (Bolivar, 2012, p.73). The ability to change depends not on top, but in a diluted and distributed leadership.

The effectiveness (results) and efficiency (procedures) leadership represent the ultimate goal of any leader and, according to Yukl (1989), there are criteria that can be used for measuring the "quality" of the leader. Effective leadership is making choices and accommodates them between the outside world and the inner world of school. According to Whitaker (1999), the leader must learn to hear the ideas and suggestions of others and show his, matching a posture of kindness and firmness, in other words, efficiency in organizations depends on the activation of proper leadership whenever appropriated.

It is the responsibility of the leadership to change the culture of the school and the need to mobilize groups, aiming to "rip" the habits and usual ways and replacing individualism by collectivism.

Intermediate leadership in Portugal

The educational leadership is influenced by various fields, especially the business field, but the ultimate challenge for an educational leader relates to guiding educational organizations to success and efficiency. This conception of leadership presumes the idea of a change in which the leader is seen as the one able to solve the problems set by the school.

Today, leadership in schools can be divided into top and intermediate leaderships and in this paper we analyze the intermediate leadership which is essential for the proper functioning of schools. We can define three levels of management: institutional management (principal), middle management (department coordinators, class directors, etc.) and operational management (teachers and school employees), in other words, the intermediate leaders are teachers who hold positions of coordination and guidance in school and have a seat on the pedagogical council.

The review of the legislation has shown us that the middle management positions have evolved over the years but always keeping its ultimate goal which is to be the "bridge" between the teachers and the pedagogical council. The structures of middle management are fundamental to the process of school improvement, since they are responsible for the implementation strategies that promote changing, as well as the involvement of teachers in decision-making. However, Diogo (2004, p. 268) states until recently coordinators only "emphasized aspects of bureaucratic and administrative oriented, rather they print new ways and new paths for their schools."

The intermediate leadership are fundamental keys to changing of practices leading to better schools because the groups they represent are of the extreme importance in school organization, while at the same time, they regulate the quality of education and teaching. The middle management's role has evolved over the years and has become increasingly demanding by assignment of more powers and responsibilities. In addition to coordinating the pedagogical practice of teachers and representing them in the pedagogical council, the intermediate leadership is the mentor of less experienced teachers and evaluates department colleagues. We must not forget that even in the pedagogical assemblies they are distributed among the different work sections that comprise the pedagogical council. It also competes to middle management to coordinate and stimulate teamwork because as stated by Bolivar (2003, p. 2) "the educational changes that aim to have a real impact on school life, will have to be generated from within." So it depends on the middle management to stimulate change and its ability to make decisions and how they shall function.

Methodology

Taking into account the process of external evaluation of schools, which is being implemented since 2006, the importance and relevance assume by these intermediate structures of management in the organization and operation of schools, it seemed to us pertinent to understand the extent to which we can verify a direct impact of this type of level evaluation into the intermediate structures of management, namely the coordination of departments and the direction of class, as well as its effects. To this end, we formulated three research objectives i) characterize the impact of external evaluation at the level of middle management, ii) identify the impacts and effects of external evaluation on organizational, curricular and pedagogical levels and iii) analyze the impacts and effects of external assessment on organizational, curricular and pedagogical levels.

To collect data we use a semi-structured individual interview, focus groups, a questionnaire survey and documental analysis. The individual interview (n = 1) was done to the manager of the self-assessment team, the focus group (n = 5) happened with the collaboration of intermediate management of the different departments (Language, Expressions, and Social Humanities, Sciences and Class manager), the questionnaire survey (n = 52) was applied to all the teachers of the school cluster.

The semi-structured individual interviews, the group discussion (semi-structured), the questionnaire survey and documental analysis were instruments of data gathering because it seemed to us the most efficient way to collect the necessary data. It is noted that both the investigation and the scripts of the interviews were developed from scratch. The various instruments used allowed us to understand the reality of the school as a whole (case study).

For the data gathering to happen, we informed the school board about the objective of the thesis, the intention to study the external evaluation process occurred at school and find out what the impact and the effects resulting from that evaluation. We were told that we needed to formalize the study through an authorization request addressed to the Ministry of Education. The request was made, authorized and it was given knowledge of that to the board of school with the delivery of a copy of the documentation submitted. After these procedures we contacted the people we were interested to interview and scheduled an appointment. With regard to the survey, all the teachers at the school's headquarters were informed about the survey through the Pedagogical Council, and it was applied to 56 teachers. Notice that the questionnaire at school headquarters was preceded by a pre-test, conducted in two different cities and schools, which resulted in suggestions and corrections.

Results

The results we have chosen to present concern to data obtained by conducting a group discussion involving all department coordinators of the headquarters' school. Asked about the possibility of relating the process of external evaluation with the commitment of the coordinators, they answered:

Interviewed 1	**"Let's say there is more commitment from the perspective to accompany the PAR team, to respond to requests, to be informed about what you're doing";** **"It didn't increased our commitment ... directed our activity".**
Interviewed 3	"There weren't the inspectors who came to say how we should do our work. (…) Now, they gave us suggestions to improve and we accepted"; "I didn't increase commitment. Maybe the improvement in the role".
Interviewed 5	More attentive.

Figure 1 – Answers from the focus group

The intermediate managers refer that external evaluation increased articulation within the department "one of the things was to better capitalize the pedagogical aspects, leaving the information up because the information is often posted" (interviewed 3).

One of the questions made related to the relationship between the top and the intermediate leadership. They answered that the external assessment helped the relationship (interviewed 5) but at the same time they maintain that they still do their function because "they are the bridge between the top leadership and the teachers" (interviewed 4).

When asked about the increase of teachers' contribution on the department meetings relating that with the external evaluation, they considered that they aren't related. Interviewed 4 also mentioned that on her department "teachers always work for the best academic results possible" but she can't relate that fact with the process of external evaluation.

Conclusions

The readings that we did throughout this master degree made clear that external evaluation has been essential to the development of schools as organizations and has played an important role in the consolidation of the self-assessment process. Although not a consensual process and responsible for internal stresses which cause anxiety within schools, external evaluation reveals itself as essential to improvement.

The results of the study show that external evaluation has an impact although there isn't consensus about the effects caused by the process. The analysis of the answers given by the intermediate managers' show that it has an impact on the daily life of school but, at the same time, they demonstrate that they still do what they used to do, however, they are more attentive to the results.

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The curriculum of music education specialist face to accountability: ambiguities, standardization and singularities

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The curriculum in specialized music teaching is faced with a double referentiality. On one side, a rationality situated between the history of the artistical and musical disciplines, and the contemporaneity, between and individualization of formative, artistic and pedagogical work, and its integration in varying dimensions, different temporalities and geographies, as well as production, realization and public presentation of learning. On the other, rationality on the pary of the state, centered on the hegemony of a particular curriculum model, based on the "model school" starring the affirmation of an education system and curriculum "unified and coherent." (Vasconcelos, 2002; Fernandes, 2006.)

This duality of curricular rationality generates multiple ambiguities, incoherences and paradoxes, but also generates virtualities that not always are contemplated in the external evaluation processes on which predominates an intencionality, not of construction of singularities, but of an uniformization of curricular and political-formative procedures.

In this context, based on a qualitative methodology (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992), through techniques of data collection focused on interviews with directors of public conservatories (n = 6) and document analysis of reports of external evaluation (n = 6) drawn up in the first cycle (2006-2011), this paper presents preliminary data from a research work in progress entitled "external evaluation in specialized music teaching. A case study. " he preliminary results, understood from a theoretical board of the external evaluation of schools, permit, on one side, to perceive the ambiguities, the rationalities and the procedures, attending to the preliminary data that reveal that the external evaluation has a direct effect on the school's (Pacheco et al, 2013) internal reorganization process, requiring from all actors the same procedures with a view to curricular and organizational uniformity, on the other, to point out the

uniqueness of the curricular models and the necessary adaptation to external evaluation models that can assess and sustain these singularities.

1. The specialised teaching of music as a composite and interdependent field

The specialised teaching of music is a composite, reticular and complex field situated at the crossroads between the worlds of education and training and the worlds of arts and culture. This dual referentiality, covers differentiated and fragmented methods, territories and purposes, and the types of knowledge that addresses are more technical, creative or investigative. In this composite field education and training it is not only played in the spaces and times of the school but in multipolar territories in which interact a variety of public and private actors and of a third sector (national, local and international) in a variety of networks of meaning and where they confront and complement visions, knowledge and experiences.

From the point of view of the curriculum and artistic-pedagogical policies, the education and the specialized training is characterised by the interconnection between different types of knowledge: knowledge of a technical nature (according to specific instruments in presence); knowledge related with interpretation (supported in art history and music history); knowledge related to the creation and experimentation (supported in the analysis and understanding of different works), knowledge related to creativity (supported in foster the divergent thinking grounded in the thorough knowledge of various areas of technological, scientific and artistic know-how), knowledge related to the reference political, social , historical , cultural contexts; knowledge related to public presentation, with the construction of a performance, with consequent differences in terms of communicability with the different audiences to which it is addressed, with the production and dissemination .

Policies with different settings of interdependencies between (a) schools, the state and administration, (b) educational and training institutions, (c) training and cultural and musical policies; (d) teachers with differentiated visions of the profession, (e) the local and the transnational (f) the composite and intermittent character of the artwork (Vasconcelos, 2011), which in one hand intersect and confront different types of dominants, situated between functionalist perspectives, homogeneous, proactive, collaborative, and on the other hand, modes of coordination of the curriculum and organizational policies that fall between two tension poles between canonical and ecological referents (Vasconcelos , 2012) .

In these complexities, interactions and differentiated interdependencies, the diversity of actors and referents converge in the construction, implementation and evaluation of curriculum and organizational policies, such as public action induces new rules in which the principles of verticality and linearity of the processes are replaced by horizontal and circularity of interdependencies and the interactions of the different actors in the processes of policy making (Barrroso et al., 2007;

Delvaux, 2007; Lascoumes & Le Gales, 2004) leading to the processes of internal and external evaluation that are hardly comparable with bureaucratizing and standardizing models.

2. Assessment and accountability in education and teaching

Assessment and accountability in education and teaching arise, on one hand, from the complexities of educational systems and their suitability to societies in which they are inserted, and on the other hand, on the relevance of building tools that enable the understanding, analysis and evaluation of processes and procedures in the context of policy decisions, internal and external, to the different parameters of the work done by schools and their professionals.

The concept of "accountability " has become indispensable in the policies of almost all education systems, in order to put the responsability in the elements of the educational community for organizational improvement. This perspective is part of the so-called knowledge-sharing policies, or travelers policies, whose principles are identical in all countries , despite the contexts in which they are applied (Stani – Khamasi, 2012). Such policies, often faceless, but with well-defined and standardized processes, characterize the school as a social reality that produces results, driven by previously defined criteria based on measuring quality by the exellence of the results.

Indeed, the different transformations and reconfigurations of the role of the state, the predominant meritocratic and management trends lead that it can be distinguish two major trends in the context of the assessment and accountability.   On one hand, the external evaluation of schools is thus considered a component of a more general evaluation process of accountability and responsibility of all who are embedded in the social processes of decision, being oriented to the evaluation of results and giving the evaluation process a more summative than formative component. It is based on key concepts like, quality, effectiveness and efficiency, in which OCDE (2012) perspectives the external evaluation of schools from a perspective of accountabilty, in order to put the responsability in the elements of the educational community for organizational improvement .

On the other hand, despite the diversity of models and practices (Stufflebeam, 2003), the external evaluation of schools has aims and purposes consistent with the organizational improvement and with satisfaction of the educational community. Having this in mind Sanders and Davidson (2003) argue that the evaluation of schools, beyond the results has its fundamental purpose in the formative dimension, including the practices of teacher professional development, the practices of organizational decision and the learning practices. This reasoning is consistent with what Sobrinho defends (2003) for evaluating schools that is based essentially in institutional parameters .

The theory of the external evaluation considers that the evaluation has two essential components when reported to an institution or organization: the internal dimension or self-evaluation and the external

evaluation or hetero, being the first responsibility of the school and the second of the educational administration.

In the Portuguese case, the model of external evaluation of schools falls on evaluation experiences with high formative purposes (Clímaco, 2011). After a systematization of international models and publication of regulations that make it mandatory in the Portuguese educational system (Decree -Law n . º 30/2002 of 20 December) its effectiveness is attributed to the Inspection, which is in accordance with the majority of the European practices.

The external evaluation aims and uses well-defined and standardized processes, which characterize the school as a social reality that produces results, guided by previously defined criteria based on measured quality by the excellence of the results. Thus, the external evaluation of schools is considered a component of a more general evaluation process of accountability and responsibility of all who are embedded in the social processes of decision, being oriented to the evaluation of the results, giving the evaluation process a more summative than formative component, even if it is an option that can also be criticized by international organizations.

3. Research Methodology

The study, which is part of the preparation of a dissertation at the University of Minho, is part of the research project on the external evaluation of schools, funded by the Foundation for Science and Technology, intending to analyze the impact of the external evaluation in the expertise teaching of music.

Through a qualitative approach (Bogdan & Bikle , 1999), consisting of interviews with the directors of conservatories (n = 6) and document analysis of the reports of the external evaluation (n = 6), prepared in the first cycle (2006-2011) of the external evaluation, the data are analyzed using content analysis (Esteves , 2006)

We conducted a content analysis to the reports of the external evaluation of the specialised teaching of music in Portugal, taking into account the five categories and factors that were the target of the evaluation reports in External Assessment, conducted by IGEC: Results, Provision of educational service, Organization and school management, Leadership and capacity of self- regulation and improvement of School .
The interviews were analyzed using four categories of analysis: the external evaluation of schools, measures and procedures of the Conservatories after the external evaluation of schools and the impact and effect of the external evaluation in schools.

4. The specialised teaching of music and evaluation: preliminary results

From the combined analysis of external reports and interviews with the principals of specialized schools of music, and in the context of a

comprehensive, analytical and preliminary interpretative work, we present some results of the on going research. They are organized around three main topics: (a) the missions and educational projects in schools, (b) the curriculum policies and their management, and (c) the external evaluation and its impact.

Missions and educational projects in schools

The different ways as we face the missions and educational projects in schools enrol a dual perspective. On one hand, all Conservatories are concerned with the involvement of students in the plan of activities, claiming that the whole school community is involved in the sense of belonging to the school. *From this policy results that students internalize the culture of the Conservatory , focused on sharing and creativity.* (RAECMP).

Also the history and the institutional memory is, for some institutions, a determinant factor in their educational and artistic setting. As mentioned in one of the reports, there are schools in which *the history of the Conservatory and its role in specialized teaching of music constituted regarding guidelines for the design of the Educational Project.... In obedience to this general orientation there were prepared other documents guiding namely the educational activities, the class curriculum projects and the Annual Action Plan.* (RAECMP)

All Conservatories give importance to the conduct and discipline of their students , always trying to create a learning environment appropriate for learning and student motivation: *a good educational environment and climate, visible in the behavior of disciplined students and in the good relationship between them and their teachers and other workers, in which prevails mutual respect and compliance, are a striking and distinctive feature of the Conservatory.* (RAECMB)

According to the external evaluation reports, most conservatories have a clear vision of its mission, having *a strategy, consistent with this view and that is expressed in its guidance documents which are subject to completion with actionable goals and objectives*. (RAECMB) Again, the Conservatory with *the lowest rating was pointed by the absence of quantified targets for success which is not conducive to improving professionals' expectations about the results, or guides their work accordingly...* (RAECMA).

On the other hand, it exists the idea of forming specialized musicians and a competitive market in which they could be enrolled; local, national and international competition appears as one of the strategic missions of the schools' projects.

Indeed, when considering that the specialized education is a competitive environment in which students need to be in constant contact with the professional reality so that they can acquire skills and habits in their learning and they can improve their musical-artistic perfecting. The Directors of the Conservatories stress that the national and international competitions' awards (E2) should be part of the documents to deliver to the external evaluation team, as well as the portfolio of the activities (E1), including the results of the Orchestra of the Conservatories (E4), so to demonstrate the quality and effectiveness of music teaching in the arts.

This idea of competition, which is combined with educational success, is also mentioned in the report when it is stated that there is a concern of schools *to stimulate and enhance the success of students, which is materialized in the awards ceremony, and the dissemination of their work together with the community*. (RAECMP).

Curriculum policies and their management

The curriculum of this type of education and training, being a determination of the central power, presents nevertheless some ambiguities considering that the existing government programs are predominantly from the 70s of the last century, which contributes to the fact that the role of schools and teachers is determinant in its adaptation and/or development and its implementation.

Regarding the first aspect, *in the scope of the curriculum and enhancement of knowledge and learning*, these schools provide students with *a diversity of educational provision and a variety of instruments taught* (RAECMA) containing a curriculum *that includes social and cultural initiatives, enhancement of practical professional knowledge and promotion of a favorable attitude to the scientific method*. (RAECMB) It is clear the concern that these schools have in enhancing the knowledge of learning , creating different ways to do this such as: *... the awards ceremony and the dissemination of their work together with the community* (RAECMP) *; concert in striking and festive dates, recording of all the recitals , the participation of soloists students in performances of the North Orchestra* (RAECMB), among many others . There is a strong concern in the development of a culture of professionalism , and demanding accountability *by conducting auditions and concerts held at national level, as well as initiatives that contribute to the formation of future musicians, for their socio-learning integration and involvement and strengthening interpersonal relationships.* (RAEIGL)

However, there is at least one case of a conservatory that was assigned classification sufficient, there were made some critics, such as: *the Educational Project does not mention the curricular organization underlying the taught courses and their adaptation to the characteristics and needs of students , so this isn't a reference of action for the individual and collective planning by teachers , nor promotes links with regular schools*. In addition, it is also noticed that *the management of school times, assigned to training aids, does not obey to the criteria targeted mainly in the disciplines of less success.* (RAECMA)

As regards the second aspect, the articulated and joint management of programs and curriculum guidelines are addressed *in the curricular departments, being the horizontal curricular articulation depths on the boards of the respective class and class curriculum projects.* (RAECMB) Since *there are no national curriculum guidelines and the existing ones are outdated* (RAECNL), *the various departments do the program management of the disciplines that integrate them being the programs, in some cases , prepared in School*. (RAECNL)

On the other hand, in Conservatories *there are not instituted systematic practices of classroom observation* (RAECMB), *existing monitoring devices and monitoring of curriculum development at the level of curricular departments and boards of class.* (RAECMB). At the Conservatory of Porto, *the teaching practices of Instrument teachers are*

scrutinized by parents that may be present in these classes. (RAECMP) At the Conservatory of Aveiro they defined *evaluation criteria, self - assessment of students, the application of internal uniform testing moments and periodic hearing assessements* (RAECMA) that help to promote confidence in the internal evaluation.

According to the reports, all conservatories have *a thorough understanding of personal and professional skills of teachers, which allows the optimization of the human resources management* (RAECMP), and by this way it also allows to delegate in teachers much of the responsibility of the curriculum policies and its management.

External evaluation and its impact

We interviewed the six Directors of Music Conservatories, emphasizing that 50 % of respondents consider that the external evaluation model is not suited to the specificities of the Conservatories of Music, and the remaining 50 % have doubts, since the model is flexible and can be appropriate in the face of reality.

Regarding the fact that the external evaluation of schools is considered a key instrument for the quality of music teaching, only two of the respondents think that "music education will certainly benefit from it (E2), two others are reluctant to the idea and the rest has no opinion on this question. This is supported by the OCDE report (2012) which points as a weakness the insufficient quality and effectiveness of teaching and learning, focusing too much the external evaluation of schools on documents and on the processes of management and administration, putting aside the lack of observing lessons.

Respondents highlight positive aspects the external evaluation, emphasized the flexibility of the evaluators with the specificities of these schools and remembered the need for schools to reflect on themselves, owning up monitoring mechanisms of student learning and self-assessment. As for the negative aspects, the Directors considered that the organization of Conservatories is very specific, not including various documents and forms of organization provided as general education schools. For another Director (E4), the statistics of results made in Conservatories, while schools that promote culture, cannot be performed in the same way the general education schools, having other ways of measuring success, effectiveness and quality. All respondents corroborate the need for flexibility and fit the parameters of external evaluation facing the reality of Conservatories .

Regarding the impact of assessment within the institutions it can be noticed that the majority of managers consider positive, since it was possible to reflect, share and discuss in school. All institutions continued with the implementation of an improvement plan for the school, creating or otherwise supporting the self-assessment teams. Some schools had already have a self-assessment team, the Music Conservatory Calouste Gulbenkian of Braga *recently constituted, a team of self -assessment, which collected and systematized information on the results obtained in the last school year.... it was not set another task*. (RAECMB) Other schools didn't have a self-assessment team yet, or established practices of reflection and dissemination of the results of self-assessment, needing urgently to implement improvement plans.

Regarding the impact of AEE in the teachers of these schools, although there are still some teachers - artists who resist membership of an equalitarian system , not sharing the ideals of teaching and learning in teaching, there are also the new teachers that begin to be receptive to new pedagogies and new educational policies, that percieve the report as an important tool for the growth and enhancement of the institution.

The impact on the educational community is not significant, existing nothing to register unless the parent's contentment to realize that their children belong to an institution recognized by the outside.

5. Final thoughts

Since this work is still at a preliminary stage there are three main ideas that emerge from the results: the external evaluation has a direct effect on the school's internal reorganization process (Pacheco et al, 2013), requiring from all actors the same procedures with a view to curricular and organizational uniformity, and on the other hand, it points out the uniqueness of the curricular models and the necessary adaptation to external evaluation models that can assess and sustain these singularities.

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THEME 3

HIGHER EDUCATION - CURRICULAR CHALLENGES

Student Experiences in Undergraduate Anatomy: An Exploration of Inquiry Learning as an Authentic Experience

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Abstract

Traditionally, anatomy courses have consisted of didactic lectures that present a myriad of anatomical terms to students (Sugand, Abrahams & Khurana, 2010). Students have often approached this material with surface learning techniques that encourage rote learning and recall of disconnected facts (Pandey & Zimitat, 2006). Anatomy education has thus been challenged to develop contemporary approaches to teaching and learning with an aim to move beyond factual recall to elicit from students meaningful and deep understandings of the discipline (Hermiz, O'Sullivan, Lujan & DiCarlo, 2011). Inquiry-based learning (IBL) is one such pedagogy that involves student's active and increasingly independent investigation of questions and problems that are of interest to them (Lee, 2012). This paper presents an inquiry-based curriculum for a large second-year undergraduate course in anatomy. It argues that inquiry curriculum encourages learners to draw upon wider contexts for learning. The paper draws on a Theory of Authentic Learning (Hill & Smith, 2005a; 2005b) that acknowledges the need for learner's to orient and constitute meanings from contexts that align with their personal histories, beliefs, and perceptions. Initial finding from a hermeneutic phenomenological investigation of students' experiences are presented, demonstrating how this curriculum took learners beyond surface learning techniques to deeply and meaningfully explore anatomy in context of their own interests and experiences.

Keywords: undergraduate education; anatomy education; inquiry-based learning; authentic learning; curriculum studies.

1   Introduction

Anatomy is the study of the form and function of the human body. Anatomy courses have been increasingly offered at the pre-professional undergraduate level to a variety of students such as those in health sciences, basic sciences, and biology disciplines. Traditionally, anatomy courses have consisted of didactic lectures that present a myriad of anatomical terms to students (Sugand *et al*., 2010), and have treated content as being external to the learner – there to be discovered and mastered. Students often approach this material with surface learning techniques, that is, techniques that encourage rote learning and knowledge of disconnected facts. For example, Pandey and Zimitat (2006) characterized students' approaches to learning anatomy as relying heavily on strategies such as memorization, mnemonics, and repetition to learn the material. Anatomy education has increasingly adopted a range of contemporary approaches with an aim to move beyond factual recall to elicit from students meaningful and deep understandings of the discipline. Pedagogies such as problem-based learning (Cowin *et al*., 2010; Langlois *et al*., 2009) and inquiry-based learning (Brown, 2010; Lee, Anstey & MacKenzie, 2012) have been utilized. Overall, these pedagogies aim to extend learning beyond the content itself by providing a wider context for knowledge application; each promote the development of wider skills such as critical thinking and lifelong learning skills.

1.1   Inquiry-based learning

Inquiry-based learning refers to a wide range of strategies and practices that promote learning through question- or problem-driven investigation. Key elements of IBL include learning as driven by questions (Eick, Meadows & Balkcom, 2005; St. Clair, 2007), learning through the engagement of scientific inquiry (Abrams *et al*., 2008), and learning as constructed by students in an active and increasingly independent approach to learning (Kustra, Laurie, Potter & Vajockzki, 2007). Through inquiry learning, students have demonstrated the development of meta-cognitive skills such as critical thinking (Inouye & Flannelley, 1998; Magnussen, Isida & Itano, 2000; Holaday & Buckley, 2008), independent problem-solving ability (Madill *et al*., 2001), inquiry and research skills (Inouye & Flannelley, 1998;

Gehring & Eastman, 2008; McKinney, 2010), observation skills and collaboration abilities (Feletti, 1993; Inouye & Flannelley, 1998).

1.2 Authentic learning

In authentic learning classrooms the cognitive, physical, and interpersonal demands of the learning task are congruent with those of real-life (Hill & Smith, 2005a; Savery & Duffy, 1995). As opposed to the presentation of abstract and decontextualized concepts that have little relevance to students' lives, authentic environments link learning and context together (Hill & Smith, 2005b). Tasks, activities, and assessments result in achievement that is significant and meaningful rather than trivial and inapplicable (Newmann & Wehlage, 1993). Stein, Issacs and Andrews (2004) described three different orientations authentic learning: authentic learning as focusing on the practices of culture, authentic learning as participation in communities of practice, and authentic learning as engaging students' lived experiences. In the first orientation, authentic learning is achieved when students cognitively and skillfully engage in the ordinary practices of culture, learning through a process of apprenticeship, coaching, conscious participation, and enculturation (Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989). A second understanding of authenticity in learning comes from Lave and Wegner's (1991) concept of legitimate peripheral participation which advocates for the acquisition of skills and knowledge by engaging in peripherally legitimate activities to which related skills are applicable. A third orientation toward authentic learning argues that it is not just learning some cultural activity in some honest form that makes a learning activity authentic, rather it is learning in accordance to one's own interests and learning in which one exercises personal agency that makes it authentic (Van Oers & Wardekker, 1999). From this orientation, learning is authentic because it engages the students' lived experience; students are able to find meaningful connections between their current views, experiences, and understandings within the social and disciplinary framework of study (Stein *et al*., 2004).

1.3 Research Aims

The aim of this research was to explore, document, and explain students' experiences of an inquiry-based learning curriculum for learning human anatomy in order to investigate inquiry learning as a potentially authentic experience.

2 Methods

A hermeneutic phemonenological case-study methodology (Van Manen, 1990) was employed in order to investigate students' lived experiences of an inquiry-based learning project for human gross anatomy. The case of focus was an undergraduate course in gross human anatomy with an inquiry-based component known as Inquiry 216 at one Canadian university in the province of Ontario. Each year the course runs for one term (January to April) and enrols approximately 200 students. In total, three inquiry groups (each consisting of six students and one facilitator) were selected to participate in the study. Student participants were undergraduate students enrolled in the anatomy course. Facilitator participants were upper-year undergraduate students (in their third or forth year of study).

Data was collected through observation of group work, collection of learning materials (i.e. rubrics, research documents, meeting minutes/notes), and interviews with selected participants. In total, six students (two from each inquiry group) were interviewed at three points across the term: before the inquiry project began (Mid-January), approximately half way through the project (early March), and upon completion of the project (Mid-April).

3 Results and Discussion

Rich descriptions of the Inquiry 216 curriculum, the progress of each of the three groups, and experiences of learning of two students from each group were obtained though data collection.

3.1 Inquiry 216 Curriculum

The Inquiry 216 project is one component of a second-year undergraduate course worth 15% of the students' overall course grade, broken down into four components including a peer evaluation component, a group process component, a final presentation component, and a personal goals component.

Early in the term, the instructor introduced students to the Inquiry 216 component of the course by providing them with a general outline of the structure and logistics of the project. It was communicated to students that they were to generate an anatomical based question and launch into their inquiries within small groups. The instructor emphasized that more important than the anatomical knowledge gained, was the process established and followed to

gain this knowledge, and the sharing of this process with peers. Students were randomly arranged into groups and assigned a facilitator. As the term progressed, students met within their groups either with their facilitator for facilitated meetings or without their facilitator for an unfacilitated meeting. Table 1 provides an overview of these meetings, their dates, and common activities engaged.

Table 1: Facilitated Meetings

Date	Meeting	Activities
Late January	Meeting #1	Group formation; clarification on Inquiry 216 project; peer evaluation rubric
Mid February	Meeting #2	Development of question; division of labour and initial research
Early March	Meeting #3	Sharing research; Readjustment of question; redivision of labour; ongoing research
Late March	Meeting #4	Organization of research for final presentation
Early April	final presentation	Final presentation given to the facilitator and 2-3 peer groups

3.2   Group A: "What would happen if Barbie went to the doctor?"

In a small room located within the campus library, Group A, met for their first facilitated meeting. The group discussed the overall purpose of learning by inquiry, meeting dates, and assignments before turning to a discussion on the research question itself. Students began by voicing ideas and themes, drawing mainly on popular culture. Early in the discussion, Student #2 suggested it would be entertaining to take an idea related to social media or childhood, "you could pick something from a childhood show and say why it's not possible – like even Barbie" (Meeting #1, Observation notes). At the mention of Barbie the group got excited and they began to collectively voice thoughts and ideas about Barbie's anatomical structure, eating disorders, and body image. After more deliberation, the group settled on a broad question, "What would happen if Barbie went to the doctor?" During the second facilitated meeting, the group divided into pairs, each charged with a research responsibility: (1) Barbie's malformed anatomical structure, (2) anatomical symptoms of anorexia and bulimia, and (3) clinical treatments for anorexia and bulimia. By the third meeting, each pair was ready to discuss their research and the group spent the meeting drawing connections between Barbie's anatomical structure, signs and symptoms of anorexia and bulimia, and treatment options for both conditions. In their presentation, Group A performed a skit where one member acted as Barbie while the others acted as Barbie's doctors to inform Barbie about her anatomy and possible diagnoses of anorexia or bulimia.

When asked why the group had selected a Barbie theme, students explained that it was a fun topic that they felt their audience would relate to. As Lyn articulated, "we wanted to have something fun and media or cultural related so that people can, I guess, relate to it more" (Interview #3). Barbie served as an iconic figure that would help the group illustrate the internal, anatomical impact of eating disorders such as bulimia and anorexia on the human body. Focusing on anorexia and bulimia offered students the opportunity to make sense of the conditions in context of anatomy; an understanding that went beyond their initial lay understandings of a prevalent health concern amongst young adults.

Overall, students felt the project had given them new skill sets such as increased confidence speaking and working within a group, presentation skills, and communication skills of scientific ideas and thoughts to others. Additionally, students enjoyed working with their group. They felt their studies had previously been largely independent and objective with clear right and wrong answers that could be memorized and reproduced. In contrast, the inquiry project enabled students to get to know others, discuss and share ideas, and learn from one another.

3.3   Group A's Experience as Authentic Learning

Elements of three orientations towards authentic learning can be identified within Group A's inquiry process – their inquiry question was complex requiring collaboration within the group to address and solve various problems related to illness and anatomy. The inquiry process of posing a question, locating and interpreting literature, consolidating and presenting information closely resembles the work of the academic profession, so that as Group A engaged in the process of inquiry they were engaging in a legitimate peripheral practice of academic research and scholarly discovery. However, it was the third orientation to authentic learning, understanding authenticity as learning involving students' own interests and personal agency (Van Oers & Wardekker, 1999), that best represents an understanding of authentic learning in the context of the Inquiry 216 project examined in this study. To learn authentically means to engage one's own experience for learning in order to make meaningful connections between understandings, current views, and experiences within a disciplinary framework of study (Stein *et al.*, 2004). Group A explained that they used the figure of Barbie to explore illness because it was something they and their audience could relate to. By exploring the anatomical implications of anorexia and bulimia upon the body, students in group A

felt they could make connections between previous understandings of the illnesses with developing understandings of the body.

4 Conclusion

The Inquiry 216 curriculum may be authentic in nature because it challenged student groups to pose and investigate an anatomically relevant question of interest, work collaboratively through a process of academic investigation, and investigate questions and problems that established meaningful connections between understandings, views, and experiences.

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Higher Education Institution and its Contribution towards the Construction of a Multicultural School Curriculum

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Abstract

The present paper discusses the contribution of a Brazilian Higher Education Institution (HEI) in the collective process of building a joint document with the curriculum guidelines for primary adult education in a municipality in Rio de Janeiro. The methodological approach was a collaborative research where a partnership has been developed among researchers from a Higher Education Institution and municipal educational actors, drawing on data from workshops, meetings and online dialogues. The *main arguments* that underlined the research have stemmed from a theoretical multicultural perspective that posits curriculum should raise awareness to persistent inequalities that attain identities on the line of gender, race, sexual orientation and other markers, beyond economic and social disparities The relevance of the study comes insofar as Brazilian experience could be useful comparatively in curricular studies in Europe and elsewhere, suggesting potentials and challenges to be faced in collective attempts to translate curriculum thinking into curriculum reconstructed discourses and designs.

Keywords: curriculum studies, multicultural education, primary adult education, higher education.

1   Introduction

The present paper discusses the contribution of a Brazilian Higher Education Institution (HEI) in the collective process of building a joint document with the curriculum guidelines for primary adult education in a municipality in Rio de Janeiro. The main research question was: How could multicultural sensitivities be taken into account in the process of building curriculum guidelines for primary adult schooling? In order to answer that question, a case study has been developed in which the *methodological approach* was a collaborative research (Winn & Ubiles, 2011), where a partnership has been developed among researchers from a Higher Education Institution and municipal educational actors. That methodology was developed in some phases, namely: initially, the municipal educational authority approached the University scholars so that strategies should be designed in order that an equity oriented curriculum document for primary schooling, including that for primary adult schooling, should be produced, in partnership with the municipal educators' committees. The development of such strategies resulted in meetings, workshops and other educational opportunities during a whole year that ensured a democratic and participatory perspective to the construction of those guidelines. During those meetings, the researchers took notes and collected opinions and perspectives that were registered in a research diary. Furthermore, online contributions of the educational actors were received in the construction of the guidelines, and were duly incorporated during the whole process.

In the limits of the present paper, we describe the product that resulted in terms of the choices that predominated in the philosophical perspective of the mentioned curricular guidelines for adult primary education. We do not draw on the subjects' perceptions at this point, which should be left for future studies, but rather glean on documentary analysis in order to highlight the ways in which the challenges to build a municipal curricular document based on a multicultural concerns were met in the written document that ensued from the initiative. Also, due both to

ethical reasons and to the anonymity required at this moment, the name of the municipality has been kept anonymous.

The *main arguments* that underlined the research have stemmed from a theoretical multicultural perspective that posits curriculum should raise awareness to persistent inequalities that attain identities on the line of gender, race, sexual orientation and other markers, beyond economic and social disparities (Banks, 2004; Candau & Moreira, 2008; Canen, 2009; Canen & Moreira, 2001; Canen & Peters, 2005; Canen & Xavier, 2011; Sleeter & McLaren, 2009). A multicultural decolonized curriculum approach has meant to "critically examine the knowledge and its relationship to power, recentering knowledge in the intellectual histories of [marginalized groups]" (Sleeter, 2010, p. 194). Also, such a perspective contends curriculum should arguably be thought of in the contexts of schools, taken as multicultural sites where leaders should strive to build a multicultural collective identity (Canen & Canen, 2005).

In fact, the claim that pedagogy empowers oppressed groups through the development of literacy strategies that could link education to the themes emerging from the lives of those groups was illustrated by Paulo Freire in his Pedagogy of the Oppressed (Freire, 1987). Freire opened up pathways in order to understand the necessary link between ideals and educational praxis, so as to both raise awareness of marginalized groups related to their condition and also promote their acquisition of cultural instruments that could lead them to a more informed, equitable and transformational citizenship.

Based on those, the guidelines were constructed bearing in mind that multicultural sensibilities should also be incorporated into syllabuses and disciplines, highlighting content knowledge in curriculum design (Young, 2011).

The relevance of the study comes insofar as Brazilian experience could be useful comparatively in curricular studies in Europe and elsewhere, suggesting potentials and challenges to be faced in collective attempts to translate curriculum thinking into curriculum reconstructed discourses and designs.

2   Multiculturalism and Curriculum: some perspectives

Insofar as Freire's ideas concerning the need to take oppressed groups' cultural views in order to build a relevant pedagogy has been taken into account in contemporary perspectives on schooling, it is interesting to glean the meaning of multicultural education as a direct development from those ideas at this point. As explained by Sleeter & McLaren (2009), multicultural education was used to bridge racial and ethnic groups, and it broadened the umbrella to include gender and other forms of diversity and oppression. However, it has different meanings, being both perceived in folkloric and in more critical and post-colonial lenses (Canen, 2009). The folkloric meaning refers to what Sleeter & McLaren (2009) call as a "tourist" conception of multicultural education, narrowing it to the celebration of ethnic foods and festivals as a way to value oppressed groups and take their world views into account in educational practices. In a more critical perspective, multicultural education more directly draws on Freire's (1987) tenets of the challenge of oppression, by focusing more explicitly on racism, sexism and the struggles against those. In that perspective, multicultural education should frame inequality in terms of institutionalized oppression and reconfigure the families and communities of oppressed groups as sources of strength (Sleeter & McLaren, 2009, p. 18).

As argued by Leonardo & Worrell (2012, p. 4), "these are transitional times, signaled poignantly by Freire's death in 1997 (...) [and] we are interested in the 'What now?' question in critical theories of education which show continuity with their origins as well as push against them in order to pull forward". Illustrating those developments, Lee (2011) suggests the use of culturally responsive schooling so as to take into account oppressed groups' ways of living in the educational context. In the same vein, Dixon *et.al*. (2012) claim that second language acquisition for students of minority groups should take into account the specific social interactions learners engage in within their cultural contexts. Likewise & Ladson-Billings (2011) and Ball & Tyson (2011) highlight the need for curriculum to inspire teachers in promoting equity oriented classes geared towards social justice and the inclusion of marginalized and underserved student populations. Canen & Xavier (2011) studied the extent to which multicultural concerns have been

inspiring academic research, and Canen & Canen (2005, 2010) have developed the concept of multicultural organizations in order to refer to schools and other institutions in which plural identities are valued and oppression is challenged.

Raising awareness to inequalities that attain identities have been consistently pointed by authors such as Banks (2004), Candau & Moreira (2008), Canen (2009), Canen & Moreira (2001), Canen & Peters (2005), Canen & Xavier (2011); Sleeter & McLaren (2009). Also, it should be pointed out that a multicultural decolonized curriculum approach has been proposed by authors such as Sleeter (2010), who calls the attention towards the need for probing into curricular knowledge so as to pinpoint its relationship to power and subvert it in order to recenter curriculum in the histories and cultures of undeerepresented cultural identities.

Those arguments underpinned the philosophical perspective that imbued both the research and the curricular guidelines for primary adult education in the municipality taken as a case study, and will be discussed next.

3   The Case Study: multicultural concerns and curriculum guidelines of a municipality in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

As mentioned above, the document with the curricular guidelines has been developed in a collaborative research perspective(Winn & Ubiles, 2011). As discussed in the meetings and workshops with the municipal representatives, its structure had an introduction in which both the story of the development of the partnership and the multicultural perspective that underpinned it have been delineated. It concludes with abilities and generative themes to be worked out so as to give voice to oppressed groups and empower them, in a critical multicultural, decolonized curriculum perspective (Candau & Moreira, 2008; Canen 2009; Canen & Moreira, 2001; Canen & Peters, 2005; Canen & Xavier, 2011; Sleeter, 2010; Sleeter & McLaren, 2009). In fact, the extent to which the joint construction of the curriculum guidelines took into account Freire's (1987) and multicultural concerns can be drawn from the following excerpt:

> The theoretical perspective of the present curriculum guidelines is geared towards citizenship and diversity. It intends to challenge dominant and oppressive thinking by linking subject contents and abilities to the valuing of marginalized voices and through the dialogue of differences. Students should be valued in their diversity, which includes dialects, ways of talking, race, ethnicities, generational differences and so forth, so as to empower them with the necessary competence to deal with the diverse logics that inform cultural and social relations (from the municipal curricular guidelines, 2010).

In order to incorporate that perspective into a curricular design, workshops were developed with educational representatives of teachers, school administrators and other school actors so as to arrive at abilities and suggestions to glean generative themes (Freire, 1987) that could be worked out so as to value diversity and challenge oppression. A list was produced by the collective identities both from the University and from the municipality taken as a case study, in which statements of intents were incorporated into the curricular guidelines document, such as:

> Value pupils' diversity in the lines of cultural, ethnic, racial, gender, religious, linguistic, sexual and other identities, recognizing their contributions to local, national and global society; promote the linkage of curricular contents to themes from students' cultures so as to promote critical thinking, autonomy and citizenship awareness (from the municipal curricular guidelines, 2010).

In a more operational part of the guidelines, the methodology of projects based on generative themes was also brought by the subjects of the research, as can be viewed below:

Our municipal schools highlighted as a priority to develop the methodology of work projects drawing on significant themes for the working adult primary students, in line with the generative themes suggested by Paulo Freire, for whom the reading of the world should come before the reading of the word. In that sense, curricular contents should be organized in didactic projects that promote an integrated, cooperative and collective work in sequential activities that are both akin to the social practices lived by adult students, and which also are linked to curricular contents deemed necessary for attaining educational objectives in the various primary school levels. (from the municipal curricular guidelines, 2010).

As can be noted from the above excerpts, not only marginalized identities were prioritized in the rationale for the curricular guidelines, but also a concern towards linking syllabuses and disciplines to that decolonized perspective was present, so that content knowledge should be taken account of in that curriculum design (Young, 2011).

In fact, the final part of the document presented the above mentioned linkage between primary schooling curricular contents and suggestions for generative themes to be worked out with the adult pupils, inspired by multicultural concerns. Those themes were meant to infuse the whole adult primary curriculum and each of the curricular areas (namely languages, time/space, and sciences/sustainable development) should be integrated with them. An illustration may be useful here:

Theme: Diversity and Cultural/Social Context. Languages: value language diversity, linking it to students' own experiences and to knowledge building. Time/space: understand the relationship of present, past and future, based on students' life and work stories, gleaning their importance for identity construction; Sciences: understand the maths language and the scientific knowledge inherent to students' everyday actions and social relations. (from the municipal curricular guidelines, 2010).

From the above, it seems to be clear that curricular intentions for adult primary education based on multicultural concerns (Canen, 2009; Sleeter & McLaren, 2009; Canen & Xavier, 2011; Banks, 2004) and on Paulo Freire Pedagogy of the Oppressed were present, insofar as the intent to give voice to oppressed groups based on themes that could directly refer to their identities and lives imbued the whole document of the guidelines. It should be noted, however, that the challenges inherent to incorporating those into municipal or other official curricular documents should not be underestimated, and should be discussed in the future, as part of the authors' research agenda.

4   Conclusions

The present paper drew on a collaborative research developed towards the production of primary adult schooling curricular guidelines in a municipality in Brazil. It highlighted the way in which its rationale was inspired by multicultural sensitivities, and it also illustrated how those were translated into more operational terms in the referred document.

It is important to note that an enterprise of such a magnitude is not an easy task, since it involves issues of power relations and political perspectives that pop up during the process of the collaborative research. As mentioned before, such aspects have not been the focus of the present paper, being left for the research agenda of the authors. Nevertheless, it should be borne in mind that a collaborative research that is based on partnership between scholars and political representatives is a challenging endeavour. It should be pointed out that the process of dialogue among all parts "mediated by the world" (Freire, 1987), which generated the document, was worthwhile. Its relevance comes insofar as it illustrates fruitful possibilities towards an equity oriented pedagogy, in the context of multicultural, highly unequal societies, in Brazil and elsewhere.

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FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH THE ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE OF ENGINEERING STUDENTS OF THE UCR INTERUNIVERSITY CAMPUS FROM ALAJUELA

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Abstract:

The Alajuela Interuniversity campus opened in 2007, with Universidad de Costa Rica as its first academic institution, which has two engineering majors. Since recent studies have shown that students take longer to get to their major's last year because they fall behind in their curricula, it is decided to determine the factors associated with the academic performance of engineering students through Generalized Linear Models based on the theories from Tinto (1989), Vélez, Schiefelbein and Valenzuela (2001) and Blanco Vega (2011). As a result it is decided that the best model to follow is the Negative Binomial Model with dependent variable; it is taken into account the amount of approved credits and independent variables: if the student has considered to leave the university, the education of the student's household head, if the student has scholarship, if the student believes that the university is located in a dangerous area, the amount of majors the student has taken and the student's main major.

Keywords: Academic performance, Generalized Linear Models, Engineering.

## I.	Introduction

The Alajuela Interuniversity campus opened in 2007 according to articles 04-07 from February 13th, 2007 and 07-07 from March 6th, 2007 from the National Council of University Rectors (CONARE, by its Spanish acronym). This campus has a special characteristic because it joins the four public universities in this moment, which are the following: Universidad Nacional, Instituto Tecnológico de Costa Rica, Universidad Estatal a Distancia and Universidad de Costa Rica.

In this campus, Universidad de Costa Rica offers the following majors: Graphic Design, Industrial Engineering and Mechanical Engineering. The campus has a total of 422 active students from the engineering majors, from this amount 320 are Industrial Engineering students and 102 are Mechanical Engineering students.

The campus has some limitations because of the short time it has existing, for example it is located in a place it does not own, it is located in a Shopping Centre the universities have to rent. On the other hand, there is no dining hall where the students can get food at a lower price or subsidized.

At the beginning of 2012, an analysis was performed to determine the time the students from Mechanical Engineering took to get to the last year of their major and it reflected that the time they took was too long. There were cases of students that started the major in 2007 and there were still subjects from the third year of the major that they needed to approve. For that reason, this work's

objective is to determine the factors associated with the academic performance of engineering students from Industrial and Mechanical engineering through Generalized Linear Models. It was expected that some of the aspects mentioned before are affecting the academic performance, but maybe the impact of these variables is lower in comparison with the ones associated to the students' homes and living conditions.

Generalized Linear Models allow to determine the variables that are associated with the performance, the impact those variables have over it and the possibility to estimate the performance of one student in particular.

II.   Theoretical framework

The academic performance is an important variable to consider in the university context; therefore different models have been created to try to explain the behavior of this variable through theories or related variables. This section purpose is to locate us in a theoretical basis allowing to distinguish the appropriate variables to be included in a Generalized Linear Model that determines the students' academic performance.

Tinto; (1989 cited in Romo, et al, 2000, p.1) found five constructs that are related to the lap, these are:

- Psychological
- Social or environmental
- Economic factors
- Organizational
- Interrelations

The first construct refers to the subject's own characteristics related to the personality, disposal, motivation, ability and capacity. The second component is described as the forces that establish the success or failure of the student, for example the individual social status. The third component has relation to the benefits linked to the financial resources. The fourth element is presented with aspects related to the institution; it is exemplified with the available resources of the institutions, size, and environment among others. In the case of the last variable, it refers to the aspects involved to the behavior as a result of the interaction between the environment and the subjects.

These factors are stated in other works. Sotelo, *et al* (2009) determines that there are significant and positive correlations among the auto efficiency, the assessment of the task, anxiety and guidance to the academic performance. These variables are measured in a survey where a scale in the applied questionnaire is incorporated.

"Considering the results found in this study, it is shown how a significant relationship of motivational aspect exists, of the auto efficiency in particular, with the academic performance." (Sotelo, *et al.*, 2009 p. 9).

Blanco Vega *et al.* (2011) establishes that the auto efficiency of the students is related to the motivation and, at the same time, to the academic performance because if the students have a bigger motivation then the results in the academic performance are better. Among the variables where the auto efficiency is measured, the student's concentration is influenced.

Some of the questions we find included in the questionnaire that measure the concentration are:

- *"I listen carefully when the professor clarifies a doubt to a classmate"*
- *"I pay attention when the professors teach the class"*
- *"I pay attention when a classmate makes an exposition"*

Alcover, *et al.* (2008) makes a linear regression that tries to predict the variables related to the university degrees, this author takes those degrees as a measure for the students' performance.

Among the variables that are significant in this model we find the following:

- Other university studies of the student when enrolling in the degree.
- The parents' studies.
- The student's occupation.

The first two have a positive sign; the third variable was grouped according to the amount of hours worked by the student. The first group was made of students that worked less than 15 hours and the second one by students that worked 15 hours or more. The students that worked less than 15 hours had a better degree than those who worked 15 or more hours per week.

Vélez, Schiefelbein & Valenzuela (2001) identifies different variables that are associated with a low performance, some of them are:

- The school's distance
  "Another systematic finding is that the distance to the school is associated negatively to the performance". (Vélez, Schiefelbein, Valenzuela, 2001, p. 8.)
- Health and nutrition
  "Health and Nutrition are significant predictors of the performance". (Vélez, Schiefelbein & Valenzuela, 2001, p. 9).
- Access to books and materials
  "The access to textbooks and other instructional material is important to increase the academic performance."(Vélez, Schiefelbein, Valenzuela, 2001, p12.)

Blanco Bosco (2008) creates a linear regression model that tries to measure the performance in Math and finds significant variables in the model such as the gender, where women have better performance than men. Regarding the work variable, the students that have to work have a lower performance than those who do not work; it also showed that if the student abandoned the school, at least for a year, it affects the performance negatively.

III. Methodology

This section describes the methodology used in both the questionnaire making, which contains the variables of study, as well as in the construction of general linear models that comply with the objective.

a. Population of this study

This study takes into account all active students of the engineering major from Universidad de Costa Rica from the Alajuela Interuniversity campus. Currently, the campus offers two engineering majors: Mechanical and Industrial Engineering.

b. Sampling Method

Initially, in order to obtain the sample, the sample frame was created which is composed of the list of active students in the second semester of 2012.

It was preferred to perform a random simple sampling from the frame, where students were selected individually to minimize the risk to find duplicated cases that would have been possible if group of students from different courses would have been selected. It is known that there is an important lap regarding this.

c. Sample Size

The sampling frame is composed of 422 students; which correspond to 102 Mechanical Engineering students and 320 Industrial Engineering students. Hence the simple size is 122 students.

d. Tool construction

In order to measure the suggested objective, a questionnaire with different sections is created, 5 in total, from these sections the items composing the study variables were selected.

The procedure for the items' construction was based on the consulted bibliography.

e. Generalized Linear Models Construction

For the construction of these models, a descriptive analysis of the variable response behavior was performed, which helped to determine that what was appropriate to use were the generalized linear models of Poisson or the Negative Binomial model. For the distribution of one of the dependent variables, the possibility to use the variation of the Zero-inflated Poisson model was evaluated.

IV. Results

The main results found in the data analysis are detailed in this section.

Descriptive analysis of the variables

General characteristics of the study variables are shown in this section, as well as how to define the way in which performance was measured.

1. Dependent Variables

The variables that try to measure the academic performance of the engineering students of the Alajuela Interuniversity Campus are described in this section.

Table 1.Variables that measure the academic performance of the engineering students

Number	Name
1	Amount of approved credits
2	Amount of failed subjects

Source: Own elaboration

In table 1, a list of variables is observed. They try to measure the academic performance of the engineering students. A distinction by admission year is made for the amount of approved since, for instance, fourth year students should have more approved credits than second year students. This is also applied in the case of the variable amount of failed subjects.

Graphic 1. Percentage of credits approved by the engineering students of the Alajuela Campus (2012)

In average, the students of the campus in the engineering majors have approved the 56,5% of the credits that they should have approved according to their syllabus. (See graphic 1)
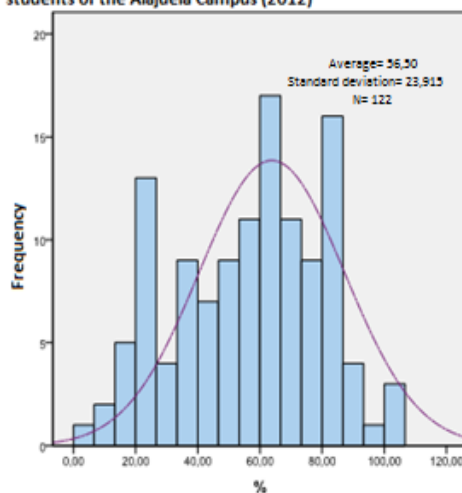
On the other hand, the engineering students from the campus have failed 13,5% in average the subjects that they have taken in their syllabus. It is important to mention that it is represented as a percentage because the number of subjects failed from the program depends on the amount of

Graphic 2. Percentage of failed subjects from the syllabus by the engineering students of the Alajuela Campus (2012)
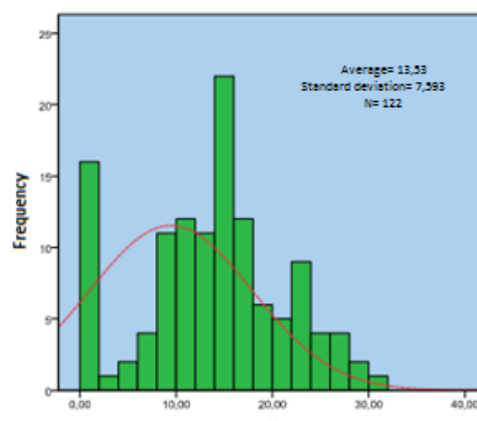
subjects they should have approved. (See graphic 2)

2. Independent Variables

Next, the independent variables are detailed. They will be used in the regression models.

Table 2. Variables that could influence the performance of the engineering students and how they could influence them.

Category	Name	Symbol
Psychology	High self-esteem	+
	Feeling that everything is going to be wrong	-
	Has thought of leaving the university	-
	Feels motivated to go to class	+
Social or environmental	Female	+
	Age	-
	Household head with superior studies than high school studies	+
Economic factors	Works	-
	Has socio-economic scholarship	-
	Sometimes could not have lunch because of lack of money	-
	Can get the books and materials requested in the courses easily	+
Organizational	Believes that the library has the necessary material to support his / her studies	+
	Likes the university installations	+
	Considers that the university is located in a dangerous zone	-
Interrelations	Lives in a neighborhood where most of the neighbors studied at the university	+
	The relationship with my classmates is very good	+
	Studies Industrial Engineering	+
	Time it takes to get from the house to the university	-
	Number of majors the university has	-
	Problems to concentrate in the study	-

Source: Own elaboration

In table 2, the variables that will be considered initially as independent variables in the model are shown. These variables were chosen according to the consulted theory and they were classified in 5 components. In addition, the symbol that was expected to be obtained in the models was established.

a. Psychological Variables

In this section, the variables that belong to this construct are described and they are associated to the performance according to the consulted bibliography.

Graphic 4. Psychological Independent Variables
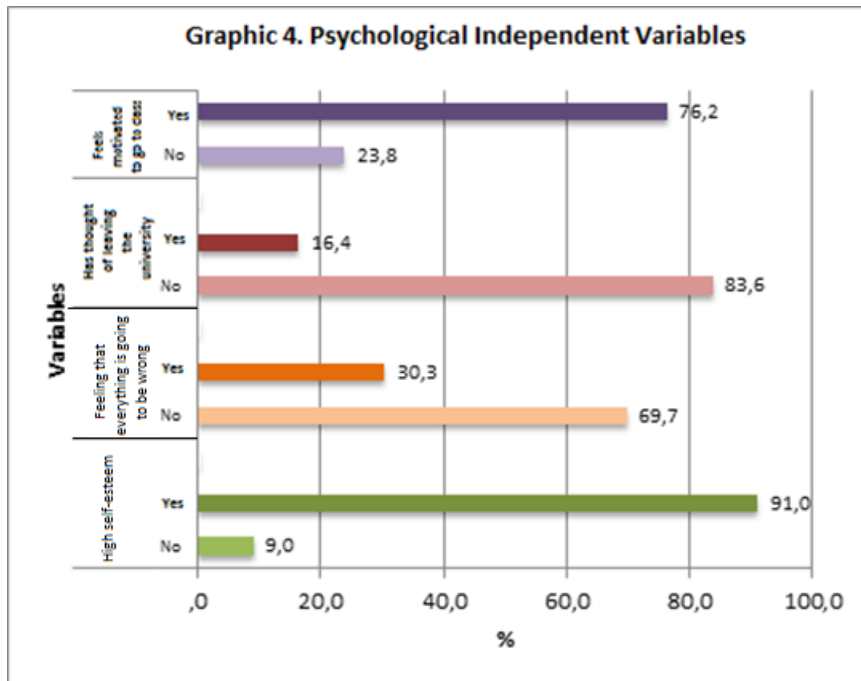
For the high self-esteem variable, there is a low percentage of people (9%) that say they have a low self-esteem. The variable "feeling that everything is going to be wrong" is more distribuited in the different categories, 30,3% of the people say they feel that everything is going to be wrong. It is also noticeable that 23,8% of the interviewers say not to feel motivated to go to class. On the other hand, 16,4% of the students say having thought of leaving the university (see graphic 4).

b. Social or environmental

Graphic 5. Social or environmental independent variables
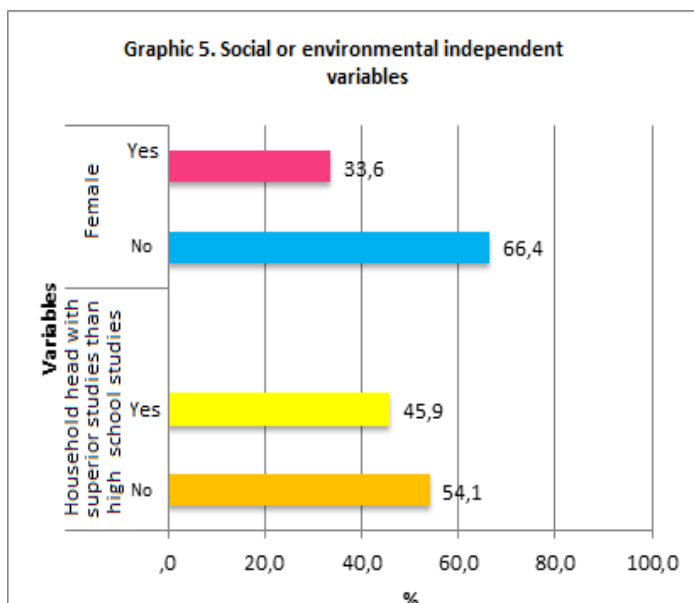
Next, the variables classified as social or environmental are detailed.

33,6% of the students interviewed were women; this is because there is a higher proportion of men in the Mechanical Engineering major.

In addition, 45,9% of the students have a household head that has more than high school studies, so

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Graphic 6. Distribution of the students' age

Average= 21.24
Standard deviation= 2.405
N= 122
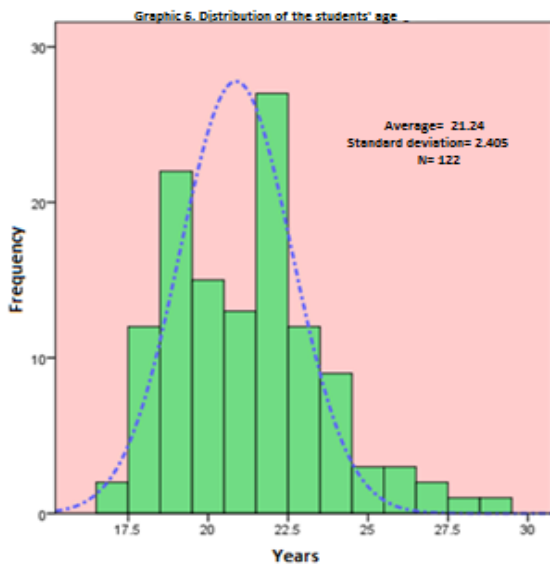
that a high percentage of the students have a household head with low schooling (See graphic 5).

The age variable has a positive asymmetrical distribution, in average the students are 21,24 years old, the age range is from 17 to 29, and these high ages are due to the students' delay when failing courses from the major. (See graphic 6)

c.   Economic factors
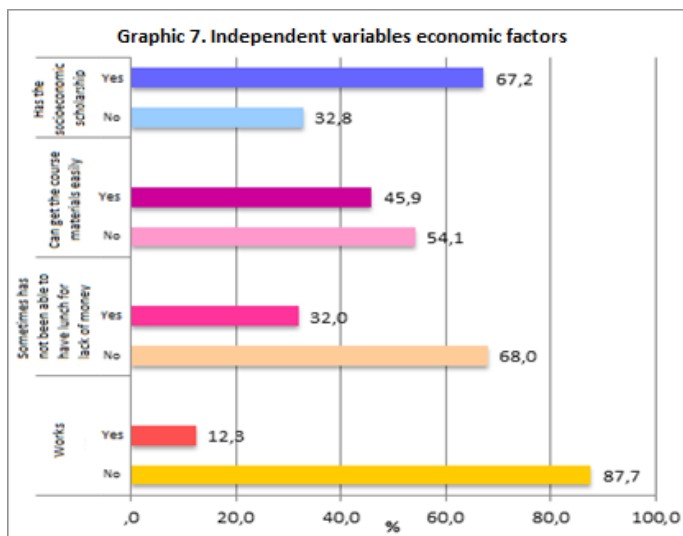
The variables included in this section are related to the economic influence that is exerted on students.

12,3% of the students work, there is also a 32% that say that sometimes they have not been able to have lunch for lack of money. 54,1% of the students say they could not get the requested materials in the courses easily. Also, 67,2% of the students have socio-economic scholarship.

Because of what is mentioned before, it is concluded that an important percentage of students has a difficult economic situation.

a. Organizational Independent Variables

This section describes the behavior of the organizational variables that are linked to the contribution of the university in the students' performance.
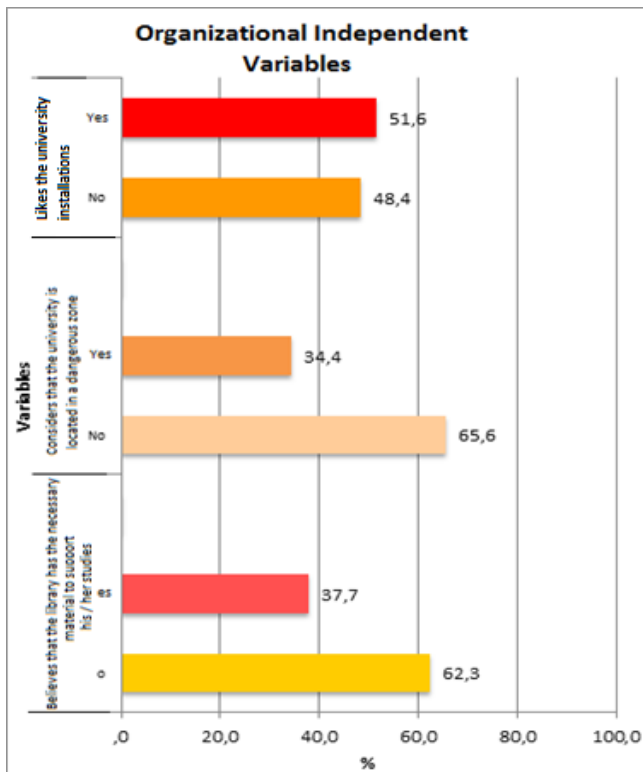
48,4% of the students do not like the university, this could be related to the university location which in this moment is located in a shopping center. In the meantime, CONARE is trying to buy the land and starts the construction.

Also 34,4% of the students consider that the university is located in a dangerous zone, this could be related that, at the moment the students were interviewed, thefts were occurring in the buses that transport the students, these buses are part of the public service system.

On the other hand, 37, 7% of the students believe that the library does not have the necessary material to support their studies; this could be because the library is very small (see graphic 8).

a. Interrelational Independent Variables

These variables have relation in how the student gets interrelated with the environment; its behavior is detailed below.

Graphic 9. Interrelational Independent Variables
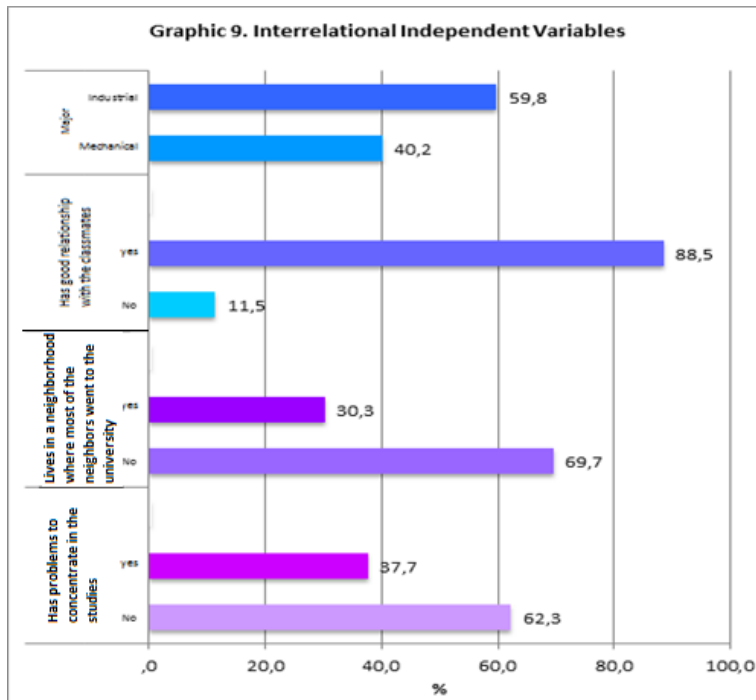
59,8% of the interviewed people study the Industrial Engineering major, there is a high proportion since the Mechanical engineering major is not open all years.

In addition, 11,5% of the students say that they do not have a good relationship with the classmates.

69,7% of the students do not live in a neighborhood where most of the neighbors went to the university. It means, they are surrounded by people with low schooling.

On the other hand, a high percentage (37,7%) says that they have problems to concentrate in the studies (See graphic 9).

Graphic 10. Time it takes to get from the house to the university approximately
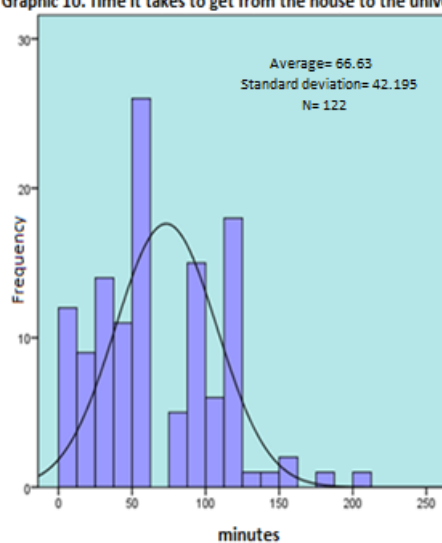
The approximate time distribution in minutes that students take to get from their homes to the university is distributed relatively normal with a small symmetry to the right. In average, students take 66,63 minutes, which is equivalent to an hour and eleven minutes approximately. This could be related to the quality of the bus service (See graphic 10).

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Graphic 11. Percentage of students according to the majors they take
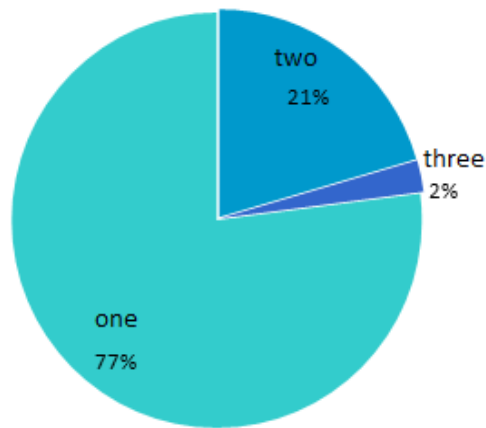
77% of the students have just one major. In general, the students with more than one major are taking the other major in San Pedro or San Ramón campus.

b. Generalized Linear Models for the performance valuation

The generalized linear model analysis is presented in this section that can be used for the dependent variables' valuation. A comparison is also done between the models in order to select the most appropriate.

Initially, it is analyzed the correlation between the variables in order to avoid the multicollinearity among the independent variables. For this purpose, the variables that present a correlation higher than 0,30 were identified.

Table 3. Variables with correlations higher than 0,30

Variables	Correlation
High self-esteem–good relationship with the classmates	0,34
Has thought of leaving the university - Age	0,31
Works–Has thought of leaving the university	0,31
Industrial - Female	0,42
Age- Works	0,42
Likes the university installations – The library has the necessary material to support his/her studies.	0,31

1. ***Dependent Variable: Approved credits.***

According to the distribution of this variable and considering that it is the counting of approved credits, Poisson model is used at the beginning. It had to be exposed for the amount of credits that had to be approved.

Table 1. Poisson Model for the dependent variable: amount of approved credits

Variables	IRR	Dev.	P>z
High self-esteem	1.118	0.062	0.045
Has thought of leaving the university	0.856	0.032	0.000
Parents with more than high school diploma	1.360	0.035	0.000
Age	1.027	0.008	0.001
Works	0.846	0.039	0.000
Has socio-economic scholarship	1.328	0.043	0.000
Sometimes has not been able to have lunch for lack of money	1.094	0.031	0.001
The University library has the necessary material to support their studies	1.091	0.033	0.004
Considers the university is located in a dangerous zone	1.135	0.032	0.000
Likes the university installations	0.926	0.028	0.010
Amount of majors the student has	1.277	0.032	0.000
Concentration problems	0.915	0.026	0.002
Lives in a neighborhood where most of their neighbors went to the university	1.102	0.032	0.001
Industrial	1.306	0.036	0.000
Constant	0.118	0.021	0.000
ln (approved credits)	1	(exposure)	

Source: Own elaboration

This model does not have all the initial variables; some of them were correlated with other variables; for example the variable called good relationship with the classmates that was correlated with the variable high self- esteem (see table 3). Another variable eliminated was the variable called female, this one has correlation with the variable called industrial.

It can be observed that the 5 constructs related to the performance are represented in this model.

The Poisson model has an assumption that needs to be reviewed, in which the Poisson distribution has the variance equal to the average, hence a negative binomial model is designed.

Table 2.Negative Binomial Model for the dependent variable amount of approved credits

Variables	IRR	Dev.	P>z
High self-esteem	1.010	0.146	0.945
Has thought of leaving the university	0.801	0.085	0.036
Parents with more than high school diploma	1.385	0.105	0.000
Age	1.003	0.019	0.872
Works	0.886	0.109	0.324
Has socio-economic scholarship	1.315	0.120	0.003
Sometimes has not been able to have lunch for lack of money	1.158	0.097	0.079
The University library has the necessary material to support their studies	1.062	0.088	0.467
Considers the university is located in a dangerous zone	1.191	0.095	0.029
Likes the university installations	0.934	0.076	0.398
Amount of majors the student has	1.314	0.106	0.001
Concentration problems	0.885	0.069	0.116
Lives in a neighborhood where most of their neighbors went to the university	1.140	0.097	0.124
Industrial	1.411	0.113	0.000
Constant	0.196	0.083	0.000
ln (approved credits)	1	(exposure)	
Alpha natural algorithm	-2.182	0.167	
alpha	0.113	0.019	

Source: Own elaboration

This model makes the following parametrical hypothesis test:

$$H_0: \lambda = \sigma^2$$

$$H_a: \lambda \neq \sigma^2$$

The value p of this test gave 0,000 so that with 95% certainty, the null hypothesis that the average is the same as the variance is rejected. Therefore, the Poisson model could not be used. Also, notice that some variables in the negative binomial model are not significant, but they will not be eliminated because they are theoretically substantive to represent the model and the size of the sample can be influencing the results.

Now a valuation of a Logit model will be done grouped by the amount of credits the students should have approved.

Table3.Logit Model for the dependent variable amount of approved credits.

Variables	Odd Ratio	Dev.	P>z
High self-esteem	0.697	0.038	0.000
Has thought of leaving the university	2.056	0.085	0.000
Parents with more than high school diploma	1.061	0.013	0.000
Age	0.744	0.050	0.000
Works	2.052	0.099	0.000
Has socio-economic scholarship	1.254	0.056	0.000
Sometimes has not been able to have lunch for lack of money	1.137	0.053	0.006
The University library has the necessary material to support their studies	1.375	0.060	0.000
Considers the university is located in a dangerous zone	0.891	0.041	0.013
Likes the university installation	1.879	0.081	0.000
Amount of majors the student has	0.787	0.034	0.000
Concentration problems	1.310	0.061	0.000
Lives in a neighborhood where most of their neighbors went to the university	1.880	0.083	0.000
Industrial	0.043	0.011	0.000

Source: Own elaboration

This model has all the significant variables and coincides with the Poisson model in that aspect.

In order to determine which model is the best, a comparison will be done by using the Akaike and Bayes criteria.

Table 4. Comparison of the Models for the dependent variable amount of approved credits

Model	Observations	AIC	BIC
Poisson	122	1409.80	1451.86
Negative Binomial	122	1061.65	1106.51
Grouped logistic	12620	15953.62	16057.82

Source: Own elaboration

In table 4, the model that has the lower AIC and BIC is the negative binomial, so that it would be recommended to use this model. When doing the projections for one person only the variables with significant results would be taken into account. With this model we can conclude that in average the students that have thought of leaving the university have 0,801 times the amount of credits from those who have not. In average, the students that have a household head with more than high school studies have 1,385 times the amount of credits from those who do not.

In addition, the students with scholarship have, in average, 1,315 times the credits from those who do not. Also for an increase in a major, the students increase the number of approved credits in 34% in average.

Finally, the industrial engineering students have in average 1,41 times the credits that the mechanical engineering students have, keeping the other variables constant. (See table 2)

2. *Dependent Variable amount of failed subjects*

The Poisson model should be used for this variable according to its distribution. (See graphic 2), when modeling this one, significant variables are obtained which are presented in table 4.

Table 4. Poisson Model for the dependent variable amount of failed subjects.

Variables	IRR	Dev.	P>z
Household head with more than high school studies	0.768	0.065	0.002
Has scholarship	0.822	0.072	0.026
Amount of majors	0.838	0.067	0.026
Constant	0.219	0.030	0.000
In (subjects from the program)			

Source: Own elaboration

This model does not incorporate significant variables of all the components of the bibliography, it only gets to incorporate the social, interrelation and economic factors through a variable.

To prove the assumption of the required Poisson regression:

$$H_O : \lambda = \sigma^2$$

$$H_a : \lambda \neq \sigma^2$$

A parametric test was done, the negative binomial model is built. With a significance of 5% there is no sufficient statistic evidence to reject the null hypothesis that the average and the variance are equal (p=0,50).

Table 5. Negative Binomial Model for the dependent variable amount of failed subjects

Variables	IRR	Dev.	P>z
Household head with more than high school studies	0.768	0.065	0.002
Has scholarship	0.822	0.072	0.026
Amount of majors	0.838	0.067	0.026
Constant	0.219	0.030	0.000
ln(subjects from the program)	1.000	(exposure)	
Ln(alpha)	-15.796	645.637	
alpha	0.000	0.000	

In table 5 a summary of the model is shown; it can be observed that the same significant variables in the model are significant for the Poisson model.

The distribution of the variable answer presents some cases with zero value that can cause sub dispersion (see graphic 2); therefore it is convenient to contrast the Poisson model with the Zero-inflated Poisson model, because with the previous test we know that it is appropriate to use the Poisson model.

Table 6. Poisson Model inflated with zeros for the dependent variable amount of failed subjects.

Variables	IRR	Dev.	P>z
Household head with more than high school studies	0.803	0.068	0.009
Has scholarship	0.851	0.075	0.067
Amount of majors	0.822	0.066	0.014
Constant	0.219	0.030	0.000
Ln(subjects from the program)	1.000	(offset)	
Inflated Model			
Household head with more than high school studies	15.774	3671.543	0.997
Has scholarship	15.759	3538.251	0.996
Amount of majors	-15.78664	3386.929	0.996
Constant	-18.16172	6121.334	0.998

Source: Own elaboration

In table 6, the Zero-inflated Poisson model is summarized, this one makes the test:

$$H_O: LL(Poisson\ Model) = LL(Model\ with\ overdispersion)$$

$$H_a: LL(Poisson\ Model\ ) \neq LL(Model\ with\ overdispersion)$$

With a significance of 5% there is no sufficient statistic evidence to reject the null hypothesis that the models are equal (p=0,17), this has relation to the contrast of the model in table 5, where differences between the models were not found either; no over dispersion was found.

Table 5. Comparison of the Models for the dependent variable amount of failed subjects

Model	Observations	AIC	BIC
Poisson	122	511.800	523.016
Negative Binomial	122	513.800	527.820
Zero-inflated Poisson model	122	510.965	533.397

Source: Own elaboration

In table 5, a contrast of the models is done. By using the Akaike criteria, it should be chosen the Poisson model or the Zero-inflated Poisson model since the difference between both is only one point. In the case of the Bayes criteria, there are more than three points of difference between the models, so that we should select the one that has the lower BIC, in this case the Poisson model.

When selecting the Poisson model we can conclude that in average the students that have a household head with more than high school studies have 0.768 times the amount of failed subjects from those who do not.

The students that have scholarship have in average 0.822 times the failed subjects of the students that do not have scholarship. Also due to an increase in one major, the students decrease in 17.8% the number of failed subjects keeping the other variables constant (see table 2).

V. Conclusions

It can be proven that the students present particular characteristics that should be considered; as it is the fact that a high percentage has a feeling that everything is going to be wrong, this could be related to the fact that they are in average 21, 24 years old, they are almost finishing their studies, but there are students who are 29, when they are supposed to finish their major approximately between 23-24 years old.

Another characteristic that is reflected in the data is that the students present a difficult economic situation. A high percentage has socio-economic scholarship and some students say that sometimes they were not able to have lunch because of lack of money (32%). A high percentage of the students live in neighborhoods where most of the neighbors do not have university studies and they live a family unit where a high percentage does not have a household head with studies higher than high school.

The university limitations are visible since a considerable percentage of the students (48,4%) do not like the installations of the university which could be related to the sense of belonging to the campus.

In the construction of the negative binomial model with the dependent variable amount of approved credits, we have as the more significant variables to determine the performance, from the variable amount of approved credits, the following: if they have thought of leaving the university, the household head education, if he/she has socio-economic scholarship, the opinion that the university is located in a dangerous zone, the amount of majors the university has and the student's main major. Even we do not have any theoretical justification why students with better performance say the university is located in a dangerous zone, it might be thought that maybe they spend more time at the university, so they know about the dangers. However this could be further investigated.

The Poisson model with dependent variable amount of failed subjects has as significant variables the household head education, if the student has socio-economic scholarship and the amount of majors the student has.

As it can be noticed, both models find significant variables in common; but because theoretical variables should be incorporated from the bibliography, it is recommended to use the first model to measure the performance.

The university can examine which variables can be modified to help the students to have a better performance; for instance, provide support to students that have thought of leaving the university.

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Emerging Debates: Between Social Issues and Academic Knowledge

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Abstract.

In the late twentieth century, neoliberal policy established a considerable consensus in academic contexts and exacerbated many technicalities that transformed the educational problems in curricular matters. The challenge consists both in analyzing the university curriculum beyond the technical rationality (typified by Tyler's Rationale) and reflecting the current social demands through the so-called Emerging Debates. These are considered those issues, discussions and cultural demands, installed as contingent claim, that deserve to be treated in higher education such as technological change, environmental education, multiple literacy, social inclusion, multiculturalism, gender analysis, etc. The curriculum over-determination and academic policy have a substantial impact around these emerging debates. Its significance is articulated through a reformulation of the curriculum notion as a complicated conversation (Pinar, 2006; 2011) framed by the complex relationships with society and culture.

Emerging debates are among the social problem and academic knowledge. Given their contingent character, they belong to a set of options that were historically discarded, denied as social problems and therefore treated in spaces outside the curriculum. By positioning academically, joining the university discourse, take shape as floating signifiers (Laclau, 1990). The emerging debates arise as what de Alba (2006; 2007; 2009) calls Generalized Structural Crisis (CEG). In the transition between the twentieth and twenty first Centuries, CEG manifests through what de Alba calls "disruptive traits", "elements from other structures" and "new and original items."

Discourse Theory and Political Analysis and Genealogy are articulated in this study. This route leads to the passage from the genealogy to the genealogical curriculum studies that recognizes subjects and university culture in its stage. The relationship between university, society and power are considered constituent elements of that curricular grammar.

Key words: University curriculum, complicated conversation, Generalized Structural Crisis (CEG), Emerging Debates.

1. The University Curriculum in the 21st Century

In the late twentieth century, neoliberal policy established a considerable consensus in academic contexts. The historical period between 1989 and 2001 exacerbated many technicalities present in the university curriculum and transformed the educational problems into curricular matters. The aim of this study is to think about university curriculum notions that go beyond the technical rationality and reflect the current social demands through the so-called *Emerging Debates* (DE, as per its Spanish acronym). The *Emerging Debates* are those issues, discussions and cultural demands that are common to the social groups and which, installed as a contingent claim, deserve to be treated in the university education. This is how environmental education, multiple literacy, social inclusion, multiculturalism, gender analysis, among other notions, are considered. The curriculum over-determination processes and academic policies are important in the decision regarding the inclusion of these problems in the university curriculum. The significance of the *Emerging Debates* is articulated with a semantic reconstruction of the curriculum notion framed by the complex relations with society and culture. The DE are found between the social issues and the academic knowledge. It is their problematic character what makes us interested in their establishment as an object of analysis, transforming a social problem of common sense into an academic problem and thus giving it an emerging entity. *Unlike the scientific discourse, the expression* "Social Issue" is usually found in the "doxa", that is to say, what circulates as a belief in the mass media, journalistic discourse and everyday life. We refer to the repeated sense, the evident saying, what is presupposed and recurrently reiterated in the sayings of a community (Saur, 2011:76).

As regards the subjective construction, the *Emerging Debates* arise in the social antagonism (Laclau, 1990) by preventing the subjects from being themselves and leading to the exclusion of the social identities. The decision of educating around these problems is based on the fact that what is left aside and outside the social considerations is the

very own subject condition. The emergency with which these situations become problems causes the subject to be forgotten. Given their contingent character, the DE belong to a set of options that were historically discarded, denied as social problems and therefore treated outside the curricular areas. By positioning academically, joining the university discourse, take shape as floating signifiers (Laclau, 1990, p. 44). The flotation of signifiers is a consequence of the structural arbitrariness of the sign, where a unique signifier can be related to different things signified in different contexts with social, cultural and geographical over-determinations that prevent to structurally tie a unique thing signified to the floating category, which is never completely filled with meaning. The *Emerging Debates* arise in what de Alba (2006; 2007; 2009) calls Generalized Structural Crisis (CEG, as per its Spanish acronym). The CEG is understood as the general weakening of the elements of the relational systems of different interrelated structures that at the same time constitute a bigger structure and that define the identities of their social, political and cultural spaces, which leads to the proliferation of floating elements. That is to say, to the weakening of the elements of the economical, political, social, cultural, educational and cognitive structures, among others. A Generalized Structural Crisis is characterized by the un-structuring of structures rather than by the structuring of new structures, even though in its core complex phenomena to articulate are produced, such as the world's social environments" (2009, p. 29,30). The author places the CEG in the transition between the 20th and the 21st Centuries and to recognize it in the un-structuring process allows her to identify it in broad time frames that may facilitate the constitution of new structures, produced in a variety of manners based on the regions and countries, or social groups. A characteristic of this un-structuring process is that it requires new ways of thinking and acting, trying out new lifestyles and language games, and when a certain degree of structure and articulation is achieved, are recognized as social environments. CEG situations tend to finish when new figures are configured in the world. In the transition between the 20th and the 21st Centuries, CEG situations are shown through what de Alba calls "disruptive traits", "elements from other structures" and "new and original items." These three components are articulated in the so-called "social environments" to offer some kind of answer to the CEG. As the names that we decide to include in the series of an inclusive signifier such as DE appear, that articulation ability arises.

2. The Genealogical Curriculum Studies

We understand the curriculum as a complicated conversation (Pinar, 2011) given the simultaneity of cultural, political, subjective and pedagogical practices involved. Inscribed in the public sphere where knowledge and power tense, the curriculum scenarios lead to the acknowledgment of discourses that signal conflicts between the hegemony and the counter-hegemony as it may occur that it refers to practices that are conservative of the order established or that it refers to non-legitimate, resistance practices.

This kind of study is an intellectual challenge which involves the post-structuralist perspectives (Cherryholmes; 1999) placed in the articulations between the Discourse Theory and Political Analysis and Genealogy. The methodologist route leads to the passage from the genealogical studies to the curriculum genealogy. The philosophical level related with the construction of this methodology allows the recognition of the pedagogical subjects, the university culture and its relationship with society, and the power as the constituents of this curricular grammar. What becomes visible is the event, which appears where it is less expected, to recognize it in the different curricular scenes. The genealogy allows creating a discourse through the small appearances. Importance is given to those unconnected data which, at a first glance, seem meaningless. It implies following the thread of the origin and finding out what happened with dispersion, locating accidents, deviations. Including the classic question of genealogy, which asks *how did we get here?* The event, the creativity and the expressiveness of the DE are registered through the construction of biographical spaces and through the recognition of discourse in its material surfaces, which cannot be detached from the historical scenes.

The Discourse Theory and Political Analysis is a perspective that expresses the interest upon the political dimension of significance, because of the partial fixation of the things signified built in what is written, said, the actions, objects and social relations. Buenfil Burgos (2012, p. 56) affirms that it is an analysis or an understanding horizon rather than a theory or a methodology. In its inter-disciplinary configuration, it involves categories that come from philosophy, political theory, semiology and psychoanalysis, and a variety of approaches such as post-structuralism post-Marxism, hermeneutics and pragmatism. It is built upon conceptual pillars such as *discourse, hegemony* and *subjetivation*, considered by this author as source categories frequently used with implications towards other categories such as *antagonism* and articulation (Laclau & Mouffe). This perspective allows us to analyze the curriculum field as a discursive construction politically involved. From this perspective the curriculum is considered as a fold in a textual pattern that takes shape because of the existing tensions between the political matters, the conflict and what is institutive.

2.1   Curriculum and Gender Studies

Gender studies are emerging discourses that express the claim of collectivities whose identities have been denied, made invisible, quieted by school tradition. In the curriculum history the gender perspective is introduced along with the critical theories. In those contributed by sociology, ethnography, cultural studies and critical pedagogy. The latter actively fought for the development of knowledge on behalf of the oppressed, quieted and marginalized, and noted the fundamental role of school in the reproduction of inequalities. The progress of feminist studies revealed that the power structure responds both to the social organization of the capitalist mode of production and to a patriarchal regime that establishes a differential access to society's material and symbolic resources to the detriment of women. The fact that the class concept was insufficient to explain the different aspects of social inequalities opened a gap for the incorporation of the curriculum to the categories of race, ethnic group, gender.

The gender studies are oriented to questioning the idea that feminine and masculine identities are tied to an essential nucleus of fixed biological characteristics, exposing how men and women identities are subject to historical processes of social construction. These studies refer to a diverse and interdisciplinary field in which the social and cultural construction of sexuality is the central topic. They resulted in the emergence of a post-identity line of thought called the *queer* movement. Butler (1990) states that the founding categories of sex, gender and desire derive from a specific power formation that requires a critical questioning that can be approached through the genealogical method. The phallogocentrism and the mandatory heterosexuality are questioned, deprived from their center; a desedimentation process is performed to them. These ideas intensify the questioning of the inflexibility of the sexual identities and understand masculinity or femininity as a social device that produces these categories within the performativity of a discourse that is limited to the sex category. The consequences of the aforementioned postulates impact directly over the decentralization of the Cartesian subject. The *queer pedagogy* condemns that the gender issues have been included in the curriculum and assimilated to the stipulations and patterns that lead to teaching under dominant social guidelines. It proposes a decentralization of the conventional ways of thinking, a new epistemology with the aim of dismantling the logic that builds the binary normal/abnormal regime. It challenges the traditional gender and sexual boundaries, defying the masculine/feminine, man/woman, and heterosexual/homosexual dichotomies.

The DE play a fundamental role in the construction of social identities. They are unsatisfied demands that, equivalently articulated with other demands, start building a social subjectivity that is acknowledged in an unfair or undesirable situation. In the recognition of a given situation as oppressive arises a collective identity that is constituted in the denunciation process itself, in the resistance that determines its conflicting position towards a system that oppresses and disowns.

2.2   The Emergence of Social Inclusion in University

According with de Piero (2005, p. 61), a series of transformations that reflect the origination of new social demands have occurred in the current context. These new demands arise from the construction of identities that are no longer necessarily related with tradition in the political movements of the 20th Century but tend to reinforce aspects related with private life and subjectivity, which are now presented as demands in the new public sphere. Through a genealogical approach we emphasize how these demands reach university, how they are discussed by the university subjects, how they are transformed into academic knowledge. The *social inclusion* is an interaction dynamic that acts over the state, economy and social spheres. Thus, the factors that influence and determine the social inclusion of subjects are diverse and relate to cultural, social or political aspects. Buenfil Burgos (1993, p. 20) affirms that it is the physical and symbolic insertion of subjects into the social structure what will allow them to be part of a collectivity or social group that provides identity, self-esteem and a sense of belonging. On the other hand, the ideas presented by Cueto and Salinas Fernández (2010) are also valid. They state that social inclusion gives the subjects the possibility to live life to the full, to satisfy their basic needs of survival and physical protection, and other needs related to participation, understanding, idleness, identity, freedom, creation and transcendence; being the satisfying factors dependant upon the economical and social development of the territory they inhabit.. This situation is indissolubly tied to the possibility of an effective exercise of the citizenship rights, understood as the fact of belonging to a shared community of values. As a public institution, the university consolidates its relationship with society by responding to its demands. It can be inclusive in two ways: by allowing the access to popular classes and by the incorporation of knowledge derived from the popular field. González Arroyo (2010, p. 129) states that by reversing this relationship, the focus changes. Now the issue is no longer what public education must give to society but rather what the most defying matters are. This way, he suggests facing the interrogations that come from the poor collectivities and treating them in

teaching and the curricula. If the depauperate collectivities re-politicize the curriculum, then the academic knowledge, the professions and the university subject are included.

We may ask ourselves if the curriculum allows for this kind of social inclusion or generates adaptations that change the surface but not necessarily their foundation. López Melero (2010) leys down a typology that allows analyzing the education practices by means of the tension between inclusion/exclusion of the subjects through four perspectives: *oblivion or abandonment, assimilationist, Integrationist and inclusive.*

2.3 The Multiple Literacy in the University Curriculum

Over the last few years, the need to include other knowledge areas began to arise. This led to *multiple literacy*, refers to digital literacy, media, citizen, economic and emotional literacy and also to the technological change. Angulo Rasco and Vázquez Recio (2010) highlight that in 1996, *The New London Group* published an article in which they intended to expand the conception about teaching a language, emphasizing the multiplicity of discourses. They point out two main aspects that characterize this multiplicity*:* the growing cultural and linguistic diversity of societies and the variety of textual formats related with multimedia information technology.

To deal with the curriculum as a *battle field* that gives meaning to new languages, debates and social constructions (de Alba, 2007) allows that social heritage and traditions that combine with unknown possibilities are recovered. The *new languages* go beyond communication and construction of knowledge that lead to other ways of production and culture transmission. Given the prominence of the image, audiovisual and digital languages in the CEG, we will now analyze what Torres Santomé (2011) calls *information technology revolution and communications revolution.* This author points out the effects over the ways in which information is communicated and managed as a result of the appearance of new supports such as e-books, e-magazines, e-newspapers. These technological environments generate new ways of "being" in the world. Regarding what he calls *curricular justice*, he warns that it is possible that technology turns into an instrument that deepens the processes of both social inclusion and social exclusion. Given that, he mentions the importance of a digital literacy that works towards the grasping of digital languages and digital knowledge. The emergence of these technologies is not innocuous; and it will be the place from which they are incorporated into a socio educational practice what will determine their contribution to the education of socially included critical subjects. The hypertext of languages is red from a semiotic perspective, referring to the simultaneous and independent combination of the sound, the moving image and the involvement of a new rhetoric.

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The assessment of learning in initial teacher training: from the program guidelines to teachers' discourses about their assessment practices

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Introduction

Nowadays, in Portugal, university education is faced with the need for a change in the pedagogical paradigm and assessment of learning. The training process directed towards study and the autonomous work of the students call for the use of active teaching methodologies and the carrying out of an assessment practice that allows us to evaluate the diverse skills that future teachers have to acquire in their preparation. In this context, we have carried out research on the evaluation practices of the learning done by teachers/instructors of primary school teachers at the Universidade de Trás-os-Montes e Alto Douro, which we will present below and comment upon.

Therefore, we begin by discussing the preparation of teachers in the context of the information and knowledge society and, furthermore, in the context of the Bologna Treaty. Later, we discuss the theory behind the assessment of teaching at the university level and we describe the problems, the objectives, and the methodology of the research used. Finally, we will present and reflect upon the results obtained.

The initial preparation of teachers in the new context and with a new teaching objective.

The signing of the Declaration of Bologna, in 1999, by the countries of the European Union, of which Portugal is a member, has brought profound changes in the structure and in the organization of teaching in these countries. This declaration was signed in a globalized economic and social context where the concerns with the affirmation of a Europe of knowledge, which promotes a qualified employability capable of competing internationally, with innovation and with social cohesion, have led to this restructuring of higher education (Declaração de Bolonha, 1999; Pacheco, 2011; Simão, Santos, & Costa, 2005).

Since it is known that institutions of higher learning are privileged to be able to create the conditions of "cognitive production of knowledge related to specific contexts of the economy" (Pacheco, 2011, p. 19), the required social and economic knowledge is conceptual but also procedural and attitudinal.   Furthermore, it is not enough to have this knowledge, since students have to know how to use it, in an integrated way, to be able to solve problems or situations in which they might find themselves in their life or in their profession. It is in this context that in the training of teachers on the university level it is necessary to acquire or develop professional, personal, and social skills. (Pacheco, 2011; Perrenoud, 2001; Seco *et al*, 2011). Due to these new demands of the economy and society on training at a higher education level, the process of teaching and learning must be carried out with active methods for the students involved (Morgado, 2009) and the learning must be autonomously constructed by them, as foreseen in the Declaration of Bologna (1999).

Likewise, the initial training of teachers, which constitutes a first stage in their training throughout life (Ponte, 2005; Roldão, 2002), has had to be re-dimensioned, either because of the demands of the abovementioned declaration, or because of the professional demands the teachers encounter in their daily school routine. As well as learning scientific-technical knowledge, future teachers should acquire and develop skills that are curricular, pedagogical-didactic, organizational, and ethical. These should be ones of reflection, of critical, communicational, and relational thinking, of cooperation and decision making (Alonso, 2005; Seco *et al*, 2011) that enable them to analyze, reflect on and make decisions *vis a vis* real problems or situations in teaching.

Therefore, this initial teacher training must be constructed by the future teachers by way of their confrontation with real teaching situations, which lead them to mobilize, in an integrated way, diverse types of knowledge and skills, in order to solve or make efficient decisions for these situations. That is why it makes sense for this training, besides having a theoretical component that would help them to know how to analyze and reflect on the

problems or teaching functions, to include a practical component, in which they might observe, cooperate and be responsible for the activities and teaching functions, in a logic of integrated training where theory and practice are developed in an interacting way. (Ferreira, 2012).

Assessment of learning in the initial training of teachers

Given that nowadays teaching should be centered on the learning and the autonomous work of future teachers, by way of which they build knowledge and acquire the necessary skills for teaching, the assessment of this learning should not be based solely on the measuring of the learning results at the end of each study unit, usually done by way of tests and exams**.** (Fernandes, 2010). This is because the assessment of the skills presupposes that it is integrated into the teaching and learning process. It should be based on the contexts of execution, in which future teachers mobilize cognitive, affective, and social resources, in a perspective of knowledge transferability. (Pacheco, 2011). They should also be active central players in the assessment process, by way of their self-assessment. Therefore, the assessment consists of the gathering and the continuous analysis of information about the learning process, by way of its comparison with a reference point circumscribed by criteria, with the aim of a diagnosis of the learning carried out and the difficulties or errors the future teachers come across in the carrying out of the learning tasks. (Alves, 2004; Ferreira, 2007). With this continuous diagnosis of the learning process of each future teacher it is possible to engage or negotiate with him/her, or even he/she might decide the strategies of regulating the learning process that could allow him/her to surpass these difficulties or improve his/her learning. All this assessment practice, besides presupposing, more than anything, a type of teaching directed towards professional skills and fundamental transversals, implies diversifying the objective and the instruments of assessment. Once the skill is carried out in the context of learning tasks that call for reflection and critical thinking and the transferability of knowledge (Pacheco, 2011), observation of the students during the tasks, which must be properly planned and executed, constitutes a means of continuous gathering of information about how these students solve these tasks, problems or teaching situations proposed. In this way, Santos (2003, p. 18) affirms that "observing the students during the carrying out of a task is certainly a promising way to understand how the students act *vis a vis* the unforeseen and if they are capable of transferring the resources that they possess to new situations." In addition to observation, oral discussion and written essays on situations or problems of an educational nature, the tutorial practices and monitoring of the students in their learning, as well as the construction and evaluating reflection of portfolios constitute adequate techniques and instruments for the assessment of professional skills. (Ferreira, 2012).

On the other hand, once students take on an active part in the construction of their learning, they cannot be excluded from the evaluating practice. By way of discussing and interiorizing the evaluating criteria of each task in which they are involved in their learning process, future teachers reflect, in a critical and detached way, on what they are doing or have just done (Simão, 2005). In this fashion they exert a continuous self-control of their learning, becoming aware of the learning they are doing and the difficulties they feel and delineate, or negotiate with the teacher, a strategy to surpass these difficulties.

Research methodology on the practices of learning assessment in the initial training of primary school teachers.

Given the pedagogical and evaluating changes that the Bologna process has brought to the initial training of primary school teachers we consider it opportune to present data on the assessment practices carried out by the university professors at the Universidade de Trás-os-Montes e Alto Douro (UTAD) who teach in the Masters courses that prepare future teachers for this teaching level.

In this way, the formulated research problem consisted in the following: what are the discourses of professors at UTAD who train future primary schools on their assessment practices of learning? Therefore, the objectives we wish to meet with the study are the following:

-Understand the concept of the learning assessment of university teachers involved in the initial training of primary school teachers;

-Characterize the assessment practices of learning related in the discourses of the university teachers;

-Verify the role of future teachers in the assessment process of their learning;

-Verify the obstacles felt by the university teachers in the carrying out of the assessment practices.

The problem of research and the objectives we tried to meet have led us to the option of using a qualitative research methodology (Bogdan & Biklen, 1994), based on, firstly (the school year of 2011/2012), the gathering of and analysis of the programs of the curricular units of the Masters programs in: Teaching in Primary School and Pre-school at UTAD. Following this (the school year of 2012/2013), we carried out semi-structured interviews with four teachers who taught in the Masters courses for preparing primary school teachers in order to have access to their discourses on their assessment practices of the preparation of future primary school teachers. Our aim was to understand the assessment decisions taken in the programs of the curricular units and their practices of learning assessment. The programs were submitted to documental analysis (Sousa, 2005), allowing us to focus the main ideas described on the foreseen assessment in each curricular unit, to register and enumerate the frequency of the assessment techniques and the instruments described in these programs. This information was presented in a table that registered the assessment techniques and instruments and their frequency by course. The data gathered by way of interviews were transcribed and submitted to the analysis of content, with an emergent categorization, from which several categories and sub-categories resulted. (Esteves, 2006).

The assessment registers of the programs of the curricular units

The registers on the learning assessment that the teachers of the Masters courses that train future primary school teachers at UTAD, made in the programs of the respective curricular units, have to be seen as a set of pre-active decisions, fitted into an educational and didactic project (Pacheco, 1996), which can suffer alterations resulting from the negotiation of the assessment with the future teachers, from contextual factors, and available time. On the other hand, we did not find in the programs any detailed registers on the assessment practice, from which we concluded that this practice would be constructed throughout each curricular unit in interaction with the students.

After considering all these factors, the analysis carried out in the programs demonstrated a certain variety of registers on proceedings and assessment instruments of learning. We found the register of tests as the only assessment tool in only two curricular units. In eight (8) curricular units we verified that students were to be evaluated with tests and academic papers. Furthermore, in fifteen (15) curricular units, besides the tests and papers, the teachers planned to evaluate the participation of the students in the classes, without specifying what and how they would be evaluated. In only three (3) curricular units was self-evaluation of the future teachers contemplated, without specifying how and when this would be carried out. The assessment instruments that appeared more frequently were tests (10 registers) and academic papers (8 registers). These were bibliographic review on a topic, class plans, reports, and pedagogical or research projects on an educational problem. It should be pointed out that each instrument and/or assessment procedure was given a percentage for the final classification of each future teacher in each curricular unit, with participation and self-evaluation counting respectively for up to 10% of the total assessment of the students.

In conclusion we verified that the assessment registers made in the programs, despite mentioning characteristic aspects of training assessment (like self-evaluation and class participation), contained, above all, guidelines for the carrying out of the practice of total assessment, expressed by the classification of the students in each curricular unit. (Ferreira, 2007; 2012).

The reports of the teachers on their practices of learning assessment

The discourses of the teachers on their practices of learning assessment demonstrated that, for them, assessment is not exclusively everything, but is also one of training, with a continuous diagnosis of the learning processes of the students (Ferreira, 2007), in order to be able to regulate them properly, as , for example, we can see in the following discourse:

> "Evaluating the students is to try to accompany them during the learning process in order to see their difficulties and try to solve them, but at the same time, as we try to do, classify the students and assess them positively or negatively" (Professor D).

Therefore, the assessment practices as related by the teachers did not only contemplate total assessment, as was more evident in the registers of the programs of curricular units, but also a training dimension. In order to carry out this practice, the teachers declared that they had the objectives of their curricular unit as a base, or the assessment criteria of each instrument registered in the programs and the learning tasks proposed in the classes, (Alves, 2004) which the students were aware of. This we can see in the following transcription:

"To always have the need to define the tasks that they (the students) have to carry out, to always present the assessment criteria for these tasks. They always have the knowledge of these assessment criteria, in the sense of knowing what is expected when they do their task." (Professor C).

The teachers affirmed they had carried out the practice of training assessment by way of the monitoring they tried to give to the future teachers in the carrying out of learning tasks, either in the different tasks foreseen in their total assessment or in the feedback on the difficulties or errors committed and what the students were doing well in these tasks, regulating the learning process. These tasks or projects, according to the teachers interviewed, dealt with problems or teaching situations the future teachers would encounter in their teaching career, in a perspective of professional and transversal skills development (Alonso, 2005; Pacheco, 2011):

"For example, let us see if they leave a card at the end of the class with their doubts, so that they can ponder over what they did not understand and that is where I start the following classes" (Professor A).

"Later, the practical part [of the class], in which they are doing group work, I monitor this work in the classes. Usually, I ask for the rough draft of the index of the project and I correct this index, so they don't do it wrong. Then, when they begin to construct the project and to write, I begin to correct them (…)" (Professor B).

In the context of the carrying out of the practice of training assessment, two (2) university teachers declared that they created moments for the self-evaluation of the future teachers, performed by way of defined objectives for a set of classes, or of assessment criteria for each learning task, in order to become aware of the learning done and their difficulties. (Simão, 2005):

"After teaching specific content that I consider important, after this content, I ask them to reflect on, to self-evaluate this learning. During the semester there are five moments of this reflection and, therefore, I give them a card with the learning objectives to see how they position themselves at the end of the sequence of classes" (Professor A).

As a result of the diagnosis of the learning difficulties of the future teachers made by the university teacher of the curricular unit, or by the student him/herself, a strategy to regulate the learning was used, which, according to what the university teachers told us, consisted in the repetition of problematic content in the following classes, in the inter-help of the other classmates who had no difficulties, or in supplementary study with other texts that the university teachers provided. These were, in effect, regulatory strategies of retroactive and interactive nature (Ferreira, 2007).

In the carrying out of the training and end assessment of the future primary school teachers, the university teachers mentioned that they had problems in monitoring the students during the performance of the learning tasks, simultaneously with the assessment, and in the feedback that they would have liked to give in a more detailed way and sooner. These difficulties were a result of the high number of students these university teachers declared to have and the diversity of curricular units they taught, which did not give them enough time to monitor the students appropriately and kept them from providing the descriptive and timely feedback on the learning, such as they would have desired.

Final considerations

The results of the research carried out up to now demonstrate alterations in the concepts of the assessment of the teaching of the university teachers and of their assessment practices. Thus, they no longer see assessment only as a measurement of the learning results of the students, translated into a mark, but also include an assessment of the learning process from the perspective of the training and the trainer.

If the programs of the analyzed curricular units demonstrate, above all, predictions for the practice of summative assessment, in the classroom, they showed the practice of training assessment through the observation and monitoring of the students during learning tasks and, moreover, the feedback they have been providing to the future teachers about the project they were doing. In addition, some university teachers demonstrated their concern with the creation of moments of self-evaluation of the learning made by the students, although without a very structured and systematic practice.

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The Agronomic Engineering Course in Brazil And The National Curriculum Guidelines: A Case Study

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Abstract

This is research that aims to identify and analyze the impact of the National Curriculum Guidelines (n.1 Resolution of 01/02/2006) and the changes imposed on the curriculum of Agronomic Engineering Course from a public university located in the state of São Paulo, Brazil. The curriculum guidelines for undergraduate courses in Brazil indicate the skills and abilities of graduates, as well as the minimum curriculum components of courses. Data were collected through document analysis and interviews with teachers. The results indicate, among other things, the predominance of theoretical-practical classes and credits over other teaching methodologies and credits-work. Among the basic content was found among certain emphasis contents related to biology and chemistry between the fundamentals of the course. With regard to professional content seems to be a key focus demand among the aspects of "trial and expertise." There is also considerable workload distributed among the contents of "genetics and improvements, management, production and forestry, animal husbandry and crop science", with 780 hours soils, "management and conservation of soil and water, plant nutrition and fertilization", with 420 hours, and "microbiology and plant", with 240 hours.

Keywords: curriculum; higher education; curriculum challenges.

1. Introduction

This work came from the initial analysis of the compulsory subjects curriculum present in the agricultural engineering course curriculum model from a state public university in São Paulo, in the period 2008-2012. The authors sought to identify the correspondence between the proposed changes to the syllabus of the course subjects referred to in the text of the Federal Resolution No. 1 of 02 February 2006 establishing the National Curriculum Guidelines - DCN - for undergraduate courses of Agricultural Engineering and Agronomy.

2. Object

The objective of the research was to identify what were the proposed changes to the curriculum of the course of agricultural engineering in the period 2008-2012. From this initial identification was verified the occurrence (or not) influence the text of Resolution n.1/2006 the set of proposed changes to the course curriculum cited above

3. Method

The research was based on the technique of document analysis. The methodological tool supported the organization of the compulsory curriculum subjects as well as the subsequent analysis of the proposed curriculum changes.

In 2006 the Resolution No. 1 was approved to establish the National Curriculum Guidelines for Undergraduate courses in Agricultural Engineering and Agronomy and instituting changes in curricular courses.

Within this research we analyzed only the amendments made to the compulsory subjects, in relation to the workload, number of credits and class work. The survey was conducted in a school of higher education linked to a public university located about 160 km from the capital of São Paulo.

4. Presentation of Data

Table 1 shows the number of key disciplines, workload and credits that correspond to core basic contents of NCG and Table 2 does the same presentation to the core content of key professionals.

Table 1: Basic core content or second Agronomical Eng. Course according to DCN, 2012.

I - Núcleo de Conteúdos Básicos	Nº Disc	Créd.	CH
Math	1	6	90
Physics	1	4	60
Chemistry	2	10	150
Biology	4	16	240
Statics	1	4	60
Informatics	0	0	0
Graphical Expression	0	0	0
Total	**9**	**40**	**600**

Table 2: Core content professionals essential to the course of Agronomic Engineer, according to the DCN, 2012.

Legenda	II - Núcleo de Conteúdos Profissionais Essenciais	Nº Disc.	Créd.	CH
A	Climatology and Agrometeorology	1	4	60
B	Assessment and Skills	0	0	0
C	Biotechnology, Plant and Animal Physiology	3	10	150
D	Cartography and GIS Georeferencing	2	11	180
E	Communication, Ethics, Legislation, Extension and Rural Sociology	1	4	60
F	Contruções Rural Landscape, Floriculture, Parks and Gardens	2	8	120
G	Economics, Agribusiness Management, Policy and Rural Development	2	6	90
H	Energy, Machines, Agricultural Mechanization and Logistics	2	6	90
I	Genetic Improvement, Management and Production and Forestry, Animal Husbandry and Crop	11	50	780
J	Business Management, Marketing and Agribusiness	1	2	30
K	Hydraulics, Hydrology, Watershed Management, Irrigation and Drainage Systems	3	12	180
L	Management and Environmental Management	2	9	150
M	Microbiology and Plant	4	16	240
N	systems Agroindustrias	1	4	60
O	Soils, Management and Conservation of Soil and Water, Plant Nutrition and Fertilization	8	27	420
P	Experimental Techniques and Analysis	1	4	60

Q	Production Technology, Quality Control and Postharvest Agricultural Products		2	4	60
	Total		**46**	**177**	**2730**

5. Compulsory Curriculum Framework Analysis of Agronomic Engineering Course Studied in Relation To The Brazilian National Curricular Guidelines

The DCN provides in it's Article 7 the content required for the course in Agricultural Engineering, in order to divide them into three sections:

I. Core Basic Contents: provide the theoretical base for the profession;

II. Core Contents Professionals Essentials: corresponds to fields of knowledge for the characterization of professional identity with identification of tasks, duties and responsibilities;

III. Core Content Specific Professional: provides the improvement of vocational training.

According to DCN, the learning content can be organized and administered from different teaching methodologies, named:

a) Participation in conferences and lectures;

b) Testing in field or laboratory;

c) Use of computer systems;

d) Queries to the library;

e) Study tours;

f) Technical visits;

g) Research topics and bibliography;

h) Research and extension projects;

i) Stages in vocational institutions accredited by the HEI;

j) Meetings, conferences, exhibitions, competitions, seminars, symposia, discussion forums, etc..

In Table 3 we present the curriculum of the Agronomy Course, containing the courses, number of credits, workload and which core content of DCN they fit. Analyzing it, you may notice a slight predominance of practical classes rather than other teaching methods, this fact is evidenced by the number of credits-class, 207, compared to the number of credits-work, 5.

Importantly, some subjects in classes, work with methods such as experimentation in the laboratory or field conditions, use of computer systems, field trips, visits and techniques, research topics and literature. You need to detail the study to analyze the frequency of use of these practices, as well as their learning outcomes.

As the core of basic content, we found that it worked in nine disciplines of the 1st and 2nd semester of the course. These disciplines include five of the seven basic contents (Table 2), not addressing Graphic Expression and Information. Also, we see the emphasis on biology and chemistry, as fundamentals of Agronomic Engineering course.

Table 3: compulsory curriculum matrix to the engineering course. Agronomic, 2012.

nº	Disciplina	Créditos		CH	Núcleo
		Aula	Trabalho		
1	Introduction to Agricultural Engineering	2	0	30	
2	Plant Morphology	4	0	60	Biology
3	Differential and Integral Calculus	6	0	90	Math
4	Inorganic Chemistry and Analytical	6	0	90	Chemistry
5	Introduction to Management	2	0	30	G
6	General Zoology and Parasitology	4	0	60	Biology
7	Cell Biology	4	0	60	Biology
8	General Animal Science	4	0	60	I
8	Sub-total	32	0	480	
9	biochemistry	4	0	60	Chemistry
10	Systematic botany	4	0	60	Biology
11	General Statistics	4	0	60	Statiscs
12	Agricultural Environmental Physics	4	0	60	Physics
13	Fundamentals of Economics, Policy and Development	4	0	60	G
14	Molecular Genetics	2	0	30	C
15	Geology Applied to Soils	2	0	30	O
16	Anatomy and Physiology	4	0	60	C
8	Sub-total	28	0	420	
17	Plant Physiology	4	0	60	C
18	Agricultural Meteorology	4	0	60	A
19	Surveying and GIS I	6	0	90	D
20	microbiology	4	0	60	M
21	genetics	4	0	60	I
22	Chemistry and Soil Fertility	4	0	60	O
23	Soil Physics	2	0	30	O
24	Animal Nutrition	4	0	60	I
8	Sub-total	32	0	480	
25	Sugar and Alcohol	4	0	60	N
26	Plant Ecology	4	0	60	L
27	General Entomology	4	0	60	M
27	Surveying and GIS II	4	1	90	D
28	Phytopathology	4	0	60	M
29	breeding	4	0	60	I
30	Soil Biology	2	0	30	O
31	Genesis, Morphology and Classification of Soils	4	0	60	O
32	Forage Plants and Pastures	4	0	60	I
9	Sub-total	34	1	540	
33	Quality and Processing of Foods of Animal Origin	2	0	30	Q
34	Postharvest and Food Processing Plants	2	0	30	Q
35	Pests of Cultivated Plants	4	0	60	M
36	Motor Mechanics and Machinery	2	0	30	H
37	Business Management Agribusiness	2	0	30	J
38	Fruticultura	4	0	60	I
39	Horticulture, Floriculture and Landscaping	4	0	60	I e F

40	Mineral Nutrition of Plants	4	0	60	O
41	Fertilizers and Fertilization	2	1	60	O
9	Sub-total	**26**	**1**	**420**	
42	Experimental Statistics	4	0	60	P
43	Agricultural Machines and Implements	4	0	60	H
44	hydraulics	4	0	60	K
45	Production of Cotton, Rice, Coffee and Wheat	4	0	60	I
46	Production of Sugarcane, Cassava and Soybean	4	0	60	I
47	Management and Soil Conservation	6	0	90	O
6	Sub-total	**26**	**0**	**390**	
46	Forestry Agricultural Properties	4	1	90	I e L
47	Rural Construction and Technical Drawing	4	0	60	F
48	Hydrology and Drainage	4	0	60	K
49	irrigation	4	0	60	K
50	Sociology and Extension	4	0	60	E
51	Control Weeds	4	1	90	I
6	Sub-total	**24**	**2**	**420**	
52	Production of Beans, Corn and Sorghum	4	0	60	I
1	Sub-total	**4**	**0**	**60**	
53	Final Project in Agricultural Engineering	1	1	45	
1	Sub-total	**1**	**1**	**45**	
53	**Total**	**207**	**5**	**3255**	

Abbreviations for the core disciplines according to DCN: A - Climatology and Agrometeorology; B - Evaluation and Skills; C - Biotechnology, Animal and Plant Physiology, D - Cartography and GIS Georeferencing, E - Communication, Ethics, Legislation, Extension and Rural Sociology , F - Contruções Rural Landscape, Floriculture, Parks and Gardens; G - Economics, Agribusiness Management, Policy and Rural Development, H - Energy, Machinery, Agricultural Mechanization and Logistics, I - Genetic Improvement, Management and Production and Forestry, Animal Husbandry and Crop Science, J - Business Management, Marketing and Agribusiness; K - Hydraulics, Hydrology, Watershed Management, Irrigation and Drainage Systems, L - Management and Environmental Management M - Microbiology and Plant, N - Agroindustrias Systems, The - Solos , Management and Conservation of Soil and Water, Plant Nutrition and Fertilization, P - Experimental Techniques and Analysis; Q - Production Technology, Quality Control and Postharvest Agricultural Products

The other compulsory subjects of the course, with the exception of Final Project, refer to Core Contents Professionals Essentials, distributed between the 2nd and the 9th semester. The only content not covered on a compulsory subject specific is the "Evaluation and Skills", which appears transversely in some disciplines.

You can register from Table 3, some concentration in certain teaching contents, and the three with the highest workload are: Genetic Improvement, Management and Production and Forestry, Animal Husbandry and Crop Science, with 780 hours; Microbiology and Plant with 240 hours, and Soil Science, Management and Conservation of Soil and Water, Plant Nutrition and Fertilization, with 420 hours. It is suggested that further studies on the possibility of shading contents in these three cases, due to the high workload observed.

6. Changes in course curriculum of ESALQ's Agronomic Eng. after the imposition of the National Curriculum Guidelines

Since 2007 changes were made in the curriculum of the Agricultural Engineering Course in order to adapt it to Resolution No. 1/2006. To facilitate the process, the higher education institution analyzed formed "Advisory Committee to the Board of Agronomy Academic Project," which suggested major curricular changes for the years 2007 and 2008, ie the years following the enactment of Resolution which established the National Curriculum Guidelines.

a. Proposed Changes for 2007

The subjects who were named according to the area in which they were entered were amended to better describe the content covered, as is observed in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Changes proposed for 2007, name changes of the disciplines.

Departament	2006	2007
Agribusiness, Food and Nutrition	Technology of Agricultural Products I	Quality and Processing of Foods of Animal Origin
	Technology of Agricultural Products II	Postharvest and Food Processing Plants
Soil Science	Soil Science I (4 credits)	Geology (2 credits)
	Soil Science II	Chemistry and Soil Fertility
	Soil Science III	Fertilizers and Fertilization
	Soil Science IV (4 credits)	Soil Physics (2 credits)
Economics, Management and Sociology	Economics and Agribusiness Management	Fundamentals of Economics, Policy, Development and Administration
Plant Production	Agriculture I and Agriculture II	Production of Cotton, Rice, Coffee and Wheat
		Production of Sugarcane, Cassava and Soybean
	Food Plants (Elective Elective)	Production of Beans Corn and Sorghum (Mandatory)
	horticulture II	Fruticultura
	horticulture I	Horticulture, Floriculture and Landscaping
Animal Science	Animal Science I	Non-Ruminant Animal Science
	Animal Science II	Ruminant Animal Science

These changes facilitated the relationship between the subject and the core menu specific content referred to, and therefore better combined with the DCN.

Importantly, the reasons for the proposed changes by the education departments of the institution of higher learning were researched references to compliance with the Law of Guidelines and Bases, or the advisory committee of the Board which indicates some misunderstanding or lack of discussion of the content of the Guidelines National Curriculum and Educational Project Course as sources of motivation to change set.

For changing the discipline of Economics and Agribusiness Management is a need to further study to assess whether the name change also brought a change in the content of the discipline, since the amendment aimed to cover the essential content professionals attended, including Policy and Rural Development. The teaching program in 2012 has the following objective of the course Fundamentals of Economics, Politics and Development:

This course aims to provide the student with the basic knowledge of economic theory applied to problems faced by agriculture and agribusiness. Additionally, models are presented and discussed Economic Development Economic Policy.Dessa forma, Política e Desenvolvimento são tratados sob a ótica da Economia e não de uma forma abrangente de Política e Desenvolvimento voltados para o meio rural e para a sociedade.

Other changes proposed for 2007 in order to meet the DCN are:

• Sociology and modified Extension from 2 to 4 credits, because the content of character is essential;

• Experimental Statistics becomes mandatory and reduces the number of credits from 5 to 4 due to the exclusion of credit work "at the request of the Undergraduate Commission to adjust the curriculum and compulsory excess credits." In this case, the exclusion of credit work had no reflection on the methodology of the discipline, are still required extracurricular student work, requiring much time and represent 20% of the final average.

• Creation of an elective elective Communication, Ethics and Law to meet the contents of the same name, "communication, ethics and law," according to justification "is being proposed at this time, as an optional course aimed suitability ESALQ".

• Creation of required courses Management and Soil Conservation, Soil Biology and Genesis, Morphology and Classification of Soils. There was the exclusion of electives that had similar content to create mandatory.

b.   Proposed Changes for 2008

The Rural Management and Agribusiness elective course change the name to Business Management Agribusiness, credits went from 2 to 4 and content to meet the Resolution 1,010, of 22/08/2005 Confea - Federal Council of Engineering, Architecture and Agronomy) and the DCN. Thus, shall meet the essential content Professional Management and Agribusiness. Simultaneously, it creates discipline Introduction to Management intend to meet essential professional content "Agroindustrial Management".

That same year, the creation of the Work Completion Course in Agronomy was made, determined as required by DCN:

Article 10. The course work is required curricular component, to be held over the course of the last year, focusing on a particular area or theoretical and practical training, as an activity of synthesis and integration of knowledge and consolidation of research techniques.

c.   Proposed Changes for 2009

The disciplines "General Animal Science", "Animal Nutrition" and "Forage Plants and Pastures" were created as required by the changing of the disciplines "Ruminant Animal Science" and "Non-Ruminant Animal Science" for electives. Despite this change to meet the requirements proposed by the DCN in content 'Genetic Improvement, Management and Production and Forestry, Animal Husbandry and Crop', it is proposed by the Department of Animal Science.

d.   Proposed Changes for 2010

The Molecular Genetics compulsory subject is designed to "meeting the guidelines of the courses of Engineering. Agronomy and Forestry ", composing the content of" Biotechnology ". In 2010, the discipline began to be taught to students in the 2nd semester of the course.

In the same period, there was also a change in name and content of the discipline "Communication, Ethics and Law" to "Marketing and Communication in Organizations", whose justification in this service documents graduation was:

The changes in name and content are designed to suit the discipline previously proposed institutional demand and fill gaps in the collection of disciplines offered at ESALQ. The proposed work is the communication from the perspective of professional practice, emphasizing the themes of organizational communication, consumption, advertising, advertising and marketing nowadays.

Such modifications not found why discipline "Communication, Ethics and Law" was created in 2007, "is being proposed at this time, as an optional course aimed suitability ESALQ". Thus, instead of discipline become a mandatory, according to the initial proposal and given the DCN, it changes name and content to meet more specific goals and specific institution in 2010.

The other curriculum changes for 2010 and subsequent years, 2011 and 2012, which relate to the DCN, were requested by the Programme Coordination Committee (Coc) Agricultural Engineering for easing the curriculum by reducing and / or exclusion of pre-requisites.

7. Conclusion

After the analysis of the curriculum of the course agronomy and curriculum changes proposed during the period from 2008 to 2012 identified several aspects were incorporated according to the guidelines of the National Curriculum Guidelines. However it is noteworthy attention to possible overload disciplines in some certain areas. It is worth noting that further studies can verify the occurrence (or not) shader content in more than one discipline.

It also appeared that some of the disciplines created according to the NCG were descaracterizando up with other suggestions for changes in the period. Also the teaching methodologies continue to favor the lecture at the expense of active and participatory methodologies. We identified the absence of disciplines that meet the basic contents of "Computer" and "Graphic Expression" though these contents are cross-cutting and interdisciplinary way of incorporating different teaching plans. This reference could perhaps be explicitly advertised in the educational course.

It is noteworthy that the professional content of "Communication, Ethics, Legislation, Extension and Rural Sociology" corresponds to only one discipline Extension and Rural Sociology 60 hours and the contents of "Communication, Ethics and Law" which appears as the DCN core basic content was proposed, this unit of higher education as an elective and then reformulated in 2010 to "Marketing and Communication in Organizations" which may have corresponded to a removal of the initial propositions of NCG.

Another aspect that deserves attention among professional content is the core of "Evaluation and Skills" that is not covered with any specific discipline although, as in other cases, to be discussed in other disciplines of other professional content. If this content appears between the contents of electives or as part of other disciplines essential this information can be communicated and justified in the educational course.

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The changing landscape of master's degree curricula: a view from New Zealand

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Abstract

Until recently, master's degrees were primarily focused on developing research skills and enabling further specialisation in a subject area studied at undergraduate level. Over the last twenty years their focus has broadened and there is now a wide variety of master's degrees, partly as a result of increasing participation in higher education and also because of the demand for professional qualifications at postgraduate level. Alongside this, not only has there been significant growth in the numbers of master's qualifications, but also increasing variation in terms of the focus of the curriculum and, the volume of work required for completion of the degree. As Davies (2009) so fittingly comments, this variety of modes and purposes gives the master's degree 'a polymorphous character, which is not yet well charted' (p.17). Taking a qualitative approach and using documentary analysis of selected qualifications frameworks and related documentation, this paper explores changing nature of master's degrees and how their characteristics are represented in qualifications frameworks in New Zealand, Australia, the United Kingdom and Europe. Traditionally, the majority of New Zealand master's degrees have been classified as research degrees. We will examine the recent changes to master's degrees in New Zealand, and discuss these in relation to master's qualifications elsewhere, highlighting key features and differences, including those related to curriculum structures.

Keywords: master's degrees; qualification structures; postgraduate research and coursework; curriculum studies.

1   Introduction

The master's degree has undergone significant transformation in the last twenty years; its original focus on advanced or specialised study in a discipline studied at undergraduate level combined with developing research skills (McInnis, James & Morris, 1995) has widened to encompass professional practice, or conversion to a new discipline (Davies, 2009). Master's degrees are often being completed as terminal qualifications for career entry or enhancement rather than as preparation for doctoral research (Conrad, Haworth & Millar, 1993; Rogers, 2008). It is evident in a number of countries that coursework (taught) master's degrees have experienced exponential growth. For example, coursework master's completions in Australia increased from around 25,000 to 68,000 (172%) from 2000 to 2011 (Australian Government Statistics, 2013); likewise in the UK there was 156% growth in taught master's over this period (HESA, 2013).

The variation in purpose of master's degrees has led to different curriculum structures, delivery modes and duration of the qualification. As Davies (2009) comments, the variety of modes and purposes gives the master's degree 'a polymorphous character, which is not yet well charted' (p.17). One mechanism for defining and classifying qualifications such as master's degrees is a qualification framework (QF). Overarching national qualification frameworks (NQF) are a relatively new phenomenon in most European countries (Ulicna & Coles, 2011) but have existed for more than twenty years in NZ and Australia. There are five QFs in use in the UK, with the earliest one being the Scottish framework which was based on reforms introduced first in the 1980s (Raffe, 2009). These frameworks were initially designed to classify academic and/or vocational qualifications in a hierarchical system within the home country or region, but are now being mapped against each other or to a meta-framework such as the 2005 Framework for Qualifications of the European Higher education Area (FQ-EHEA) and/or the European Qualifications Framework

(EQF). The EQF was developed in 2008 and is closely aligned to the FQ-HEA; both aim to support student mobility and portability of qualifications (Bjørnåvold , 2007; Cort, 2010).

In addition to a communicative role some QFs are designed to direct policy, such as the FQ-EHEA which seeks to 'harmonise systems' (Bjørnåvold, 2007, p. 9) or act as 'regulatory devices' (Blackmur 2004, p. 267). The desire for greater recognition of qualifications beyond national boundaries and political agendas has in many cases strengthened the position of these frameworks. For example, in Australia, the establishment of Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency (TEQSA) in 2011 has reinforced the Australian Qualification Framework's (AQF) role in regulation by requiring that higher education providers and their programmes meet the corresponding specifications in the AQF level descriptors by 2015 (TEQSA, 2013) which are an inherent part of the broader Threshold Standards. In this way a QF can act as a powerful influence in the development and reform of qualifications or systems (Bjørnåvold & Coles, 2010).

A number of studies have critiqued specific NQFs (see Allais 2007, Fernie & Pilcher, 2009; Isopahkala-Bouret, Rantanen, Raij & Järveläinen, 2011) or have provided a more general critique of QFs (see Blackmur 2004, Cort, 2010). Whilst acknowledging that there are shortcomings and issues with QFs, it is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss these further. This paper examines how master's degrees are represented in the New Zealand Qualifications Framework (NZQF), AQF, The Framework for Higher Education Qualifications in England, Wales and Northern Island (FHEQ) and the European meta-frameworks (EQF and FQ-EHEA); in particular, to examine how these individual frameworks 'chart' particular characteristics of master's degrees.

2   Approach to the Study

The focus of this study was on master's degrees and how they are presented at a macro level in policy or guidance documents, regulations for qualifications or reports. Document analysis is underpinned by a qualitative approach (Silverman, 2005) and is particularly suited to gaining insights into policy or systems. As mentioned above QFs and their associated documents are not neutral as they are often intended to support or drive change (Cort,, 2010). QFs and associated guidance documents also aim to communicate essential features of qualifications to ensure compatibility of meaning within and across systems. For these reasons a documentary method was chosen.

Key elements to be investigated and compared in the five selected QFs outlined above had been identified from a larger study involving a survey of all NZ university master's degrees and their structures in relation to the NZQF. A documentary analysis was undertaken of the QFs and any associated guidance documents, supported by a literature search of articles and reports related to master's degrees and the selected QFs.

3   Forms of master's degree

Master's degrees are categorised in the NZQF into three types: 'by thesis', primarily comprising an extended research study in the form of a thesis, dissertation or creative output and exegesis; 'by coursework', largely made up of taught papers, and therefore also referred to as 'taught', and, 'by coursework and thesis' (NZQA, 2011, p. 22). In Australia, three forms described in the AQF are 'research', 'coursework' or 'extended' (AQF Council, 2013). The master's degree categories are not so definitively described in the FHEQ but there is reference to three broad categories: 'research', 'specialised/advanced study' and 'professional/practice' master's in related guidance document produced by the QAA (2010). In the UK master's degrees are also referred to as 'taught,' 'research' or 'integrated'. Integrated refers to those degrees that combine undergraduate and postgraduate study within the one qualification. The outcome descriptor for Cycle 2 (FQ-HEA) and related Dublin descriptor for master's degrees is broad enough to encapsulate a wide range of master's degrees.

4   Focus of the curriculum

The size of the research component, or its relative size in proportion to taught credits, generally determines whether a master's degree is referred to as a research degree in the NZQF, AQF and UK. Degrees of this type are academically oriented and provide preparation for further research or doctoral study. A research master's under the

NZQF definition has a research project or thesis of 90 points (45 ECTS) or 120 points (60 ECTS) whereas the AQF requires two thirds of a research master's to comprise research. In the UK, a code of practice for the quality assurance of postgraduate qualifications (QAA 2004, p. 4) defines a research master's as one 'where the research component is larger than the taught component when measured by student effort [learning hours]'. The size or nature of the research component, or what is a research degree is not detailed in the FQ-EHEA or related documentation. Few national QFs of countries in other parts of Europe distinguish a research from a coursework degree, rather they may set minimum requirements for the dissertation, as in Norway for example (refer Amundsen, 2006).

Coursework master's degrees are made up of a structured learning programme consisting primarily of taught papers. They may include a dissertation, research project or other type of individualised study, however in most cases these make up a small component of the overall degree. A coursework master's may build on an undergraduate discipline or subject area, or have a professional focus. Professional master's often have a more interdisciplinary or multi-disciplinary approach to the curriculum and aim to enhance a student's knowledge and skills in a particular career field. Another type of coursework degree that is gaining popularity is a conversion masters. These are aimed at people who want to practice in a field unrelated to their undergraduate study. Conversion master's have been positioned at postgraduate level but may include undergraduate level courses in some countries. Unlike the AQF and NZQF, the FHEQ and FQ-HEA allow for some credits to be at undergraduate level within a master's degree.

5   Volume of learning

The length or duration of a master's degree varies depending on one or more factors, such as prior related qualifications, nature of the master's or field of study. The QFs encompass this by providing either a range or minimum credit requirements. NZ recently introduced a 180-credit (90 ECTS) master's degree that allows entry on the basis of a three-year bachelor's degree (Universities NZ, 2012). This change was prompted by the NZ universities and led to changes to the NZQF master's definition. Prior to 2012 all master's degrees needed to fit into a five-year overall period of study beginning with the undergraduate degree. The FQ-HEA requires a minimum of 60 ECTS credits at Cycle 2 and QAA documentation indicates that 150-120 credits at level 7 is required in the UK for master's degrees. The dominant model in England is a 12-month master's (90 ECTS) following a three-year degree and this model is attractive especially to international students. In Australia, master's degrees are expected by the AQF to differentiate the length of time required to complete the degree on the basis of whether the subject area in the undergraduate qualification is in a cognate area or not. If it is not in a cognate area an additional 6 months (30 ECTS) are required over the equivalent of 90 ECTS credits.

The AQF and NZQF distinguish master's level learning from that in postgraduate certificates or diplomas, which may be embedded or stand-alone qualifications in England, Australia and New Zealand. The coursework or taught courses are usually shared between these qualifications and a related master's degree. The related qualifications are less common elsewhere and this is evident from the meta-framework documentation and individual country responses to the EQF implementation. The NZQF and AQF differentiate the learning on the basis of higher-level outcomes expected from some courses within the master's degree, whereas the FHEQ differentiates on the basis of overall volume of learning for each award (QAA, 2010. p. 10).

6   Discussion

In different ways the QFs are influential in driving changes in qualifications or qualification systems. More European countries now offer 120 ECTS stand-alone master's degrees and a growing share of students are enrolled in the two cycle system (EHEA, 2012). Educational entrepreneurs are seizing the opportunity to introduce a variety of master's programmes to attract and accommodate a more diverse range of students and their learning needs. The master's degree has become perhaps the most marketable qualification in higher education and the professional master's, in particular, has become an economic generator for universities often strengthening their links with industry (Brandt, 2002; Laredo, 2007).

All QFs have broad descriptors that encompass the different types of master's degrees however the AQF, followed by the NZQF, go further in defining the requirements of the different types of master's degrees. The European meta-frameworks and FHEQ supporting documents stress that the respective QFs are not intended to be restrictive in terms of forms of master's. However, the QAA have provided supporting documentation that further

elaborates on the variety of master's degrees in response to requests for greater clarity (2010, p. 2). A binary system of higher education with distinct vocational and academic pathways exists in several European countries and this means that the different forms of master's degrees are not just related to nature of the curriculum but also the type of institution and/or title of degrees e.g. Norway (Brandt, 2002), Netherlands (Dittrich, Frederiks & Luwel, 2004), Finland (Isopahkala-Bouret *et al.*, 2011). This adds further complexity in determining equivalence, recognition and pathways into and out of master's degrees.

7   Conclusion

There is variation in how the features of master's degrees that influence the curriculum models are charted in various QF's and supporting documentation, though we acknowledge that this is not necessarily the primary purpose of QFs and that their roles vary. Further meta-frameworks like the FQ-EHEA or EQF are decoded differently dependent on the national context and the extent to which these QFs align with existing reforms or even priorities of institutions or academic departments (Sin, 2012). The selected NQFs or associated documentation elaborate on the different types of master's degrees and in the case of NZQF and AQF, set requirements. There is some evidence that once a QF is in place it can morph from a mapping tool that records practice into a guide to practice, or even over time convert practice into definitions or protocols governing qualifications such as master's degrees.

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Teaching in the postmodern era: The cultivation of teachers' critical reflexivity in teacher education

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Abstract

This research paper suggests that there is a continuous need in teacher education to extend the dialogues about teaching, and to review existing teaching practices. Traditional views of knowledge and teaching practices have been challenged with the rise of postmodernism. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to present an approach based on social constructionism (SC) as a different way of educating students. In Gergen's extensive scholarly work on SC, the overarching theme is the priority of relationships and relatedness, which is contrary to the western individualistic tradition. According to Gergen (2000, 2007, 2008, 2009a), a social genesis occurs for what we take to be rational, factual, objective, real, or valuable. SC has inevitably led us to ask new questions such as whether we as teacher educators are providing our student teachers with enough opportunities to reflect on the experiences they encounter in their studies and in society more generally as 'truth' and 'real'. SC invites us to be more inquiring about alternative framings of reality. A study module based on SC is described in the paper. The study module promoted the critical reflexivity of the students. In the study, critical reflexivity is seen as a quality that will help prospective teachers take their places in the field of education. The results of a small-scale inquiry using a SC study module have shown that it is possible to promote qualities that help teachers to meet the challenges they inevitably encounter in the postmodern era.

Keywords: teacher education; postmodernism; social constructionism; social epistemology; critical reflexivity.

1   Introduction

The subject of this research paper is the teaching provided in teacher education in the postmodern era. In this study the question posed was how can one best promote qualities that will help teachers to meet the challenges they will inevitably encounter in the postmodern era. Among scholars the concept postmodern has been the subject of debate for decades. However, it is quite reasonable to ask to what extent the findings of these debates have entered the practices of teacher education. Being inspired by this question, the aim of this paper is to present an approach based on social constructionism (SC) as a different way of educating student teachers in the postmodern era. SC invites us to be more inquiring about alternative framings of reality. It directs our attention to epistemological issues. Many researchers see postmodernism and social constructionism as interconnected. For instance, for Burr (1998, p. 12) postmodernism is "the cultural and intellectual "backcloth" against which social constructionism has taken shape." However, as both postmodernism and SC are polysemous concepts, one should first elaborate on these concepts. In addition to this theoretical overview which also includes a chapter that covers the potential of SC for pedagogical practice, the presentation and analysis of the practical experiment of this study is introduced.

2   Postmodernism and Social constructionism

There are many interpretations of both postmodernism and social constructionism. Slattery (2013), for instance, offers 11 different perspectives from which the concept of postmodernism can be understood. According to Weinberg (2008, p. 31) "postmodernists hold that there is value in distinguishing the present historical moment, or at least certain features of it, from the modern era." Evidently, there are distinct echoes of Lyotard in Weinberg's statement. Lyotard (1985) defines postmodernism as incredulity towards metanarratives. Indeed, for many

researchers postmodernism represents a challenge to metanarratives or values that originated in the Enlightenment, and experienced a revival with modernism. For Kenneth J. Gergen (2009a), whose scholarly work on SC has inspired the empirical part of this study, postmodernism represents a challenge to reason, objectivity, scientific truth, order, prediction, and control. Social constructionism, like postmodernism, is also an ambiguous concept. The history of this thought is multifaceted (Weinberg, 2008). However, it was Berger and Luckmann's (1966) book *The Social Construction of Reality* that brought extensive attention to the term (Best, 2008). There is an array of constructionist enterprises nowadays. Yet, the fundamental idea of constructionism has always been "that the world we live in and our place in it are not simply and evidently "there" for participants. Rather, participants actively construct the world of everyday life and its constituent elements" (Gubrium & Holstein, 2008, p. 3). Sometimes the term constructivism is used interchangeably with constructionism. However, unlike social construction, early scholars tended to outline constructivism in terms of cognitive processes within the mind. Nowadays constructivists increasingly find mental practices to be reflections of social process (Gergen & Gergen, 2008).

Recently, constructionism as a concept has been applied quite carelessly. All too often the epistemological, ontological, methodological, and practical foundations that distinguish constructionism from other approaches have been disregarded (Berbrier, 2008). SC, the way Gergen (1997, 2009b) sees it, is ontologically mute. "Whatever exists, simply exists. However, in the process of co-action whatever there is takes shape *as something for us.*" Gergen (2009b, p. 37) suggests. SC clearly opposes traditional empiricist and rationalist epistemologies where the individual is at the centre of knowledge. Instead, for Gergen, constructionist thought is equivalent to social epistemology. However, somewhat paradoxically, at the same time it serves as an anti-epistemology. As Gergen (2008) clarifies, SC "mounts proposals for the social genesis of what we take to be factual, objective, real, valuable, or rational, and in that sense you could look at it as a social epistemology. But, simultaneously, it applies this same scepticism to its own assertions. It purposely offers premises without foundations. In this way it is an anti-epistemology."

Social constructionism has been called relativist, nihilist, anti-rational, anti-scientific, and morally bankrupt (Gergen 2009a). There are few scholars as vocal and eloquent as Gergen in explaining and defending constructionism, according to Cisneros-Puebla (2007). Unarguably, Gergen (1982, 1997, 2000, 2009a) has carefully studied theoreticians who have contributed to dismantling the assumption of value-free or ideology-free knowledge (e.g. Marx, Foucault, and Habermas) removing the foundations of progress in empirical knowledge (e.g. Mannheim, Kuhn, and Feyerabend), and illustrating the fragility of rationality (e.g. Saussure, Wittgenstein, and Derrida). Moreover, throughout his scholarly work he has maintained a reverent discussion with those who disagree. SC grew out of critique, but the balance has shifted from critique to bringing forth new and more promising ways of life. So, there has been a turn from the deconstruction phase to that of reconstruction (Gergen, 1997, 2007, 2009a; Hosking 2008). Undoubtedly, these ideas have a significant impact on the pedagogical practices of teacher education.

3   The potential of SC for pedagogical practice

In education there are many phenomena that would yield to constructionist interpretation. There has been a variety of constructionist researches focusing on how different objects, such as social identities or social stratification are constructed in educational settings (Wortham & Jackson, 2008). As for me, I (Hakala, 2011) have studied how the various stakeholders of schools construct the idea of a school. I was also interested in what kind of prospects (if any) SC, as a "form of intelligibility" (Gergen 1997, p. 78), opens up with regard to educational policy. Similarly, in this study the focus is on SC, and on the prospects that a SC view of knowledge opens up for the pedagogical practices of teacher education. Undoubtedly, there is also room for alteration. Some earlier icons, such as the Tyler rationale, that were convincingly challenged decades ago still have a tenacious hold on education (Autio, 2003). Disparate concepts of knowledge will lend themselves to divergent views of the educational process (Gergen & Wortham, 2007; Schiro, 2013). Therefore, we should discuss the weak spots of two traditional orientations to knowledge dear to the western tradition and education in order to understand the potential of SC for pedagogical practice.

There are various concepts of knowledge which not only draw on divergent ontological beliefs, but also differ in their understanding of the way in which knowledge is achieved, and in their approach towards values and action. According to Gergen and Wortham (2007), it is particularly important to explore two longstanding traditions concerning knowledge in education: the exogenic and the endogenic, traditions. The former can be traced to empiricist philosophies of knowledge, and the latter to their rationalist counterparts. Unlike the SC orientation, both the exogenic and the endogenic orientation lend support to a mind/world duality, and emphasise value neutrality

(Gergen, 1982; Gergen & Wortham, 2007). These two positivist traditions persistently inform pedagogical practices even today. As Slattery (2013) reminds us, modern educational structures created in the spirit of Taylor's scientific management, Tyler's curriculum rationale, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Bloom's domain of learning, Skinner's behaviorism, and Bruner's early work in cognitive structures still dominate our rhetoric and practice on all levels of schooling.

From the exogenic viewpoint knowledge is achieved when the inner states of the individual accurately represent the existing states of the external world. A strong emphasis is placed on observation. The endogenecists emphasize the powers of reason in the acquisition of knowledge. For an exogenecist teacher the continuous moulding of a student's mind seems understandable while her/his endogenecist associate concentrates on the inherent capacities and development of the student's mind. Consequently, from the exogenic perspective the student is seen as an empty vessel that has to be filled with the essential features of the world. In evaluation the emphasis is placed on assessing levels of individual knowledge, like standardized tests. The endogenic perspective accentuates the rational capacities of the student. When evaluating a student, essay exams and term papers are favoured. (Gergen, 1982; Gergen & Wortham, 2007). The two orientations have encountered extensive criticism. Gergen and Wortham (2007) still find it important to highlight the unjustified celebration of individualism that is included in these positions. They tend to favour a narcissistic disposition toward life, but also allocate others, including the physical environment, an instrumental role. This surely poses a threat to human well-being (Gergen & Wortham, 2007).

SC opposes epistemologies where the individual is at the centre of knowledge. As Gergen (1997, p. 49) argues "the terms and forms by which we achieve understanding of the world and ourselves are social artifacts, products of historically and culturally situated interchanges among people." SC highlights the interdependency between people, and consequently, invites us to appreciate joint-responsibility and dialogue. It undermines the foundation of any truth claims, and consequently, invites us to reflect on experiences encountered in education and in society more generally as 'truth' and 'real'. It defends the equality of voices (Gergen & Wortham, 2007), and invites us to be more conscious regarding our own views. To sum up, SC celebrates critical reflexivity (Gergen, 2009a). In the following practical experiment the emphasis is on critical reflexivity. Learning critical reflexivity, in the spirit of SC, is seen here as a medium that both empowers students, and gives them tools to engage in the continuous discussion on the unarguably complex phenomena of education.

4   A study module based on the premises of SC

This process was conducted in the academic year 2012-13 in a study module "Physical Education (PE), Society and Health". There were official aims for the module. However, as the teacher responsible for the study unit I had set parallel objectives that served as a backcloth for the execution of the module, too. The emphasis in the study module was on promoting the critical reflexivity of the students. Consequently, the objectives of the module were as follows: There will be opportunities for joint-responsibility and discussion. There will be opportunities to identify discourses in the field, and to challenge them. There will be opportunities to question one's own premises in a safe learning environment.

The process was carried out in a way that can be described in terms of a chain with seven rings. At the beginning of the process (ring 1) we discussed the aims of the module. As an orientation we played a game in which each participant had to take a stance on a particular topic and either defend or oppose it. There were claims such as "A child is always incomplete in PE, and that is just the way it is." The point of this exercise was to demonstrate that even among us were various ways of looking at things. The second ring was that of deconstruction. At first I inducted the students into the history of Finnish PE. Through this historical review, the hypothetical neutrality of PE was gradually deconstructed. The subject of PE, evidently, has always represented the values that have been celebrated at that time. Simultaneously, PE has participated, and still does, in a process whereby the ideal citizen is constructed. Consequently, if there is an ideal citizen that can be identified in official documents, in gyms, or in discourses on PE more generally, then presumably there are also those who do not live up to these expectations, and are thus marginalized. The third ring was that of confusion. Provoked by what we had learned, but also by an experience shared by Sykes (2011), we ended up discussing the adequate and inadequate body in the context of PE. "Gym taught me that my body was deficient", as one informant of Sykes's (2011, p. 22) haplessly stated. Accordingly, we immersed ourselves in themes like "body image", "body size discrepancy", "fat phobia", and "human rights", among others. We shared our own experiences, too. The forth ring was that of reconstruction. The idea was to explore not only how we

could create PE lessons that are inclusive rather than exclusive, but also how we can counteract all kinds of dogmatism and certainty in our work. Through the movie "Babies", directed by Thomas Balmès, we had another chance to discuss epistemological issues. The fifth ring was that of sharing our expertise. It involved an inquiry process that was conducted independently in groups of two or three. There were topics for students to choose from like "PE and equity", and "The socio-economic status of the family and a healthy lifestyle". At first the students enlarged upon each topic by reading the course material. After that they contacted some experts in the field in order to acquire some grass-root-level knowledge on the topic they were studying. So, one group, for instance, interviewed the coordinator of a free-of-charge sports activity that the city of Helsinki organizes for children under 13 years of age. Another group followed some extra-curricular activities for children with learning disabilities. The students also consulted scholarly articles. In conclusion, each group jointly wrote a paper on their topic. The sixth ring was about student expertise and sharing. Each group delivered a 45-minutes teaching session in which they shared their conclusions about the process. In the end, the groups were evaluated both by the students and the teacher of the unit, as had been agreed earlier.

The seventh ring was that of feedback. The students received a questionnaire after the study module. Thirteen out of a total of 16 questionnaires sent out were returned. Students were asked, among other things, to give grades from one to five (5 was the best grade) to nine claims concerning the objectives of the study module. The best grades were given to the following claims: "We were encouraged to discuss and to express our thoughts in the study module" (4.9/5); "I learned to explore things from different perspectives" (4.3/5); "I learned to question my own beliefs" (4.2/5); and "I learned to be more critical towards things that seem obvious" (4.2/5). When asked to describe the study module freely in three words, 11 students out of 13 mentioned either the phrase "thought-provoking" or "thought-expanding", or both. Through the study module and the questionnaire it became clear that students had found the study module interesting and useful for their future work as teachers. The results of this small-scale questionnaire show that through a SC study module, it is possible to promote qualities that help teachers to meet the challenges they will inevitably face in the postmodern era.

5   Conclusion

There were two prime considerations behind this study, the presupposition that the offerings of the postmodern debate had not been extended satisfactorily to the practices of teacher education, and, associated with this, an interest in how best to promote qualities that will help teachers to meet the challenges they will face in the postmodern era. Obviously, with the rise of postmodernism, the assumption that truth is verified by nature has been replaced by the idea that truth is created in community (Gergen & Wortham, 2007). In this study it is proposed that this epistemological shift has to be acknowledged and taken seriously in teacher education. Accordingly, an approach issuing from SC is presented as a different way of educating student teachers. SC undermines the foundation of any truth claims, and thus invites us to be more inquiring about alternative framings of reality. Consequently, critical reflexivity (Gergen, 2009a) can be seen as a necessary quality for a teacher, today. It can also be promoted, as the results of this small scale inquiry showed. Moreover, it can be suggested that a SC study module can empower prospective teachers. Eleven respondents out of 13 found the study module "thought-provoking" or "thought-expanding", or both. So, if teacher educators have too often colluded in preparing teachers to accept their positions of gracious submission in the school, as Pinar (2012) suggests, the student teachers themselves are definitely ready for more. So is SC. In educational policy and pedagogical practice, a SC view of knowledge argues among other things for "greater democracy in negotiating what counts for educational practice, the local embedding of curricula, the breaking of disciplinary boundaries, the lodgement of disciplinary discourses in societally relevant practices, educational practice in societal issues and a shift from subject and child centred modes of education to a focus on relationships" (Gergen & Wortham 2007, p. 136).

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Curricular changes in higher education in Mexico (2002-2012)

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Abstract

Based on the analysis of 1241 documents published in Mexico (2002-2012) concerning curriculum studies, we find that the issue of innovation was addressed in 6 out of 10 research papers that focused on the higher education level (60.4 %). It shows an increase in empirical research, quantitative or qualitative, that accounts for the process of implementation of innovative curriculum models and recover the experiences of his actors. There is still a predominance of neoliberal discourse and a vertical approach in curricular reforms, the "top-down curriculum design", but there are also examples of active agency of actors (mostly teachers and students), ranging from acts of resistance and rejection, to proactive experiences in their academic communities based on the organization of groups of teachers or researchers who took a leading role and achieved successful experiences related to the needs of their context. The lack of a systemic change approach, and especially appropriate teacher training processes, are the main obstacle to educational change prescribed in the curricular reforms in Mexico. In higher education are two important issues: the competency based education approach and the curricular flexibility. In both terms prevails polysemy, and there are no consistent attempts to innovation through them in the sense of changing conceptions and practices in the classrooms. The competencies approach suffers a "pedagogical vacuum", and in some curricular reforms it has tried to fill in several ways, primarily the adoption of business models or neo-behaviorists conceptions transferred to universities. The flexible curriculum is not only a technical issue, because of its implications in the management and administration of universities, as well as in school practices and processes. There is evidence that the most important problems in their implementation concerns legal aspects, academic organization and operation, as well as by the lack of mentoring and academic mobility of students and teachers.

Keywords: curricular reforms, higher education, innovation of curriculum models, competencies and curriculum, curricular flexibility.

1 Introduction: Curriculum production in Mexico 2002-2012

How significant was during the last decade (2002-2012) the matter of curriculum innovations can be observed when reading the analysis that resulted from the state of affairs of Mexican curriculum production sponsored by the Mexican Council for Educational Research (Consejo Mexicano de Investigación Educativa, COMIE) and coordinated by Ángel Díaz Barriga (2013). Out of 1241 total papers published about diverse matters related to curriculum studies, 762 tackled the problem of curriculum innovations; this means that the matter of curriculum innovation covered 61.4% of the production in the first decade of the 21st century. We must emphasize that the database about curriculum innovation and the information we shall deal with are made up of works published by Mexican authors or authors who reside in Mexico, although the papers can be published either in foreign or national journals, this means that we are talking about the Mexican production about this subject.

As regards the *production type* that have been generated about innovations, Chart 1 shows that many papers have been presented in conferences and congresses (392), many of them exhibiting how innovations actually work when put into practice in the classroom; the chart also highlights the quantitative importance of books and articles published by Mexican authors in national and foreign reviews (174), and in our opinion it is very significant that, if we take into account the 73 books and 74 book chapters about this matter, we reach an average of 7 works a year. With regard to the amount of thesis or dissertations that have been gathered, we are sure that the production was actually more important than what we could record, since not all the higher education institutions have digitized versions of those theses and therefore we could not access those materials, but even taking into account these limitations, 41 postgraduate theses is a significant amount, since the result expressed an average of 4 theses a year about curriculum innovations. The institutional documents we could gather were 8, a number we consider important to account for the curriculum reforms or the educational models regarding the guidelines that are pointed out about innovations.
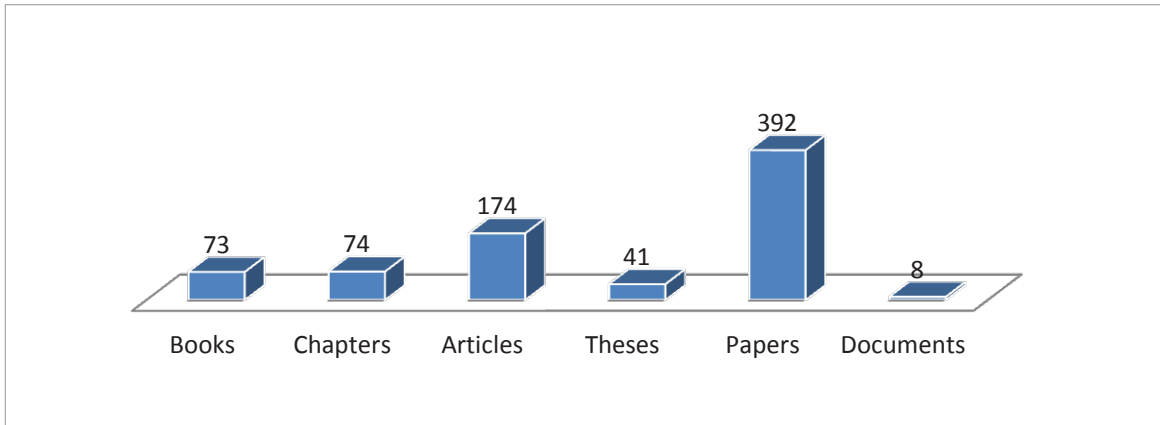
Chart 1: Curriculum innovations 2002-2012. Production types.

With respect to the kind of research or study that has been reported in the documents that have been classified as innovation matters, we observed the following numbers: 206 empiric, quantitative or qualitative research reports, which means 27.03% of the production about curriculum innovation; this points out a difference with the previous decade, in which most of the studies about curriculum development consisted in proposals and models. We also found 204 articles about theory, critical analysis or literature review, which in percentage remains more or less the same as in the nineties, 26.77%. 20.47% of the studies that were published are intervention experiment reports (156), whereas the subject of curriculum innovation models and proposals (122) reaches 26.40%. The works in which authors are proposing reflections about curriculum innovation were 74 (9.71%). In chart 2 we present this information in rounded figures.
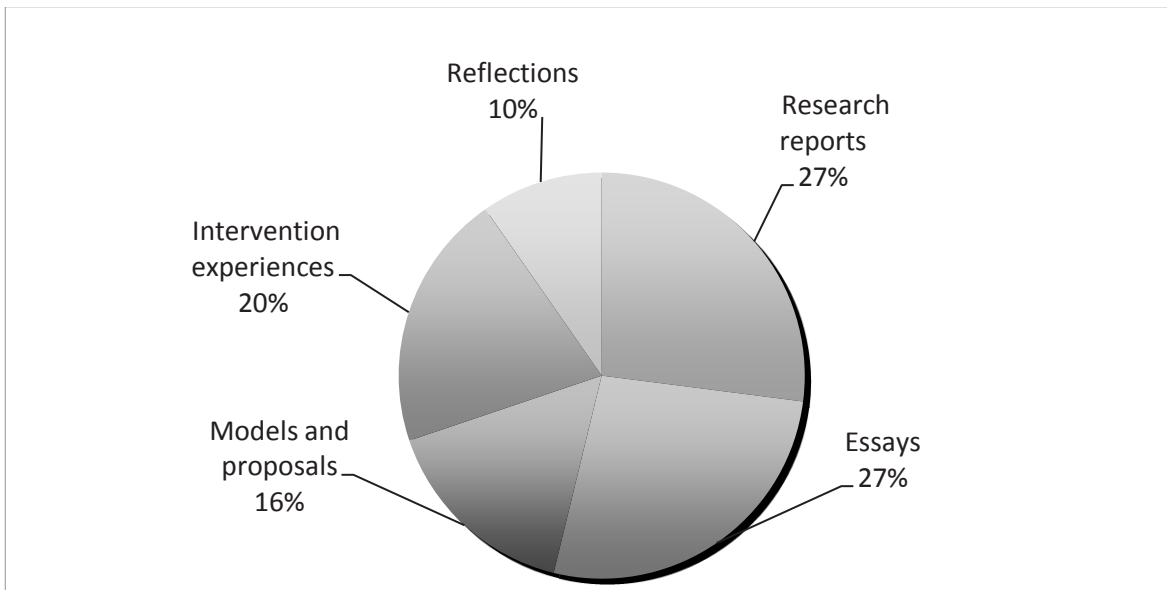
Chart 2: Curriculum innovations 2002-2012. Research types.

If we take into account the study level the documents about curriculum innovation deal with or to which they are addressed, we keep finding the same tendency we could observe in the states of affairs of the eighties and nineties, *i. e.* that most of the production deals with higher education, either professional or university education (460 documents, which means 60.40% of all the works on this subject). About early education we only found one work (0.1%), and for adult education 4 (0.5%). 7 documents dealt with pre-school (0.9%), 24 with primary (3.1%) and 21 with secondary education (2.8%), which gives for basic education a total amount of 52 documents, 6.8% of the production about curriculum innovations.. 65 works tackled high school matters (8.5%) and 25 postgraduate (3.3%).

With respect to the studies that take innovations in a general way or deal with diverse educational levels, we could find 153 of them (20.3%). Chart 3 illustrates this information.

Pre-school
0.9%

Primary
3.1%

Early
0.1%

Secondary
2.8%

Adult
Education
0.5%

Overall
education
20.3%

High school
8.5%

Posgraduate
3.3%

Higher
education
60.4%
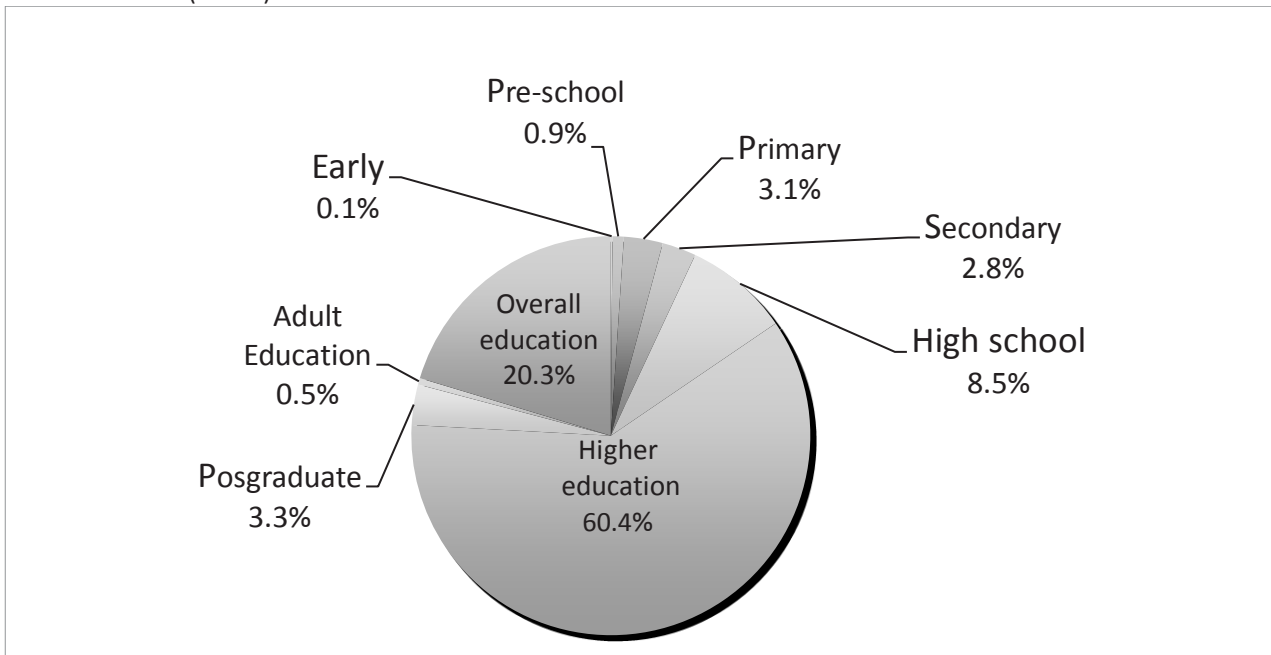
Chart 3: Curriculum innovations 2002-2012. Educational levels.

We also delimited a whole of subtopics in curriculum innovations and propose the following classification with the respective results (number of documents/percentage). Note that a quarter of the studies tackled the subject of compentences (see Chart 4):

- Incorporation of the competency-based approach (193/25%).
- Use of the new Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) (122/16%).
- Curriculum flexibility (51/7%).
- Cross-disciplinary topics (education to values, citizenship, environment) (50/6%).
- Approaches that focus on the student's learning (tutorships, problem-based learning, projects, case studies, linking, on-site training activities, etc.) (122/16%).
- Professional training and curriculum structure (112/15%).
- Proposal or analysis of curriculum innovation educational models (77/10%).
- Curriculum innovation and teachers' training/practice (35/5%).

Educational Models
Design
10%

Teacher training
5%

Competency
based learning
25%

Profesional
training
15%

ICT
16%

Learner centered
approaches
16%

Cross-disciplinary
matters
6%

Flexibility
7%
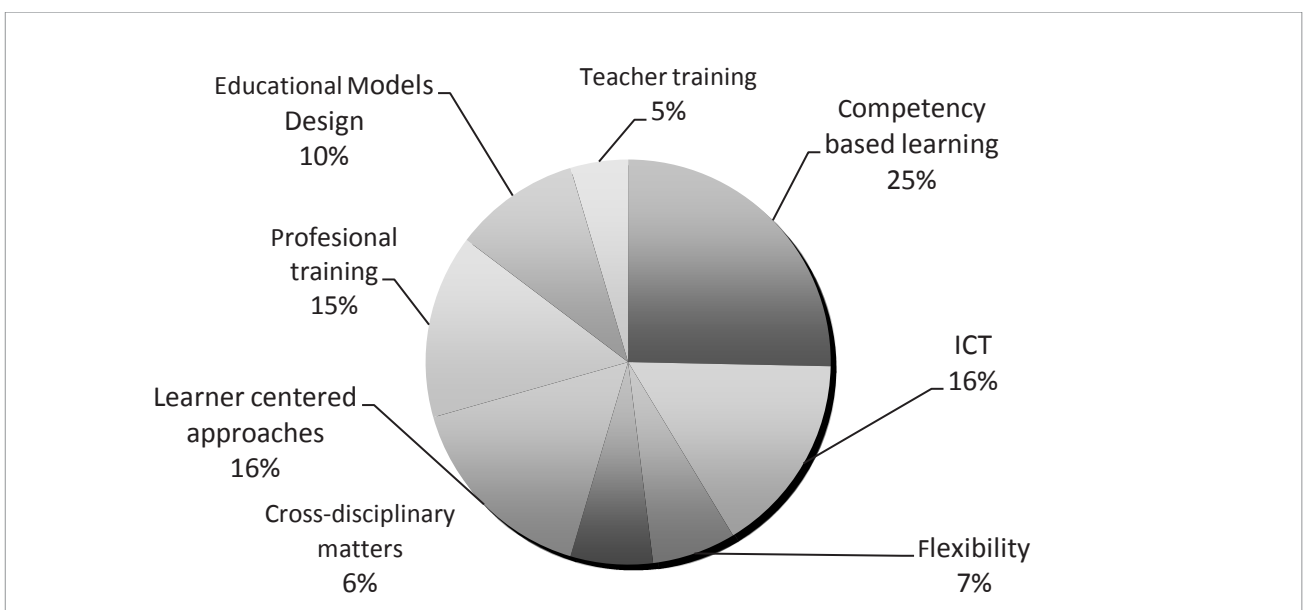
Chart 4: Curriculum innovations 2002-2012. Subtopics

2 The dynamics of Mexican curriculum innovation

The aspect that most contributed to clarify and improve the understanding to the analysis of the production about curriculum in the last decade (2002-2012) was the identification of what we called *innovating curriculum models* (*modelos curriculares innovadores*). It is important here to highlight that with the implementation of the far-reaching curriculum reforms in the whole educational system, since the nineties the term *innovation* used to be associated to the design and implementation of new curriculum models and the operationalization of new methodological prototypes and strategies for teaching and assessment. From the perspective of the education authorities, but also of many authors, this alleged innovation had as purpose to meet the demands that Mexican education would face before a complex and increasingly globalized society, the so-called knowledge society. They also thought that the incorporation of certain innovating models proceeded not only from the apparent need for change in local educational institutions, but that it had been preceded by international trends in educational reform matters and had been promoted by policies that have arisen from national and international organizations not only belonging to the educational sector, but also to the economic and business environment, policies that depended openly on proposals directed to quality assessment, certification and accreditation or assessment related to the financing of education. We therefore observed that the main support of the educational reforms is the hegemonic discourse about the society's entry to the information society and to globalization.

Alicia de Alba (2007), however, asserts that if we analyze the national and regional development indices, the results of those reforms are very poor, and even negative. The point is in her opinion the lack of social project within those reforms and the idea tha "innovation", independently of the project to which it is linked, necessarily implies an improvement of the society and education. The author questions the hegemonic discourse of the so-called knowledge society and, in any case, suggests that what we need is to reach the plural notion "knowledge societies" ("sociedades de conocimientos"), adjectivized with "critical innovation" and "alternative globalization". This kind of innovation only will be possible if we address the existing tensions that stem from the local, singular contexts, in the way of thinking and making curriculum.

Some of those research works deal with the dynamics of the curriculum change processes and the role played by the actors in those changes (Andrade, 2011; Cisneros & Robles, 2011; Plazola & Rautenberg, 2009). In all those works the authors report complex processes, never completely free of contradictions and significant strains, where the social and institutional position of the actors and the institutional conditions make possible to explain how people accept or reject the curriculum changes and the innovating proposals. They even report a curriculum change process in higher education within the country's most important university that, although it was seemingly advanced, was completely thwarted because of the polarization between the working teams and the pressure from the authorities that the thing "should remain how they were", "mantener las cosas como estaban" (Silva, 2007, p. 17).

Plazola & Rautenberg (2009) start from the assumption that was already accepted a few decades ago: *the curriculum change is more than a technical assembly)*, because as a social project it must be conceptualized and analyzed from the point of view of the institutional micro-politics. The change in curriculum structures constitutes a *perturbing intervention* action, since it mobilizes imaginations, spaces of power, ways of participating and positions within the institution. This authors identify at least four stances: the teachers who are part of the "expert" group and who incarnate the proactive group for change; the collectivity who does not take part in the implementation of change, but does not either resist to it; the group who expresses its resistance and articulates to prevent curriculum change; and finally the collectivity of people who show a certain disposition to curriculum reform but only admit it from their own project and interests.

However, in our country we also find a diversity of successful experiences where it has been possible to promote educational change. It has to do with proactive organization experiences that start from needs and actions which emanated from academic communities or teaching or research groups who assumed a leading role and achieved to consolidate successful curriculum projects, whose success has to do with its association to the needs of its context. An illustrative document is the book compiled by Lira & Sandoval (2012), in which they present seven cases as examples of good practices about contextualized training. As regards to higher education experiences, one of them proposes integrated professional competences and puts the emphasis on explaining what are the appropriate teaching and learning methodologies for a competence-based approach from the selected point of view: problem-based learning, project methodology, study case, evidence-based learning, while at the same time considering the

importance of the tutorial job in those approaches. They also describe the university training intervention that has been carried out successfully by a Jesuit institution at Guadalajara with two little companies, as a linkage strategy with the productive sector based on the project methodology and the analysis of learning situations. Finally they include the program and methodology of two affective competence-based educational experiences, one of them with teachers who are attending postgraduate studies and the second one centered on the rediscovery of emotion within the classroom, in a technical high school. All those examples have as overall study framework the analysis of the respective educational reforms and start from the differentiation between the normative prescription and the innovation, that is why it is really necessary to study empirically the teachers' real meaning and performance by means of the inquiry about their actual teaching practices.

3 Innovating models: competences and curriculum flexibility

As regards the diversity of identified innovating models during the nineties (competence-based curriculum, curriculum flexibility, learner-based curriculum, cross-disciplinary curriculum, amongst others) we do not observe unifying visions or conceptions related to those alleged curriculum innovations. Even if the studies that analyzed thoroughly the concept of innovation itself or reported the curriculum reality in its transfer to the educational institutions, we found that the innovation itself was understood in many different ways. Countless times the curriculum innovation was considered as synonymous with the incorporation of the current educational novelties, without an in-depth reflection about its implications or a clear schedule for its incorporation to the curriculum structures or to the classroom reality, and rather overlooking the educational culture and practices that prevail in a given educational community.

Pursuing the logic of a centered and "upside down" and "outside in" designed curriculum, that has been the overall accepted approach in our educational system since the seventies, many of the innovations kept emerging with a vertical implementation approach, with the authorities or experts imposing to the actors (teachers and students). Only in a few cases innovation was understood as the need for a profound change in social and educational paradigms and practices in an educational community, as a product of the reflection and appropriation of the people involved in that process (Díaz Barriga & Lugo, 2003; Díaz Barriga & Barrón, 2012).

For their part, the sociologists who have studied about the matter of curriculum reform and educational change assert that probably the main problem of public education is not the resistance to change itself, but the "presence of many innovations that have been dictated or uncritically and superficially adopted on a fragmented basis", "la presencia de muchas innovaciones mandadas o adoptadas acrítica y superficialmente sobre una base fragmentada" (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1999, p. 23). Because of the lack of a systemic vision and a social project, in many educational reforms there is an obvious risk that the prevailing approach will be utilitarian and technocratic, completely lacking in ethical commitment, which leads to the standardization and diminishment of the professionalization of educational task, to the loss of the educational priorities and to an uncritical adoption of imported fads. Particularly the referred curriculum studies agree that the educational change has to be systemic and not remain on the superficial formal layers. They also agree that the problem of implementing those innovations within the classroom cannot be reduced to the teachers' union conditions or to how their professional exercise affects the process, although both are undoubtedly essential factors.

Since the "innovation historically has been connected with research for the technological development, made conditional to a great extent on the development of economy", "la innovación en la historia se reconoce vinculada a la investigación para el desarrollo tecnológico, condicionada en gran medida al desarrollo de la economía" (Martínez, Toledo & Román, 2009, p. 2), the discourse of innovation stems from the pressure to translate the principles of the new market economy into training strategies, particularly in higher education. In this case, our universities do not fit the model of "innovating entrepreneurial university", but, according to those authors, they have been orienting disproportionately towards the technical and instrumental abilities, to the detriment of a general and solid training. And it is precisely in this direction that the matter of competences in higher education has been understood: the technical and instrumental qualification and training in detriment of a more holistic and sociocultural attitude towards the matter of competences.

The definitions that have been generated during the last decade, and from different points of view, about the concept of competency are very diverse. The term "competence", that emerges in the world of labor, was adopted relatively quickly in the field of education, specially with regard to the curriculum design, the training of professionals, the educational assessment and the teaching and learning process. Theoretically and with respecto to the redaction of

the documents on which the curriculum reforms are based, the most widespread definition of the term competence in our country can be found in authors such as (2004), for whom competence is the possibility to mobilize and integrate different knowledge and cognitive resources when facing an unprecedented situation or problem, since the individual then has to show his/her capacity to resolve complex and open problems in different stages and moments. Nevertheless in practice, when implementing this definition within the classroom what we find are reductionist visions that limit the notion of competence to a "know how to carry out" some proceeding understood as a preconceived plan or routine that consists in following instructions. In many study plans of higher and basic education, the competency derivation consists in a list of tasks or discrete and fragmented actions that result forms the functional analysis of a performance. This last vision, that stems forms the training of professional technicians and of semi-qualified manpower, does not work that well when transferring to professional, higher or even basic education. In diverse studies that have been carried out during the nineties the author highlighted that there is a real confusion and misunderstanding within the school communities not only about the term competence, but also about its implementation in the classroom; this is why it has been possible to conclude that this kind of innovation has generated more strains and resistance than any other amongst teachers and students, and this is why some authors can assert that it conceals "a cloak of change", "un disfraz de cambio" (Díaz Barriga, 2006).

In our opinion, what hasn't been understood yet is that in order to teach and learn by competences it is necessary to create didactic situations that allow to place students (or teachers in training/in service) face to face with the tasks they are expected to carry out. It is also necessary for them to achieve and to learn to mobilize the resources they need and to do so based on metacognitive reflection or self-regulation processes. The training programs and objectives, when considered from the point of view of competence-based education, do not lead to terms of static or expository knowledge, but in terms of generative activities and problem-task that the individual in training will have to face. However many programs that are said to be based on competences actually are lists of subjects with disciplinary content, proceedings and attitudes outlines that should supposedly be taught, without raising again the didactic framework and without approaching reality and the problems faced by the university professionals.

One of the aspects that uses to be invoked to characterize the matter of innovation has to do with flexibility as a key term to progress in the curriculum innovation processes, covering times, spaces, tasks, work relations, etc. to learn new professional abilities. Therefore the educational institutions will have to adapt to the needs of the society and to foresee them, and "particularly in developing countries it is urgent to establish new university models more appropriate to the needs and more likely to favor disciplinary and geographical synergies" , "sobre todo en los países en desarrollo es urgente establecer nuevos modelos universitarios más adaptados a las necesidades y susceptibles de propiciar sinergias disciplinarias y geográficas" (Medina, 2008, p. 41). For this author, one of the main implications of what we mentioned about the subject of curriculum design is that it is necessary to try a new definition of the traditional curriculum and to redraw the places where learning takes place in order to create "learning environments that are flexible, stimulating and motivating, and able to exceed the limits of standardized curricula, with division by subject, limitation in time and strict pedagogies", "ambientes de aprendizaje que sean flexibles, estimulantes y motivadores, y que superen las limitaciones de currículos estandarizados, división por materias, limitados tiempos y rígidas pedagogías" (Medina, *op. cit.*, p. 44). From a narrow point of view this trend only favors the learning that prepare the individuals to perform in the new entrepreneurial organizations, but from a wider perspective of professional training it should allow for the contact with the social reality, impacting on society as a whole. Martinez (2011) says with regard to the latter that curriculum in higher education must be transformed taking into account the following aspects:

- Flexible and mixed curriculum organizations, between courses/modules and projects.
- Development of diverse competence types.
- Professional practices and stays as part of the curriculum, associated with the reality and the achievement of abilities.
- New ways to assign credits to diverse contents and activities, and new strategies for the recognition and transfer of credits.
- A social service as part of the curriculum.
- Development of an in-service or in situ training.
- Working groups with as purpose to approach processes or problems.

It is obvious that the above-mentioned points necessarily entail a new conception about curriculum structure, with substantial changes in the logic by which the curriculum maps are organized and shaped. Nevertheless we find here a significant strain: if we analyze what they now call in Spanish the "curriculum meshes" ("mallas

curriculares") resulting from the last curriculum reform, it is clear that the curriculum structure and organization in practically all levels of the Mexican educational system is still strongly disciplinary, whether it is organized by subjects or by knowledge areas. And although during the last decades the experts have been reporting a tendency for competence-based curriculum, or at least the encouragement of cognitive abilities and specific skills to proliferate, what actually occurs is that the prevailing logic that underlies the curriculum design is still the positivist vision that leads to a non-cross-disciplinary segmentation of the courses, not to an inter- or cross-disciplinary conception of the units or cores of those curriculum meshes. In some cases we observe a kind of hybrid consisting in the traditional disciplinary curriculum structure with the inclusion of courses drawn up according to the cross-content or cross-disciplinary approach or the learner-centered approach. This is why we can assert that rethinking the knowledge epistemology that underlies the curriculum logic is still an open question and that, in this regard, "innovation" hasn't yet fulfilled its duty (Díaz Barriga, 2010; Díaz Barriga & Barrón, 2012).

Some of the studies produced during this decade addressed the analysis of the teachers' new role as a *host teacher* in enterprise, a trend that has become increasingly pronounced in academic and entrepreneurial communities and about which there are already experiences that can be reported (Martínez, 2006; Pedroza, 2004; Díaz-Villa, 2005). Although the need for cooperation between business and university is not new, it is necessary to keep holding a thorough discussion about the intentions and purposes of the current and future university in order to present proposals and alternatives able to define a fair cooperation without any kind of subordination of either parts. Part of the dilemma can be resumed as the need to articulate entities with different times, rhythms and organizational structures and with their own conception of autonomy so that this articulation offers for both parts benefits, or to move forward towards a kind of relationship that can instill the universality of the entrepreneurial culture to the sometimes to locally oriented traditional scientific communities and to the humanistic culture (Barrón & Gómez, 1999; Barrón, 2011).

4 Conclusions

What we can identify in this state of affairs is a lack in theoretical and conceptual understanding and of appropriation of the innovations by the teachers, who have not been able to get fully involved in collegial training processes or in the development of the curriculum programs they teach. Usually the teachers consider that no appropriate infrastructure is available, neither the needed condition to ensure the transformation process of teaching within the classroom; on of those factors of resistance has been the diversification of roles and academic responsibilities, that disrupt non only their working conditions, but also their professional identity.

The possibilities to make curriculum more flexible and the academic actions that result from it also mean new regulation mechanisms for educational practice, and those lead to analyze and reformulate the university rules, mainly with regard to the monitoring and authorization of actions that stem from the study plans. We can highlight the need to rely on a tutorship program that has been specifically developed for the features of the flexible curriculum structure. This proposal has to come from the institutions itself, and not remain within the boundaries of isolated training courses and workshops for teachers.

In addition to this it is important to mention how difficult it can be to implement any flexibility strategy related to the decision-making processes, since we still lack a real democratic tradition; besides, the academic administrative structures are ruled more by tradition and customs than by the needs for change, in a logic of institutional rationality. As shown throughout this paper, the flexible curriculum organization requires a kind of curriculum an institutional management based on different paradigms, able to deal with a wide range of phenomena, from the new knowledge production forms, based on multidiscipline and interdiscipline to the creation of hybrid degrees and a credit system with opportunities for inter- and intracurriculum and institutional mobility. That is why the matter of curriculum flexibility is not a merely technical issue.

As regards to the competence model, either with respect to the teachers' or the students training in higher education, we usually observe a reductionist look and a lack of understanding and appropriation within the classrooms of the so-called competency-based education, since we don't find yet a real approach in which the students are actually facing relevant situations for the society and their future profession and where they are supplied with abilities to build and rebuild knowledge, to make decisions or to generate solutions.

Finally, the curriculum reforms bring about certain technologies for the actors' regulation, and amongst them the most important is the function of the curriculum base documents; *i. e.* the teachers become the readers of those texts, since they act as receptors of the experts' knowledge (Ziegler, 2003). In that way, the base documents of the curriculum reforms are intended to serve as normalization tools for the teaching practices, but they actually do not achieve to have an impact, at least not as expected, in everyday school interaction. That is why a series of educational proposals or models, undoubtedly harmonized with the most promising progresses and trends in subjects related to curriculum and didactics, do not succeed in becoming actual innovations within the classroom, since they do not influence the actors' practices, either because they do not meet their needs and demands or because they do not understand them comprehensively and their cognitive cost is too high for them.

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The Evaluation of Teacher Trainees' Program

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to examine the perceptions of students about implementation of the certified program. In order to collect data for this study, a questionnaire, which consisted of eight open-ended questions, was developed and administered to 140 students in the teacher trainee program. They were asked to write their opinions related to each question. The open-ended format of the questionnaire calls for a free response in the participants' own words. It also provides for a greater depth of response.

Keywords: Initial Teacher Training program, The Turkish Education System

1 Introduction

Although students' achievements are results of effectiveness of school, curriculum, teacher, and their home environment, a teacher can have a powerful effect on student's achievement regardless of quality of school and home environment. According to the review of research results, student's academic achievement is influenced by three general factors: (1) school-level factors, (2) teacher-level factors, and (3) student-level factors (Marzano, 2003). In spite of school-level factors and student-level factors, teacher level factors are primarily under control of individual teachers. Teacher level factors consist of instructional strategies, classroom management, and classroom curriculum design. In fact, teacher level factors are related to the quality of teacher performance in the instructional settings.

The most important factor affecting student learning is the teacher. The results of several studies indicate that teachers are the most influential factor on student achievement. Effective teachers do make an extraordinary and lasting impact on the lives of student. Moreover, as a result of meta-analysis it was found that effective teachers have a profound influence on student achievement and ineffective teachers do not (Marzano, 2003). Effective teachers pay attention to students' social and emotional growth as well as offer high quality academic and cognitive support (Scherer, 2012). Sanders and Horn (1994) found that a student with a weak teacher for three straight years, on average scores 50 % points was behind a similar student within a strong teacher for those years. The best teachers know how to respond to students' choices and to integrate their interests into a curriculum with high standards. Teaching student their interests automatically facilitates differentiated instruction and leads to improved test scores (Caine & Caine, 2006).

Qualities of teacher effectiveness are resulted of his/her preparation, personality, and practice. It is recognized by all educators that a teacher's pedagogical background and professional preparation are prerequisites of effective teaching. According to the related research review, a teacher's formal pedagogical preparation has been shown to have a positive effect on student achievement. On the other hand, uncertified teachers and out of field teachers achieve far less with students than teachers with proper in-field certification (Stronge, 2002). In fact, there is no doubt that an effective teacher is an important factor on students' academic achievement. However, a key question is how to find, recruit, and prepare qualified teachers.

A major educational debate today concerns how to recruit and prepare teachers all over the World. In other words, policy makers in education attempt to figure out a high quality initial teacher training programs. Similarly, one of the main controversial issues in Turkey is who is going to be teacher at the high school level. Alternative programs for recruiting and preparing teacher have been devised, discussed, and applied. However, these programs have been implemented not because of results of research comparing the effectiveness of teachers from different types of preparation backgrounds but the program has been implemented because of current government policies.

Since Turkish education system is centralized, the Ministry of National Education appoints all novice teachers according to their scores in the nationwide state examination conducted by state for state employee. Teachers in Turkey are recruited from two sources: from education faculty graduates, and from different faculty graduates such as faculty of literature, art, science, theology, and etc. to teacher particularly at high schools. Except for education faculty graduation that takes a five year study in pedagogical preparation courses and content knowledge. While other faculty graduates must have a certification of initial teacher training program (called pedagogical formation) that takes one year. Effectiveness of this program is sometimes discussed. The programs implemented in education faculties both in Turkey and Europe is similar. However, initial teacher training certificate program in Turkey differ from the program in European countries (notes from study visit, 2012). In some years Turkish government does not activate certificate program but recruits novice teachers to teach at high schools exclusively from education faculty graduates. In this case, other faculty graduates make a pressure on government and organize lobby activities on policy makers to activate the initial teacher training program. Since unemployment rate among university graduates is very high in Turkey, several university graduates want to have a job from government as a teacher because socio-economic status of teachers in Turkey is relatively reasonable in terms of job security and income. In fact, Turkish government sometimes takes a decision in favor of education faculty graduates or other faculty graduates. Still in Turkey initial teacher training for high schools does not have standard. Initial teacher training programs are influenced by current political policies. Education faculty and other faculties try to turn the advantage for themselves from the Ministry of National Education (MEB) and the Council of Higher Education (YOK).

There are several program evaluation approaches. Participant-oriented evaluation approach is one of them. It seeks to use evaluation data for practical problem solving. In the participant-oriented evaluation approaches, evaluators work to portray the multiple needs, values, and perspectives of program stakeholders to be able to make judgments about the value or worth of the program being evaluated (Fitzpatrick, Sanders & Worthen, 2004). The aim of this study is to examine the perceptions of students about implementation of the certificate program. In order to investigate the research question, the following eight open ended questions were used.

What did you think of initial teacher training program before beginning the program?

Could you explain if your opinion about the program changed during this program?

Could you explain if you have any difficulties that you have faced in this program?

Are you satisfied to find what you have expected from the program?

What do you think about the necessity of this program in terms of effective teacher?

What do you think about the content of courses?

What do you think of the quality of instruction?

What do you think of the effectiveness of whole program?

2 Method

Qualitative methodology was used in data collection. In order to collect data for this study, a questionnaire which consisted of eight open-ended questions was developed and administered to 140 students in the initial teacher training program. They were asked to write their opinions about each question. The open-ended format of the questionnaire calls for a free response in the participants' own words. It also provides for a greater depth of response. The respondents revealed their frame of reference and possible reasons for their responses (Best &Kahn, 1989). Each question was analyzed in terms of content and then a list of participants' opinion from top to down about related questions was made.

3 Results

3.1 What did you think of initial teacher training program before beginning the program?

Table 1: *Students' Views before Participating Initial Teacher Training*

Rank	Statements	F	%
1	To have certification is a requirement.	65	46
2	It is unnecessary.	31	22
3	It is optional.	28	20
4	I did not have any idea about the program.	16	12
	Total	140	100

Table 1 indicates that the majority of initial teacher training participants did not realize the importance of the program. They thought that they would have a certificate need to be a teacher at high schools. After graduating from university, if they want to be a teacher, they need to have initial teacher training certificate. On the other hand, about one fifth (22 %) of the participants had not believed necessity of certificate for being a teacher at the high school level because they felt that they could do teaching job without pedagogical education background. Some of the participants (20 %) also stated that participating in the initial teacher training program was not a big deal. Even this program does not affect teacher quality. Some of the participants in this program had not had any idea about the program. They had heard from their friend and then applied to the program.

3.2 Could you explain if your opinion about the program changed during this program?

Table 2: *Changing Students' Views after Participation Initial Teacher Training*

Rank	Statements	F	%
1	Still positive	60	43
2	Changed from negative to positive	51	36
3	Still negative	15	11
4	Changed from positive to negative	14	10
	Total	140	100

Table 2 indicates the changing views of the participants after participating teacher initial training. In general about 80 % of the participants have positive views about the program but almost half of them had had positive views about the program and the other half have changed their views from negative to positive. On the other hand, 10 % of them still have negative views about the program. Meanwhile, 10 % of the participants have changed their views from positive to negative.

3.3 Could you explain if you have any difficulties that you have faced in this program?

Table 3 *Participants' difficulties while in the Initial Teacher Training*

Rank	Statements	F	%
1	Attendance	63	45
2	A very busy schedule	30	21

3	Intensive courses	24	17
4	No problem	12	9
5	Economic difficulties	11	8
	Total	140	100

Table 3 indicates the difficulties the participants had in the initial teacher training program. Almost half of the participants (45 %) expressed that they had burdensome to attend in the program because they lived out of city. Even some of them lived far away from the training center. On the other hand, the courses of initial teacher training program were scheduled only on Saturday and Sunday. In fact, 21 % of the participants complained about a very busy schedule. Furthermore, 17 % of the participants had difficulties to figure out the contexts of courses. Very few participants (9 %) did not mention any problem about the program. Lastly, economic problem was expressed by 8 % of the participants.

3.4 Are you satisfied to find what you have expected from the program

Table 4: *Participants' satisfaction from the Initial Teacher Training program*

Rank	Statements	F	%
1	Satisfied	67	48
2	Satisfied moderately	32	23
3	Not any expectations	24	17
4	Not satisfied	17	12
	Total	140	100

Table 4 indicates the satisfaction level of the participants from the program. Almost half of the participants expressed their satisfaction and 23 % of them were slightly satisfied. Some of the participants (17 %) did not have any expectation from the program because they just needed certificate (official document to be a teacher) and they did not have any interest in quality of the program because they did not have positive attitude and belief about the necessity of initial teacher training program.

3.5 Could you explain the necessity of this program in terms of effective teacher?

Table 5: *Participants' Views about the necessity of this program*

Rank	Statements	F	%
1	Necessary	128	91
2	Useless	12	9
	Total	140	100

Table 5 indicates the participants' views about the necessity of initial teacher training. Very few participants (9 %) thought that the initial teacher training program is useless. A very high proportion (91%) of the participants thought that the initial teacher training program is necessary. Even some of them confessed that they realize usefulness of the program.

3.6 What do you think about the content of courses?

Table 6: *Participants evaluated about the content of courses*

Rank	Statements	F	%

1	Good enough		83	59
2	Not very well		29	21
3	Inefficient		28	20
		Total	140	100

Table 6 indicates participants' evaluation of the content of the courses. Majority of the participants (59 %) expressed that the content of courses was good enough. On the other hand, some of the participants (21 %) stated that the content of courses must be revised and improved. Also some of the participants (20 %) thought that the content of the courses was inefficient.

3.7 What do you think of the quality of instruction?

Table 7: *Participants evaluated the quality of instruction*

Rank	Statements		F	%
1	Good enough.		73	52
2	Insufficient.		37	26
3	Mediocre.		30	22
		Total	140	100

Table 7 indicates participants' perceptions of the quality of instruction. Majority of the participants (52 %) stated that the instruction of courses was good enough. In other words, the participants were glad to be in the teaching and learning atmosphere of the program. However, one-fourth of the participants (26 %) stated that the quality of instruction was insufficient. Even though this evaluation depends on the quality of each teacher, participants' perceptions reflect the result of quality of all courses. On the other hand, about one-fifth of the participants stated that the instruction quality was mediocre. In fact, some instructors performed very well but some did not.

3.8 What do you think of the effectiveness of whole program?

Table 8 *Participants evaluated the effectiveness of whole program*

Rank	Statements		F	%
1	Very effective program		122	87
2	Ineffective program		18	13
		Total	140	100

Table 8 indicates participants' evaluation of whole program. In general, very high portion of the participants (87 %) believed that initial teacher training program was very effective to be a teacher. Furthermore, they stated that nobody was allowed to go to classroom as a teacher without completing this program. Some policy makers in Turkey still believe that content knowledge is enough to be a teacher, but the majority of the participants acknowledge the importance of initial teacher training program to be effective teacher. On the other hand, few participants (13%) thought that the program was ineffective to be a teacher. They suggested improving the program in terms of implementation level.

4 Findings and discussion

One of the most important findings is that the majority of initial teacher training participants did not realize the importance of the program before joining the program. They thought that they would have a certificate for

government fulfillment of requirement to be a teacher. Even most of them thought that this kind of programs were useless and only time consuming because they had enough knowledge about what were going to teach. This belief is also very common among Turkish society. Furthermore, pedagogical background of teacher is not considered to be effective teacher in Turkey. Several university graduates want to be a teacher at the high schools because of very high unemployment rate among them. Recently, popularity of teaching profession has been increased in Turkey because of job security, income, and nation's economic condition. Every year the highest rate of employee recruited by state consist of teachers. In some years novice teachers were recruited exclusively from education faculty graduates and sometimes both education faculty graduates and other faculty graduates. This fact is a big obstacle to set up tradition of teacher training policy.

Second issue of the initial teacher training of Turkey is the length of program. It takes one year (two semesters- courses, seminars, and teaching). However, in European countries it takes more than one year. For example, in Germany- Hesse initial teacher training takes two years with courses, seminars and teaching, leading to the second state exam for teachers (Kipp & Rothmann, 2004). Time in one year initial teacher training is not used effectively either, because some participants live far away from training center, and they have to travel each weekend. In fact, they experience several problems such as transportation, accommodation, and timing. As a result attendance appears to pose a difficulty.

Fortunately, the problems mentioned above are not due to the initial teacher training program itself. They are external problems but, they influence the quality of the program. The majority of the participants in the programs in this study have understood the value of the program and found that the program is effective and gained crucial skills and experiences even though some of them had prejudice.

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Curricular changes in HE – the challenge of Faculdade de Ciências Médicas of Universidade Nova de Lisboa

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Abstract

One of the force lines of the Bologna Process – in order to improve the quality and the efficacy of HE – recommends that the learning and teaching processes should focus on the student and on the mobilization of efforts by the HE Institutions in order to improve the quality and the variety of the offered educational programs. Students' orientation regarding the acquisition and development of key competences is also considered fundamental in an uncertain and constantly changing job market.

Although medicine has not immediately assumed the Bologna Treaty in all the dimensions, many recommendations were followed by medical schools. That is the case of Faculdade de Ciências Médicas (FCM) where a curricular reform is ongoing since 2011 aiming at responding more appropriately to the challenges raised by Bologna and to the social needs in terms of health and care. Considering the international quality standards, FCM has taken the following actions: to design a new curriculum aligned with the health care system needs; to define the educational aims aligned with the definition of the course outcome profile(s); to elaborate a curriculum consistent with the institution organization and the existent resources.

In what concerns the medical teachers, they are asked to maintain a close and cooperative relationship with the students, to develop more ambitious learning objectives besides keeping their research and medical activities (Rosado Pinto & Marques, 2012).

To help them meet these ambitious and multicentred objectives new "teaching development centres" (Biggs 2003) have been created. This is the case of the Departments of Medical Education (DME)

This paper aims to show how the DME is monitoring the reform process in FCM and how the teachers' pedagogical training, also by the DME, is helping teachers to deal with it. Data were collected by semi-structured interviews to key informants focus groups, and questionnaires.

Keywords: HE; quality; innovation; curriculum; teaching development centres; pedagogical training

1   Introduction

Medical education is undergoing, namely in Europe and in the USA, a period of change and reorganization due to drastic changes in society and consequently in each National Health Care System (NHS).

As a matter of fact new pressing rules, namely economical ones, have been conditioning major changes in the health care infrastructures and delivery, making health care affordable and accessible to most people the major challenge in our societies.

Furthermore although research makes almost daily new additions to the understanding of human disease, other and more complex diseases are emerging. On the other hand, some diseases are nowadays easily diagnosed and treated by recently developed technological enablers (medical devices and diagnostic equipment) making nurses and other health care practitioners play a different role in the health care teams. Not only taking care of patients, but also organizing and supervising the work of health care professionals as well as working within professional networks

will be a major dimension of a doctor's job. Physicians are no longer "independent actors" (Christensen, 2009, p. 344) and will have to be prepared to adapt to the inevitable changing in work patterns and to what modern societies and more educated patients expect from them.

Medical training has to reflect these new realities and the basic architecture of our medical schools curricula has been changing to meet these challenges.

After a brief framework on the changes occurred in HE and in HE in Medicine, this paper aims to reflect on the monitoring by the Department of Medical Education of Universidade Nova de Lisboa from two points of view: in monitoring the ongoing curricular reform at this HEI; and the pedagogical training of teachers involved in the reform in order to help them cope with the inherent changes.

2   Change and innovation in HE

A few decades ago the university was above "the immediate" (Amaral &Magalhães, 2000), that is, to say didn't have to react to change immediately but integrated it along time. On the contrary, nowadays the effects of globalization are felt very quickly.

Furthermore, the massification of education brought to University a much more diverse student population either in their social, economic and cultural origins or r in their study habits, use of information and communication technologies. Consequently HE Institutions have to deal with increasing demands (Zabalza, 2002; Esteves, 2008) on scientific, technical and ethical domains.

To answer to these needs of change and innovation the creation of a more cohesive, competitive and attractive European HE is required. In order to do so, the student and the variety of student population must be the focus of HE. This implies the mobilization of efforts to improve the quality and variety of training programs promoting the development, of capacities beyond solid knowledge and lifelong independent learning (Reimão, 2001; Escudero Muñoz, 2012) as well as the enhancement of key transversal skills essential in an uncertain and in constant transformation job market (Communiqué of the Conference of European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education - Leuven and Louvain-la-Neuve, 2009).

Thus it is essential to act in order to improve the quality of the contents and of the pedagogical processes offered by HE and underline the role played by teachers and students from inside the system, without waiting for external constraints (Esteves, 2008).

However curriculum improvement implies a broader change and this change implies the deconstruction and stabilization of new structures, the search for a new balance with new organizational principles, the break with social habits and with the group *ethos*.

In the late 50 years, all over the world, curriculum innovation has been searched as a key instrument of educational change, essential for an updated HE, able to answer to the needs of a society in constant change. If it is true that over the years there has been an increasing investment of HE institutions in educational innovation it is also true that many curricular reforms were not well succeeded because of the resilience and resistance to change from structures and cultures. This fact led, frequently, to encourage continuity.

Specifically with regard to medical teaching, changes in population characteristics, the advancement of research in biomedical sciences, the new social pathologies and the need to integrate the various models of knowledge and provision of health care (Rosado Pinto, 2006) created several needs, namely: the need to rethink students preparation in scientific and technical levels, to develop high personal and professional values and an attitude increasingly committed to the profession and to the people (Carter & Jackson, 2009).

In fact, as Jones *et al*. (2001, p. 699) refer "a changing role of medicine in society and the growing expectations patients have of their doctors means that the content and delivery of medical curriculum also have to change", which implies, in their perspective, changes in courses curricular design, curriculum and curricular development.

3   About the monitoring by the Department of Medical Education

3.1   Institutional Context

The **Faculdade de Ciências Médicas (FCM)** was created as an Organic Unit of the Nova University of Lisbon by the Law n.º **481/77, of November 15th** and started its functions in 1977-1978.

The **Department of Medical Education (DME)** of the FCM was created in 1996 by the Dean of the faculty. The explicit demand of the Dean related with the urgency of curriculum reform and of academic staff pedagogical training. FCM was at that time an assumed traditional medical school, with powerful autonomous departments and a strongly content oriented curriculum and without any academic educational staff development strategy. Nevertheless, an explicit will to reform the curriculum and to implement educational changes had been expressed.

It was decided that the real needs of the institution had to be characterized and a large consultation process within the school was launched aiming to define the goals and priorities of an educational department based on the expressed needs and expectations of the teachers. The main demands were the development of support educational materials (namely learning assessment tools), the establishment and enhancement of an institutional teaching quality strategy and the implementation of academic staff development activities.

In terms of educational materials the DME has been producing since its creation several booklets on teaching techniques and assessment tools and distributing them to all the academic departments of FCM. In what concerns teaching quality several activities have been regularly implemented by the DME and used as a regular practice in the school, namely collecting and analyzing teachers and students' degree of satisfaction on teaching (using questionnaires); monitoring innovations (by observation of teaching performances); providing feedback and pedagogical support (individual and group meetings) and finally participating at large institutional level in all the academic audit processes (internal and external).

Implementing a systematic teachers' pedagogical training program was a main goal of the DME. Several workshops targeting different audiences have been put in place since that time: workshops for new lecturers (basic pedagogical competences - how to plan a lesson, how to align desired learning outcomes with assessment tools, for example); courses for established lecturers (self-learning activities in a group session; tutorials; problem-based learning, for example) and informal activities, such as journal clubs, sharing good practices sessions and seminars on educational themes.

The regular activity of the DME is nowadays fully integrated in the mission and in the educational program of FCM and DME is a member of the Pedagogical Council of the school.

Since the beginning of the reform process the DME was asked to help in the monitoring process of the reform, as well as, in the support to teachers involved in the process.

3.2   The Medical Sciences course before and after the curriculum reform

Following the recommendations endorsed by the British General Medical Council and by the World Federation of Medical Education (General Medical Council, 2003, 2006; WFME/AMSE, 2007) the 2011-2012 academic year was a year of change on the medicine curriculum at FCM. The reform process should result in a more integrated and flexible curriculum, organized by skills and competences with a less theoretical weight and valuing a contextualized professional training. The main characteristics of this new curriculum are:

Factual information kept to the essential minimum that students need at this stage of their training

Competence based curriculum

Integration (more clinical components in the first years of training and some theoretical components in the last years)

Flexible curriculum with student-selected components (optional curricular unities)

Different (both hospital and community centered) learning opportunities

Use of new diverse learning approaches – case –based; PBL; medical simulation

Teachers' pedagogical training

3.3   Monitoring the reform and the role of the DME

In what concerns the new curriculum of FCM it was decided that in order to ensure maintenance and enhancement of the quality of medical education the curriculum implementation should be monitored.

It was also felt that decisions about the curriculum and about achieving the educational standards set in the launching of the reform should be based on the triangulation of aggregated information across several sources of information (teachers and students from the first and sixth curricular years), different methods (questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and informal interviews) and moments of data collecting (formally at the end of each semester and at the end of each academic year)

Different actions took place. In all these activities the Department of Medical Education was present as a formal partner of teachers and students.

1.   Within the Pedagogical Council (either in general meetings or in sector meetings).

2.   Within the Teaching Quality Committee of FCM

3.   Within the Curriculum Monitoring Committee – a committee assigned to make proposals to the Director of FCM for amendment and curriculum review.

To collect medical students' views about the quality of the teaching they receive and about their undergraduate training several questionnaires were used:

Questionnaires developed at central level (Teaching Quality Office) and in place in all the academic units of NOVA;

Questionnaires developed by the teachers within their own disciplines and aiming at evaluating specific features of their own curricula;

Questionnaires developed by the Medical Education Department aiming at collecting the students' degree of satisfaction with general and transversal issues related to their learning opportunities (timetable, spaces and educational resources, for example);

Meetings with the representatives of the students;

Meetings with teachers (focus groups);

In what concerns academic staff development the DME increased the activities already referred (see 3.1)

4   Conclusions

Here we present some preliminary conclusions of our study and some shortcomings of the monitoring already performed.

Preliminary conclusions:

Both teachers and students appreciated the effort which was necessary to design and implement a new curriculum in FCM, but they also referred the necessity of a deeper enculturation process in order to involve them in the spirit and the global perspective of the reform;

The progressive implementation of the curriculum (starting in the first and sixth curricular years) and the concomitance with the "old" curriculum (in the other curricular years) represented a major difficulty both in terms of institutional organization and school dynamics;

As a deep and broad discussion on the real health needs is crucial for the definition of the main goals and content of any curriculum, teachers felt that this discussion is still necessary and that it didn't take enough time before the introduction of some of the curricular changes;

Students felt the necessity of a more explicit alignment between the educational process and the defined learning outcomes, as well as the improvement of assessment methodologies

Teachers and students identified specific content gaps and the need for a clearer definition of the minimum of knowledge required in each curricular year.

Students identified the need for a more explicit articulation/sequence among disciplines as the "traditional" contented is now integrated in different disciplines and in different;

Finally, teachers referred their pedagogical training as a crucial supporting tool to implement the reform

In what concerns our study several shortcomings have to be pointed out.

We have not involved all the stakeholders (namely non academic staff from whom the reform greatly depends).

The study relied mainly on interviews accounts and questionnaires rather than observation of actual teaching.. In further data collecting we will have to incorporate other tools for both tracking students' activities and evaluating their learning experiences .An added value will definitely represent direct observations of teaching and learning activities. Furthermore, collecting the opinions of the health professionals from hospitals and health centers where students' rotations will take place will also be a major issue This approach will be crucial in the next years as the reform is reaching the more clinical oriented curricular years.

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Higher Education policies in Portugal, in the post-Bologna period: implications on curricular development and demands for teaching

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Abstract

Since the end of the 20th century, Higher Education has suffered various reforms resulting from international policies (Robertson, 2009) with impacts, amongst others, on the courses' organization and on curricular development processes. This demanded teaching pedagogical work modes with the student as an active agent in the teaching-learning-assessing process (Zabalza, 2011; Luke, 2011). Within this framework, this presentation focuses a study developed in the University of Porto (U. Porto), aiming to analyse the effects of the Bologna Process policies in curriculum organization and development processes, and their effects on university teaching. Based on curriculum concepts supporting higher education policies in Portugal (Leite & Fernandes, 2011), in the post-Bologna period, in the study's empirical phase, data was collected through a survey questionnaire with open ended and closed ended questions, applied to U. Porto teachers. Data analysis, using both a simple statistical process (closed ended questions) and content analysis (Krippendorf, 2003) concerning the discourses (open ended question), showed paradigmatic tensions which reflect dilemmas resulting from the challenges of (re)configuring curricular organization and development, related with a critically oriented pedagogical work mode.

Keywords: higher education policies; curriculum; university teaching

1 Introduction

Since the end of the 20th century, Higher Education (HE) has been the subject of increased attention, mainly due to reforms arising from international policies outlined by global market demands (Robertson, 2009; Lima, 2012) and presented with the intention of promoting greater socio-economic and cultural development. Speeches of quality and demand in accountability, through standardized criteria to evaluate and ensure the desired quality, have moved on to constitute the agenda of the debate on HE, mainly regarding the organization of courses and curricular development processes (Leite, 2012).

In this context, the demands of teaching pedagogical work modes, where the students are considered active agents in the teaching-learning-assessing processes, have characterized the discourse of the Bologna Process (BP) (Leite & Ramos, 2011) – notably taking into consideration the quantitative expansion that generated a diversity of forms of training provision and public who came to attend HE.

This paper reports a study developed in the University of Porto (U.Porto) with the objective of analyse the political implications, arising from the BP, in the processes of organizing and developing the curriculum and in the generated effects in university teaching practice. The text is organized in three parts: the context of HE from the institutionalization of the BP and its relation with concepts of curriculum that support HE policies in Portugal in the post-Bologna phase; methodological procedures that were followed in data collection; presentation and discussion of data concerning the opinions of teachers from U.Porto about the changes resulting from the BP, agreement with current university policies and demanded and perceived needs of pedagogical and didactic training to better match a paradigm focused on learning.

At last, in the final remarks, some comments are made to the existence of paradigmatic tensions that reflect dilemmas arising from the challenges to (re)configurations of the organization and curricular development related to a critically oriented pedagogical work mode.

2 Concepts of curriculum underlying post-Bologna Higher Education policies

To think about the HE development since the second half of the past century requires dealing with ideas created in this education level concerning issues of access, permanency and effective quantitative and qualitative development. That is, it requires to be understood in the context of pressure that HE has been suffering to shift the attention of the scholarship to the market, in what Lima, Azevedo and Catani (2008) named managerialist ratinale. According to these authors, the time reduction in the 1st cycle (degree) courses constitutes "a good opportunity to adopt measures of reducing the State's expenses and not to strengthen the working conditions in schools, namely in pedagogical terms" (p. 15). Therefore, it is corroborated the idea that "university pedagogy proposed by the Bologna Process (BP) will run the risk of being a superficial or cosmetic change, limited to the introduction of a new reformer lexicon (curricular unit, learning results, contact hours, etc.) without much substance and incapable of promoting changes in the organization of the work of both teachers and students, in the adoption of tutorial schemes to support students, in the classes' sizes, in assessment procedures and in the attention to the students' cultural, ethical-political and civic education" (*idem*). Also in the analysis of public policies, Robertson (2009) considers that "we are dealing with a highly complex and interconnected set of processes and relations" (p. 145) in which "national and regional sectors of HE have become more closely associated in the global system, although… its nature and the consequences of their relations vary according to their different stories, sizes and to the way their economies, geopolitical interests, internal political arrangements, specific natures of the HE sector, kinds of development strategies are implemented and so on" (*idem*).

It's in this context that the BP develops with influences of guidelines that, in their discourse, are sustained by a critical oriented concept of curriculum (Pacheco, 2001; Leite, 2002) which implies a reorganization of the courses and a new student status. This demands reconfigurations in the teaching practice, either from the point of view of "university didactics" (Zabalza, 2011), or from the point of view of international standards that do not consider local specificities (Luke, 2011).

In which concerns transformations in educational and curricular concepts proposed by the BP, what underlies is the proposal of an increased distance from the traditional perspective limited to the transmission and acquisition of knowledge (academic rationalism), inherent to a curriculum that has the goal of mere reproduction of existing knowledge (Leite, 2002), as well as an increased distance from the technicist and behaviourist perspective of learning to achieve behavioural and instructional objectives in a short term, that has the goal of mere reproduction of behaviours. That is, the BP speech suggests the use of processes grounded in a constructivist learning perspective that takes into consideration social contexts and issues and, thus, is able to foster the development of skills for living in a future that cannot be predetermined. This curricular perspective is centred both in students and in assessment processes that are perceived as means of promoting learning and self-regulation. However, it has been argued (Leite & Fernandes, 2001, p. 528) that "studies reveal that assigning centrality to students in the teaching-learning processes is not an easy process nor it constitutes a rule in the everyday of institutions". Therefore, the implementation of the Bologna paradigm has challenged teachers, in their professional practice, to consider the student as an active agent in the learning process. These are the issues that ground the empirical study that is presented below.

3 Methodological procedures

Data collection was made through an on-line questionnaire applied to teachers at U.Porto, due to the fact this was one of the first institutions to give attention to pedagogical issues in Higher Education (HE) in Portugal. This questionnaire had two closed questions, one with 13 items and other with 4 items to collect opinions in a 4 level scale (little, medium, many, great many) related with: i) changes occurred in HE due to the Bologna Process (BP); ii) level of support of current policies in HE. The questionnaire had also an open question that focused challenges arising from a Training program of pedagogical and didactical update in U.Porto that occurred in 2005, in period preceding the adaptation to the BP. So, only teachers that attended this training program were selected to the studied sample.

The sample was constituted by 17 teachers belonging to 8 of the 14 faculties of U.Porto and distributed by several professional ranks in HE: 12% of full professors, 35% of associate professors, 47% of assistant professors and 6% of assistant lecturers. There were a greater number of professors from the Engineering Faculty – FEUP (29%) and from the Medicine Faculty – FMUP (17%). Regarding the professional experience, there were professors with experiences ranging from 9 to 39 years of teaching at U.Porto: 18% with 37 to 39 years of experience; 24% with 25 to

28 years of experience; 18% with 20 to 23 years of experience; 29% with 12 to 14 years of experience; 9% with 9 years of experience.

Considering the professional life cycle of these teachers systematized by Huberman (1992), it can be verified that the majority of the respondents (64%) is in the "experience and diversification (7 to 15 years)" phase, that is, in a phase characterized by reviewing and questioning oneself teaching know-how. From the rest of the teachers, 18% are in "serenity / conservatism (25 to 35 years)", characterized by feelings of confidence or regrets, and 18% are in a "disinvestment (35 to 40 years)" where a growing distance from professional investment occurs.

In short, these are experienced teachers – they have a minimum of almost a decade of experience at U.Porto - that already worked in the same university before the BP (2006) and are associated to different areas of knowledge.

The contact with these teachers was made, in a first moment, personally, by telephone or e-mail. After ad affirmative response to collaborate in this study, the questionnaire was published online allowing anonymous responses. The answers to closed questions were analyzed by simple statistics and the ones to the opened question were subjected to content analysis (Kripperdorf, 2003).

4 Presentation and discussion of data

Obtained data are here presented and discussed beginning by answers to the closed questions and passing on to answers to the open question. As previously referred, one of the closed questions contained 13 aspects that allowed knowing the teachers' opinions about the changes occurred in Higher Education (HE) due to the Bologna Process (BP). Table 1 presents the distribution of those answers in percentage and number, in a scale of "little, medium, many, great many".

Table 1 – Opinions of teachers about the level of changes occurred due to the Bologna Process

Changes	Level			
	Little	Medium	Many	Great many
a) In the University's mission, in general	19%(3)	31%(5)	38%(6)	12%(2)
b) In the management of the University of Porto	31%(5)	6%(1)	38%(6)	25%(4)
c) In the management of your Faculty	25%(4)	6%(1)	44%(7)	25%(4)
d) In the organization of the courses	12%(2)	12%(2)	44%(7)	31%(5)
e) In the way the curricular units are organized	12%(2)	19%(3)	38%(6)	31%(5)
f) In the way you organize the curricular units in which you teach	0%(0)	25%(4)	38%(6)	38%(6)
g) In the way the teaching practice is made in the university	19%(3)	31%(5)	31%(5)	19%(3)
h) In the way the teaching-learning process in ensured	6%(1)	44%(7)	25%(4)	25%(4)
i) In the assigned role to the University students	0%(0)	25%(4)	50%(8)	25%(4)
j) In the way you assess learning	19%(3)	25%(4)	31%(5)	25%(4)
k) In the conduct of research	44%(7)	19%(3)	25%(4)	12%(2)
l) In extension activities	38%(6)	38%(6)	12%(2)	12%(2)
m) In the relation between teaching-research-extension	31%(5)	38%(6)	25%(4)	6%(1)

Data in Table 1 allows verifying that there is a high concentration of choices for the levels "Great many" (38%) and "Medium" (31%) in the recognition of changes occurred in the mission assigned to the University. Although some respondents chose the level "Little" (19%), it can't be ignored that some of these teachers consider that changes occurred due to the BP were "Great many" (12%). That is, 81% if these teachers recognized the existence of changes in the mission assigned to the University.

Concerning the management of the University of Porto, although 31% of the answers are within the level "Little", representing almost 1/3 of the respondents, 63% recognized the existence of "Many" (38%) or "Great many" (25%) changes.

In which concerns the management of their particular Faculty, the majority of these teachers (69%) considers to have occurred "many" (44%) or "great many" (25%) changes. However, ¼ of the subjects considers that there were "Little" changes in this aspect.

If we compare the answers of these last three aspects, we can conclude that the majority of these teachers recognize that the BP has generated institutional changes in the university mission and management. As the BP has an European level in its principles and organization, this situation confirms the theories that sustain the idea that national policies are increasingly controlled by international decisions and directives (Robertson, 2009; Lima, 2012).

In which concerns the organization of university courses and the way the curricular units are designed, the majority of the subjects (75%) recognizes the existence of "Many" (44%) or "great many" (25%) changes. This data shows that the required adaptation of Portuguese courses to the new legal framework conditioned by the BP implied a new organization of most university courses. That is, it can be considered that this Process triggered a curriculum reform of university education (Leite, 2012).

Focusing on issues of organization of curricular units, it can be verified that 69% of the teachers consider that the curricular units have been organized in a way with "Many" (38%) or "Great many" (31%) differences. They also recognize the existence of changes in the way they teach. In this case, no teacher admitted the existence of "Little" changes and 76% recognized the existence of changes in a "Many" (38%) or "great many" (38%) level. It must be noted that these data are of great importance in an analysis of the effects generated by the policy arising from the BP. Having been presented in Portugal with the intention of breaking a paradigm focused on teaching replacing it with a paradigm focused on learning, the opinions of these teachers reveal that the Bologna process generated effects in curricular processes that imply a more active role given to students in the construction of their learning (Leite & Fernandes, 2011).

This recognition also occurs in the responses referring to the role assigned to college students. However, when compared with the responses regarding teaching practice, provided the teaching-learning process and evaluated the learning, it appears there is a tension between the proposition and effectiveness, revealed in a concentration of 75% of the answers in the levels "Medium" (31%) and "Many" (44%). In this case, although teachers recognize changes in the way they organize the curricular units in which they teach, as well as in the assigned role to university students, when the focus turns to the changes occurred in teaching practice, the concentration of answers falls into "Medium" (31%) and "Many" (31%) levels. In which concerns the way the teaching-learning process in ensured, the concentration of responses falls into levels "Medium" (44%), "Many" (25%) and "Great Many" (25%). Regarding the way learning is assessed, the concentration of responses falls into levels "Many" (31%), followed by levels "Medium" and "Great Many", both with 25% of the responses.

This tension is also evident when analysing the responses to aspects related to changes in the conduct of research, extension activities and in the relation between teaching-research-extension. In these cases, a concentration is observed in a scale of 63% to 76% of responses that points out to changes in the levels "Little" and "Medium" and a minority, in the scale of 24% to 36%, in the levels "Many" and "great many". These values show that the BP did not produce large effects on the exercise of these activity dimensions of teachers.

In summary, given the data presented in Table 1, we can say that, according to these teachers, the BP generated changes in the mission assigned to the University, in the management of the U.Porto and its Faculties. It can be concluded that there were also notable changes in the organization of university courses, in how the courses are organized, in how each teacher organizes himself and in the assigned role to university students. Although these changes have been acknowledge, data lead us to infer that more operational aspects related to teaching practice, the way the teaching-learning process in ensured and the way learning is assessed, the generated changes were lower. The same happens in which concerns the conduct of research, extension activities and the relation between teaching-research-extension, where a concentration within levels of "Little" and "Medium" is verified. That is, data shows that, although these teachers consider that there have been changes from the point of view of speech and demands, from an operational point of view, teachers expressed in their answers a paradigmatic tension between the announced, the lived and the idealized.

This tension is confirmed by the data found in Table 2 on the level of agreement of teachers to the policies that are being experienced in HE.

Table 2 – Level of agreement to current university policies.

Changes	Level			
	Little	Medium	Many	Great many
a) Agreement with the Bologna paradigm	6%(1)	50%(8)	25%(4)	19%(3)
b) Organization of university courses according to the BP	6%(1)	31%(5)	50%(8)	12%(2)
c) Agreement with the principle underlying ECTS	19%(3)	25%(4)	50%(8)	6%(1)

| d) Agreement with the tutoring system for learning | 19%(3) | 44%(7) | 19%(3) | 19%(3) |

It can be verified a high concentration of responses in the level "Many" in which concerns items related to aspects of agreement with policies involving changes to the organization of university courses within the Bologna paradigm (50%) and with principles underlying the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System [ECTS] (50%), opposing a concentration of responses in the "Medium" level on the aspect of agreement with the Bologna paradigm (50%) and to the tutoring system for learning (44%). That is, comparing data from answers related with the level of agreement to the BP policies with data from the occurred changes, it appears there is some tension, while recognizing that some of the "imposed" aspects by the BP are positive.

Considering the changes boosted by the BP require a new way of understanding the teaching practice, the curriculum, the teaching-learning-assessment process and the university mission, some additional data was collected through an open question. The obtained data in these responses refers to the type of challenges that these teachers consider to be facing in the teaching profession.

In which concerns the outlined challenges, only one teacher focused an aspect related to the need to comply with a new rule arising from compulsory attendance at lectures. The most referred outlined challenges are related with teaching processes, with the assigned role to students and with learning assessment procedures. For example, it is referred that "The biggest challenge is to put students to work effectively in groups"; "teach large groups"; "manage time"; "lack of teachers training in new technologies". It is also referred "difficulty in the relationship with students" and difficulty in "finding ways to help students to be autonomous".

Regarding the new expected role of students, it is pointed, for example: "students realize that they have to fulfill a different role". Learning assessment is another aspect referred by these teachers as a challenge. It is pointed, for example, "to be able to fulfill some assumptions, such as formative assessment".

5 Final remarks

From the data presented we can say that, according to these teachers, the BP originated changes in the mission assigned to the University, in the management of U.Porto and its Faculties, as well as in the organization of courses and in the role assigned to students, indicating a relationship of interdependence between these aspects.

However, despite the recognition of these changes, the answers deserve our attention regarding the operational aspects related to the way teaching is carried out in university education, the way the teaching-learning process is ensured and the way learning is assessed. The same happens with regard to the conduct of research, extension activities and the relationship between teaching-research-extension. That is, although there were changes in the speech and demands, from an operational point of view, there is a paradigmatic tension between the announced and the achieved. This tension is particularly relevant when attention is focused on the student activity and learning, or in other words, when it's necessary to (re)configure the organization and development of the curriculum towards a critically oriented pedagogical work mode.

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Action research as a means for reforming curriculum

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1. Introduction

The main aim of our presentation is to discuss –through the description of specific research projects- the possible contribution of educational action research in reshaping the curriculum at various educational contexts. We focus on what AR can offer to the (student) teachers, who try to adjust the curriculum to the specific educational context they act and research in and under what presuppositions. We start from the theoretical background of our proposal: the meaning, underpinnings and processes of the reshaping of the curriculum by practitioners and the features of AR that can contribute to this reshaping. Then we present two groups of action research projects, indicative of the proposed combination and its impact on different educational contexts. These research projects we describe and discuss here are parts of an ongoing study we started at 2009 and we still carry on. Our conclusions concern the extent to which the proposed approach could help (student) teachers to adopt a more reflective attitude towards curriculum, linked to their educational practice, and realise the importance of developing a research and reflection attitude towards the curriculum.

2. Background: curriculum development and educational action research

In the context of the 'scientific' approach to education, as defined by positivism in the first half of the 20th century, the curriculum was viewed as a product, produced by experts on academic theory, independent from the school practice. This technocratic approach turned curriculum development into a bureaucratic normative and therefore controlling process, where teachers in schools only received and implemented orders. Since the 1960s a number of economic, social and epistemological changes have led to different approaches to education in general and to curriculum in particular. It can be supported that the reaction to the dominant technocratic model manifested itself through two alternative orientations, the practical and the critical, which, according to Grundy (1987) relate to the epistemological advancement that led to new epistemological paradigms.

In the practical perspective grounded by Schwab (1997/1969) and Stenhouse (1975) but also in the critical perspective of emancipation and active intervention for social change of the Critical Pedagogy movement (Giroux, 1988), the curriculum cannot be left in the hands of experts. These two paradigms assign the practitioner/ the school teacher, a very responsible role concerning curriculum's development.

In such a practical or critical framework, curriculum is viewed more as a way to translate an educational idea in hypothesis, which must be tested in practice. So it is a proposal that has to be critically tested and not a package of material accepted and ready to use. Curriculum can be developed in real teaching and learning situations, through an active process where planning, acting and evaluating not only are interrelated but also form part of the process itself. It is a process in which students and teachers engage in a dialectical search for alternative meanings (Grundy 1987, p. 115-

116), and which accepts -and perhaps even promotes- conflict, instead of excluding it (Giroux 1981). It is a process that allows the teacher and the students to develop a curriculum based on their lived experiences and –through this process- to enrich them.

So this process can be beneficial –under specific presuppositions- for the teacher and also for the students. On the one hand, as teacher's commitment isn't limited to the correct application of a curriculum developed by experts, he/she can extend his/her professional judgment, constantly reflecting on/in action (Schön, 1983). On the other hand, the needs of the specific students could be covered, as their voices could be heard in a way that would give them the opportunity to intervene actively in the formation of the educational process. In such a case, teachers need substantial professional skills, like critical thinking and research attitude towards teaching and curriculum, creativity, professional accountability and the capability of cooperation and decision taking.

Moreover, if teachers try to read and reshape the curriculum collectively, this process would lead to the creation of new collective entities, like professional learning communities, where teachers could realise that they have to work collectively, adopting a cooperative educational culture both in the school and in cooperation with the broader community and the administration. Thus teachers, the basic agents in education, have the opportunity to play a key role in collectively developing an open, postmodern, curriculum, a kaleidoscope that shifts orientations to reflect new visions and emancipatory aspects of learning and life (Slattery, 1995, p. 257) and overcomes the closed determinism of objective reality. Teachers in cooperation with students, developing the curriculum, seek ideas, values and attitudes that support both the critical approach to 'constructed' reality and new alternative ways of attributing meaning to it in a postmodern context (Doll, 1993, p. 3).

Focusing on teachers' practical knowledge, judgment and reflection, and viewing teaching as an activity that both implements and creates theory, educational action research can contribute significantly to this alternative curriculum approach. Aiming at enhancing teaching -under the specific circumstances it takes place- through collaboration, educational action research suggests a "bottom-up" practice regarding curriculum development and curriculum-related theory production through its constant review and restructuring (Elliott, 1991). In such a framework, curriculum development is viewed as a continuous process of curriculum adjustment and enhancement which takes place in the classroom and school, without overlooking or disparaging theory. The idea of teachers developing the curriculum undermines traditional hierarchy in which teachers are at the bottom of the pyramid, with curriculum designers and researchers being at the top, as producers of scientific knowledge.

3. Action research projects that aimed at reshaping the curriculum

Having this background in mind and considering that the contribution of all the agents in the classroom is extremely crucial for curriculum development as well as their empowerment through action research in this practical and critical orientation, we –as academic teachers or teachers' facilitators- organized action research projects in order to test in practice the potential of this dynamic process.

It is also indicative that -in the four academic years that our study goes on (2009-2013) we chose to test the potential of AR in various and differentiated educational contexts. So we present here action research projects undertaken by student-teachers during their pre-service education and others undertaken by practitioners / teachers at schools during their in-service training. The common feature in all these projects is the aim of reshaping the curriculum.

3.1 Pre-service teacher education: Student- teachers reshape the curriculum

Our study started in the academic year 2009-2010 when we organized the "Teacher as Researcher" undergraduate seminar taught by each of us (Eleni and Vassilis) at his/her group of students at the two Universities we work (one in Athens and one in Crete). The aim of the seminar was to create teacher-researchers who would use action research as a means of analyzing the educational situation and form a curriculum or reshape the official one in a way suitable for their pupils. Our student-teachers were called in groups of five to attempt short action research projects in collaborating schools. After each classroom intervention, the groups participated in supervision meetings, where we – as their facilitators- encouraged them to answer specific open questions and guided the consequent dialogue towards reflection on teaching choices and on the parameters that can influence them and curriculum development or evaluation.

Based on the data collected for our study and its analysis we can point out that, despite the constraints we faced (not enough time, students' unfamiliarity with democratic, dialogic and reflective practices), the student-teachers managed –to a certain extent- to reshape the curriculum and adjust it to the educational context in a researching way that permitted them to link the academic pedagogical theory to educational practice and simultaneously to aim at the constant improvement of teaching through reflection. They got engaged in processes that promote questioning, inquiry and reflection, critical dialogue and collaboration for the interpretation, understanding and change of the curriculum directions and the educational situations.

Continuing our previous research effort, we organized a seminar at the University of Athens in the academic year 2010-11 for the students whose dissertation were supervised by Vassilis. The seminar's basic aim was also to encourage student-teachers to use educational action research so as to critically read and reshape the curriculum. The seminar was organized as follows: twelve undergraduate student-teachers formed a research group, coordinated by Vassilis. The students formed six research pairs, with the aim to conduct educational action research in kindergartens in Athens.

The seminar then evolved as follows: Initially the students participated in a theoretical course on curricula (their role, history, models of design and political dimension). Students were then called to critically study the preschool curriculum as a text, seeking elements that allowed for teachers' initiatives in the classroom. The research pairs then planned their intervention, based on their critical reading of the curriculum and their diagnosis of the educational situation. Before and after each kindergarten classroom intervention, the research pairs presented in plenary meetings their plan or/and its implementation in practice as well as their findings from the analysis of the data collected.

The data analysis of our study again showed that student-teachers seemed to learn to reflect on curriculum, considering it a hypothetical proposal, as well as on teaching and also on their assumptions on it. Also, they considered this process beneficial as it promotes their personal and professional development. They seemed to understand that this research-centred curriculum development could reinforce the autonomy of both teachers and the school as an institution, promoting a 'bottom-up' view on curriculum development, curriculum theory production, and teacher professional development, which are viewed as interrelated processes.

In both these projects the student-teachers, by participating in curriculum reform through collaborative action research, seemed to adopt Stenhouse's approach of the curriculum as "an educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice" (Stenhouse, 1975, p. 4). It is also important that most of the students realized how educational action research supported this process. What we consider interesting and promising is that our proposal shows that educational action research can offer a methodology that can be used in reshaping the curriculum, even by student-teachers, which seemed extremely difficult (almost impossible) before starting this study. Through processes that promote questioning, inquiry, reflection, cooperation and basically meaning making through interpretation, the way the curriculum is perceived changes. It is not yet referred to as "curriculum as product" but at least as "curriculum as practice", providing that way a basis for making decisions about action.

3.2. In-service teacher training: Teachers reshape the curriculum in their school

Based on the same theoretical background and our experience of the previous research project that concerned student-teachers' reshaping of the curriculum, in the school-year 2011-12 we organized an action research project in two different schools in Greece, one in Athens and one in Crete. The main goal of our project was to achieve curriculum change through practices that would assist participating teachers in each school: a) to become a professional team which gradually shapes the feeling of belonging and develops commitment in joint action and change, b) to read the curriculum critically, c) to investigate their common interests and -more importantly- areas for intervention and d) to reshape the curriculum in a continuum of planning, action, reflection and evaluation.

The project was organised in an action research orientation as follows:
- Plenary meetings, where the teachers discussed on educational issues and problems they had diagnosed in the school. These problematic situations required inquiry and action in order to be improved.
- Planning and acting in groups, in a tentative and inquiring way that could generate questions and provide the stimulation for alternative perspectives.
- Supporting training workshops. These seminars helped teachers investigate the questions they had posed, speculate and delve into pertinent issues, and seek new practices and innovative interventions that could gradually reshape the official curriculum but also modify the school culture.
- Plenary meetings, where the teachers reflected collectively on the new perspectives and discussed the new plans for intervening in the educational action as well as appropriate ways for collecting data for evaluation.
- Replanning and acting.

In these two schools we acted as teachers' mentors/ facilitators. In spite the difficulties we faced because of our academic status –which could easily provoke latent relations of power- we tried from the beginning to cooperate with the teachers on an equal basis, adopting the reflective mentor model (Baron, 2006 in Athanases *et al*., 2008). So we focused on the ways through which we could involve the teachers actively in critical reflection on the curriculum, their practice, their lived experiences and their practical knowledge. Through group discussions with the teachers on their understanding of the curriculum, through teachers' detailed presentations of their practices, through posing critical questions on them that could help teachers analyze their practices (Athanases *et al*., 2008, p. 747-48), we tried to support their effort to:
- realize their tacit knowledge (Polanyi, 1967) that guides their practice,
- judge the curriculum based on the official educational theory and on their practical knowledge,
- reshape the curriculum and their practice accordingly.

In the next school year (2012-13) Vassilis continued our research project in a school of Attica. This time the teachers' aim was to reform the forth column of the curriculum, pupils' assessment. The project was again developed in a similar way. The teachers decided to test in practice the potential of pupils' portfolio, as an alternative method of assessment and self-assessment. So teachers conducted an action research in order to inquire the ways the portfolio assessment could be implemented in the specific learning environment and to form new proposals for improving its function. Through action research, teachers tried to connect the portfolio assessment to teaching and learning and at the same time to study its effect on pupils' learning, as well as on the development of meta-cognitive strategies and of self-awareness. Teachers also viewed portfolio assessment as a process that gave them important feedback for their practice and its effectiveness. An interesting discussion developed that concerned the results of pupils' portfolio, not the measurable results of behaviourist models that are mirrored on written exams, but results that emerged gradually through collective educational action in cooperation with the pupils. The realisation of portfolio's significant contribution led teachers to the decision of keeping a teacher's portfolio, as a tool of evaluating their work, self-evaluation and

finally evaluation of the implemented curriculum. So this action research was also an effort to reshape the curriculum.

We have to admit that we faced many difficulties in our co-operation with the teachers, mainly in the first effort. Most of these difficulties were expressions of teachers' resistances to our innovative training practices. These resistances derived from:

- their expectation of teaching recipes from us, technocratic and effective solutions that could improve the situation in their schools,
- their detestation of theory and their inclination for empiricism and mere problem-solving,
- the insecurity they felt whenever they tried a reform of their practice and of the curriculum, as they used to be only recipients of a curriculum developed by experts elsewhere.

Despite the difficulties, this bottom-up approach to curriculum reform we tried in practice seemed to empower the involved teachers and us, as well, as their facilitators. Teachers gradually started to construct research questions realizing the multiple dimensions of the educational situation they worked in and they understood that they had to ground their decisions and arguments on data from the field (their classroom). Moreover, through these processes they got to know their pupils better, and trust them while getting feedback from them for the changes they tried. And the most important: they viewed the curriculum critically, as a text that can provide them with smart ideas and opportunities to consult the official educational theory so as to test it in practice. In such a framework of autonomous action, the teachers professed quite satisfied from the research practice in which they engaged through curriculum development. Besides, we –as facilitators- studied ways and means that can support the construction of collective knowledge in a community of practice.

4. Conclusions

Curriculum development by (student) teachers through action research gave a different perspective to the educational process, which seemed to be the result of (student) teachers' conscious choices and draw on the real needs of the pupils, as they evolved in the context of an active and dynamic process. The (student) teachers as agents in the process of curriculum reshaping realised the benefits of their liberation from imposed curricula, and overcame the epistemology of explaining and controlling, moving on to the epistemology of practice, replacing manipulation with judgement (Stenhouse, 1975). In this action research framework, special emphasis was placed on the belief that there are no general solutions to the complicated practical educational problems, but only specific strategies, which are developed in the educational environment and in which the practitioner plays a crucial role.

And this practice and research-centered orientation gave (student) teachers the possibility to engage in an inquiry on curriculum issues. As they viewed school knowledge dynamically, they gave to pupils more space to determine what counts as significant and useful knowledge. So they seemed to perceive curriculum as a means for all participants (teachers and pupils) to converse with the complicated postmodern context (Pinar, 2004: 8-10), as a question that transforms curriculum development in a process of meaning construction (Slattery, 1995, p. xi), a "mixed and multivariate integration of rich, open-ended experiences" (Doll, 1993, p. 38).

We have to point out that the difference in the case of the in-service training is that this "bottom up" approach to curriculum development and educational change functioned as the school was turning into a research laboratory. Teachers exchanged thoughts and ideas; they got engaged in cooperative and sometimes in collective action. They functioned –to a certain extent- as a professional community of learning which offered them significant support. But student-teachers didn't manage to reflect collectively as a community. As they did not have a common perspective, they find it hard to overcome the person-centred approach, the technical rationality, and the individualism and instrumentalism that dominate educational thinking.

Moreover neither teachers nor student-teachers seem to incorporate in their research the critique of the institutional contexts in which they are called to work. They failed to understand the

social and political nature of teaching, as most of them seemed to hold a non-politicised view of schooling, and they were therefore not engaged in critical reflection.

Finally, it was obvious that they need support in the process of reshaping the curriculum, in order to overcome their resistances derived from the insecurity they felt as they took the responsibility of developing a curriculum. Most of them seem to get this support either by the group or/and by the empowering intervention of the facilitator/critical friend. That's why our role was crucial and we need to reflect on the ways we tried to manage the situation.

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Context-based learning curriculum: focusing on critical thinking development through an emancipatory pedagogy

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Abstract

Canadian nursing education, historically, began by privileging content and information transfer in ways that resulted in lecture-based classes dependent on, for example, memorization strategies and limited student participation. From there, consideration of nursing educators' pedagogical preparation was launched and has been unfolding ever since. Most recently, Canadian programs of nursing are aware of the importance of pedagogical preparation and the challenge of preparing future professionals to deliver health services in diverse, changing environments. Consequently, educators and students are expected to assume a more critical approach toward knowledge application. A teaching and learning strategy used in various forms within health sciences is problem-based learning (PBL); which centers an existing health challenge so that the aim is to develop in students, effective problem-solving and communication skills, high level critical thinking, and capacity to act autonomously. Through PBL, an aim is to engage in a process of knowing how to prepare and interact with others about current health problems exhibited within different contexts and degrees of complexity. A variation of PBL known as Context-based Learning (CBL) aligns closely with principles inherent in an emancipatory pedagogical practice. This strategy exposes students to real life situations, common problems, and social dilemmas that instigate in them to search for appropriate theories, concepts, practices, and attitudes. The aim of this project consisted of a selected review of the literature on a particular form of CBL as method; and then by applying Freire's emancipatory pedagogical framework, an analysis identified emancipatory elements as perceived through the viewpoints of educators and students. The findings reveal strengths and gaps of CBL characterized in the teacher-learner relationship, as well as in the development of students' capacity to act autonomously. A discussion emphasizes how knowledge and action may result in understanding that positions both student and teacher to take up a more responsive teaching and learning scholarship.

Keywords: Context-based Learning, Emancipatory Pedagogy, Nursing Education, Critical Thinking

1 Introduction

Pedagogy is basically a set of ways used by educators to reach proposed objectives, within the realm of educational interactions they experience with students. An important characteristic of an educator's work is the pedagogical perspective assumed. This perspective emerges from the beliefs of the educator towards the philosophical trends in education (Hills & Watson, 2011). The traditional trends are those in which primary importance is placed on the reproduction and conservation of society. As a result, professorship is based on authoritarianism, whereby the use of strategies is centred on teaching rather than on learning. In addition, these trends emphasize major participation by educators rather than students, and knowledge transmission rather than knowledge building. By contrast, the emancipatory trends focus on social transformation through educational practices that enhance the autonomy of students (Saviani, 1980; Libâneo, 1994; Freire, 1990, 1992a, 1992b, 2011).

In considering the importance of a progressive pedagogical approach, it is necessary to analyze the teaching-learning methodology used in nursing education. Nursing in Canada in the past century has tended to privilege content and information transmission rather than the psychological aspects that can affect how nursing students experience learning and respond as learners. Lectures, for example, were a first choice in teaching strategies, because nursing curricula were too full of content that needed to be covered during classes. Moreover, courses had only a few hours to deliver all this nursing content (WEIR, 1932).

Today, most nursing schools in Canada are aware of the importance of pedagogical preparation in nursing education, because the professional discipline of nursing has been challenged to prepare professionals for a new world of future challenges. A method recently considered in many universities' curricula is problem-based learning (PBL), which is a learning approach centred on actual problems aimed at developing problem-solving and communicative skills, as well as high-level critical thinking and autonomy of students (Biley & Smith, 1998; Celia & Gordon, 2001; Frost, 1996; Rideout, 2001; Walton & Matthews, 1989). In nursing, PBL was not viewed as the most suitable term to address this process of knowing and interacting within a context; thus, some universities decided to call this method context-based learning (CBL) (Profetto-McGrath, Smith, Day, & Yonge, 2004). In CBL, according to William & Day (2006), nursing students commence a discussion about a given scenario, firstly using their background knowledge and information. Afterward, they go through the scenarios and extract essential themes to work on. Next, students on their own seek out important information for the themes elicited, bringing them back to the group to discuss how to apply them to a particular scenario. This method engages students in a process of building their own knowledge through scenarios, as well as through group experiences and learning how to work as a team. Although CBL is closely aligned with the principles of Freire's (2001; 1990) emancipatory pedagogical practice, there are several characteristics that remain underdeveloped in this method.

2   Methods

The purpose of this selected review was to examine background and baseline information about CBL used in nursing education at a Western Canadian university. The main objective was to identify and highlight CBL characteristics resembling the emancipatory pedagogical framework of Freire (2001); and to consider the perspectives of nursing students, educators, and additional personnel involved in the educational process of developing critical thinking.

There were two methodological stages in this review. The first stage: consisted of two steps. The first step was a literature search on the most relevant databases and interfaces to find articles corresponding to the inclusion and exclusion criteria. The key-words used for the search were: context-based learning, nursing, nursing education. Searching strategies are described in Table 1. Results were exported to RefWorks, where duplicates were excluded, resulting in 8 articles. The second step consisted of a selection of articles to read, following BARROSO's (2003) instructions. First the title of the article was read, followed up by reading the abstract, and finally reading the complete article. During this process, articles were included or excluded according to the following inclusion and exclusion criteria:

1) Titles had to contain the words or phrases "context-based learning", and "nursing", or "nursing education"; 2) the articles included were qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methodology. Articles that did not clearly describe the research design or findings were excluded. Only research-based works published in peer-reviewed journals were considered. Neither thesis nor dissertations were included; 3) the articles were read fully, those that were off topic, that is, had no excerpt indicating critical thinking development, were excluded. Only articles addressing CBL in nursing education at the University of Alberta were considered; and 4) the selected articles had to be written in English. All articles that did not match these criteria were excluded. At the end of this stage, four articles were found and only one was suitable for this study.

Second stage: also consisted of two steps. The first step was to look through the reference list at the end of the four selected articles, and also the reference list of the four excluded ones, in order to find other articles by authors in the Faculty of Nursing at the University of Alberta. The purpose was to search for essential information to review, following the same criteria mentioned in the second step of the first stage. The second step was to use the abbreviation of the first name and the complete last name of faculty linked to the Teaching and Learning Office; more specifically, those who were directly involved in the Nursing Philosophy, Pedagogy and History Group, and then use these names to search for articles in Google Scholar. Articles were considered from 2002 on. At this stage, 3 articles were found. The final four selected articles are detailed in Table 2.

Table 1 - Search strategies for the selected review of the literature and the number of articles retrieved

FIRST STAGE	DATABASE and INTERFACE	STRATEGY	Number of works retrieved
	ERIC (Ovid)	(**Keywords:** context-based and **Keywords:** learning) and (**Keywords:** nursing) and (**Keywords:** nursing and **Keywords:** education) on 2013-	0

	01-22 15:10 PM	
CINAHL Plus with full Text	"context-based learning AND Nursing AND nursing education on 2013-01-22 15:20 PM"	5
MEDLINE (Ovid)	(Context-based learning and Nursing and Nursing education).af. on 2013-01-22 15:36	4
PubMed (Ovid)	(context-based learning [Title]) AND nursing [Title]) AND nursing education on 2013-01-22 15:47	3
ProQuest Education Journals	(context-based learning) AND (nursing) AND (nursing education) on 2013-01-22 16:00	3
Education Research Complete	Context-based learning AND Nursing AND nursing education on 2013-01-22 16:19	5
Scopus	(TITLE-ABS-KEY (context-based learning) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (nursing) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (nursing education) on 2013-01-22 16:22	7
	Total findings	27
	After the exclusion of duplicates	12
	Followed all the criteria of First Stage/Faculty of Nursing University of Alberta	1
SECOND STAGE	*Findings in 2013-01-22 17:00*	3
	TOTAL SAMPLE	**4**

Analysis: the articles were read, understood, and interpreted as a whole; and excerpts were extracted from the results, discussion and conclusion. Considering that the CBL approach resembles the principles of an emancipatory pedagogical practice presented by Freire (2001; 1990), the excerpts extracted from the final set of articles were organized in categories, which were analysed and discussed in relation to Freire's (2001) themes, as well as other education philosophers.

3   Findings and Discussion

Table 2 - Details of the selected articles

Source	Article References	Article Identification
Pubmed / Scopus	Williams, B., Spiers, J., Fisk, A., Richards, L., Gibson, B., Kabotoff, W., . . . Sculley, A. (2012).	AR01
PubMed / Scopus Found in Second Stage	Raymond, C. L., & Profetto-McGrath, J. (2005).	AR02
PubMed / Scopus Found in Second Stage	Myrick, F., & Yonge, O. (2004).	AR03
PubMed / Scopus Found in Second Stage	Myrick, F., & Yonge, O. (2002).	AR04

First, categories were identified and constructed from the selected excerpts to facilitate the discussion. Categories will be discussed separately. Both viewpoints were included in this discussion: students' and the educators'.

Table 3 - Categories from the excerpts of the articles with the identification

CATEGORIES	Articles
1 - Role Modeling	AR02, AR04, AR03
2 – Facilitation	AR02
3 - An Eternal Learner	AR01
4 – Relationship	AR03
5 - General Knowledge	AR02, AR03
6 - Intensive Workloads	AR02

3.1   1 - Role Modeling:

Freire (2001) stated that there exists the necessity for methodological rigor in the process of teaching and learning critical thinking, as well as in establishing the importance of coherence between what is said and what is done. He calls this process "words incarnated in example", revealing the essentialness of demonstration or role modeling; also stated by Myrick (2002).

The use of example or demonstration is given much worth by Freire (2001), especially when it is aimed at assisting students to enhance critical thinking towards knowledge construction. The following sentences stated by Raymond (2005) show the imperativeness of methodological rigor, role modeling and reflection in action in nursing education:

"Four out of six participants indicated that critical thinking is needed to keep up with more acute and changing practices. Nurse educators commented that their ability to demonstrate, role model, and practice clinical reasoning and critical thinking is imperative to teaching students to think critically."

"If nurse educators demonstrate competence related to critical thinking, students can better learn and role model these skills in practice."

Nursing educators, themselves, also indicated how necessary role modeling is crucial to nursing education. They even identified role modeling as one of the behaviors needed to inspire critical thinking process development (Myrick, 2002). The following excerpts from educators reveal this idea:

"Specifically, when preceptors behave in ways that provide role modeling, facilitation, guidance, and prioritization to students as they carry out their nursing care, they indirectly or incidentally initiate students' abilities to think critically."

"Role modeling is a key ingredient in the enhancement of student critical thinking."

3.2 2 - Facilitation:

The same idea is reflected in the following excerpt by Raymond (2005), highlighting the importance of educator facilitation in the teaching-learning process:

"Critical thinking cannot occur in a vacuum, therefore nurse educators should assume an active role in ensuring critical thinking exists and is understood in nursing education contexts."

Similarly, Raymond (2005) also stated that nurse educators identified some aspects inherent to the critical thinking process. These qualities and dispositions can be role modeled as well. The following excerpt shows that:

"Nurse educators also described critical thinking as encompassing various qualities or dispositions that are part of the critical thinking process. These qualities include openmindedness, analyticity, systematicity, creativity, curiosity, honesty, and reflection."

3.3 3 - An Eternal Learner:

CBL students also identified some characteristics they possess after an experience with this method (Williams, 2012), revealing again what Freire (2001) reinforced about the necessary understanding of the human as an 'unfinished' being, who will continue to search for new knowledge whenever it is needed. The following excerpt reflects this characteristic:

"Graduates suggested that as CBL graduates they considered themselves as "having a positive attitude and being open to learning — understanding that you don't know everything, being a lifelong learner and willing to seek out the knowledge to make yourself a better nurse"

3.4 4 - Relationship:

The learner-educator relationship was a topic found in this review as well. Myrick (2004) found that the relationship between learners and educators, especially in the case of preceptorship, is crucial to the learning process, resulting in the learners' success or failure. Freire (2001) stated, too, that educators have to care for their students' learning process, approaching students in a very constructive way so that they feel confident enough to keep on with their learning, successfully. The following excerpt shows this:

"First, the relationship between the student and preceptor is pivotal to the enhancement of the graduate student's critical thinking in the preceptorship experience. Preceptor respect for the student is particularly relevant."

3.5 5 - General Knowledge:

Educators and learners can build optimal relationships, but they need to: 1) respect the types of knowledge students carry within themselves, 2) help them in the natural process of going from an ingenuous curiosity into an 'epistemological curiosity', and 3) construct and reconstruct knowledge along the process (Freire, 2001). The author also revealed that it is important for educators to provide an atmosphere of acceptance and openness towards students' critical thinking enhancement, as well as to self-inquire into how this atmosphere is intrinsically related to accepting or not, the students' previous general knowledge. These ideas are revealed in the following excerpts:

"Many nurse educators expressed the importance of general knowledge as a solid foundation in the process of critical thinking."

"Safety/trust was also a major theme in the process. Students were unequivocal about the fact that for critical thinking to occur, they had to feel a sense of security in putting forth their ideas and points of view, and the need to be able to trust their preceptors' acceptance and support of their questioning."

3.6 6 - Intensive Workloads:

Finally, Raymond (2005) identified the topic of intensive workloads that interfere, negatively, with the process of critical thinking development:

"Intensive workloads also inhibit critical thinking by shifting the focus of teaching from desired critical thinking strategies, which promote risk taking and the time and freedom to make mistakes, to a strict content delivery mode that does not allow time for nurse educators to try new ideas and strategies."

Thus, there is no use in providing students with an adequate relational environment if everyone, including the educators, is overloaded with a myriad of activities to do. Such an environment changes the focus to a task accomplishing routine, which cannot translate into a meaningful and significant process of teaching and learning, let alone the development and construction of critical thinking in reflective ways (Cambridge Primary Review, 2009). Therefore, overloaded curricula imprison educators and learners in a traditional education approach, preventing them from innovating and transforming health practices.

4 Conclusion

Literature provides evidence of the urgency to develop nursing professionals with greater capacity to be critical and reflexive, so that they can respond to the human condition. CBL seems to respond adequately to that, especially if the characteristics resembling an emancipatory pedagogy are enhanced.

Thus, educators need to be attentive to the coherence between what they say and do when they are role modeling procedural or behavioral/attitudinal educational content. They need to be a facilitator in the learners' knowledge building, showing them the "unfinishedness" of the human being and implying a lifelong learning process. Educators also need to facilitate an adequate learning atmosphere by being open to dialogue, to general knowledge, and knowing how to listen. In addition, educators need to be aware that intensive workloads are harmful to the learning process, because they change the experiential learning focus to a task oriented accomplishment; preventing innovation from taking place in the teaching-learning environment.

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A validation collaborative experience on competency oriented curriculum change

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I. Curricular Concept

Curricular technical concepts as understood in the rational systemic guideline assessment and the critical perspective over their political cultural role sustain an important presence on Higher Education. Still in discussion these conceptions (Monteiro & Pereira, 2005, Pacheco & Pereira, 2007) we can set forth that in curricular studies the complex, procedural, interdisciplinary and constructivism vision has achieved an outstanding place; that obeys to changes, necessities and demands of our globalized world.

Constructivism is one of the domineering discourses in the higher education curricular _proposals,_ nevertheless educators have not attempted research on renaming its approaches and its methodologies an also as the real possibilities on translating them into the formal curriculum (Díaz Barriga, 2005).

The competencies approach is another kind of outstanding discourse among different education professionals, becoming more of a pedagogical imaginary rather than a generalized practice in schools, with favorable and unfavorable reactions towards its relevance. According to García and Veleros (2012) competency construct is currently present and probably will be in future debates and alternatives on different scopes of the educational task.

Educational innovation is the third discourse that has thoroughly developed in its approach rather than on its exercise. The change innovative nature depends on the gap between the educational actors such as teachers, researchers, and students about the practices undertaken before. In addition, as for curricular innovation might be for one educational community may not be the same for another one on its context (Barrón, Valenzuela & Hernández, 2011).

Curricular design is mainly responsibility of teachers and specialists, (Navarro Pereira Burgos, Pereira de Homesn& Fonseca, 2010) but teachers in an implementation role develop it over the researchers proposals. The design process is thoroughly completed when teachers and experts work jointly from the starting point with agreements and disagreements, and different curriculum perspectives and alternatives that both may have.

From quality perspective focused on resource efficiency until those oriented towards social responsibility from educational organizations, (González, 2000; Ruíz, 2008) it is set as an advantage, the external expert assessment, the rapprochement to curriculum from a different perspective by not forming part of the curricular project evaluated and from the institutional context on which is about to be developed.

When an external evaluation is set forth, the specialist's distance is also one of its limitations, due to the gap from the evaluation object. We think that the external evaluator is committed to a rapprochement in a comprehensive-analytical, critical-reflexive, respectful and responsible towards the different perspectives on how it is interpreted in the curriculum from the educational actors, the institutional conditions on which the change and its role process is given.

II. Context and Acting Universe

Facing the new circumstances that society beholds, Universidad del Valle de México, (UVM) updated its educational model in 2009. After more than twenty years without formal modifications upgrading on academic perspective, the new model has signified the redesign of existing curricular programs and the creation of new professional careers, in both cases with a long-range conception of commitment with Mexico's new priorities and with an international insight. Nowadays the University lives an intense curricular design stage favored by the interest of authorities and decision-making organs that support change processes.

Seven bachelor degrees redesigns were evaluated with different coverage in: Business Administration (offered in 31 campuses), Marketing (offered in 35 campus), Industrial Systems Engineering (offered in 25 campus) Computing Systems Engineering (offered in 18 campus), Communication (offered in 27 campus), Graphic Design (offered in 24 campus) and Psychology (offered in 31 campus). As well as the upgrade of the Master on Education based on competences (offered in presential form in one campus and online in 16 others), and the creation of orientations towards Andragogy, Educational Management, Tutoring, Education Innovation and Technology, and Basic Education offered in just one campus.

III. Validation Process Description
III. A. Evaluation Methodology

The UVM has created a curricular design methodology for existing programs as well as for new ones offered, this has been submitted to campus, looking for the university community's participation in the curricular upgrade and whose elements are:

- Curricular Components. Each study plan has an educational proposal and grounding which encompass diverse analytical contextual type aspects, conceptual, instructional and administrative as well as insight from employers, professional associations, working market conditions, akin educational offer, knowledge areas advances, institutional context, curricular principles exposure, major-objective, ingress and egress profiles, curricular structure, operational definition and subject programs.
- General Criteria. It was sought for that curricular structure and subjects answered axis problems development, real situations, entailment between knowledge –abilities-attitudes, relation between learning, teaching and evaluation, lifelong learning conception from teachers and experts. All these elements are set on a change process consisting of four stages: the initial one with a "curricula not based on competencies", two intermediates "a starting curricula" and a "partially based on competencies curricula" to a final one "completely based on competencies curricula", (Universidad del Valle de México, 2011).
- Instruments and Produce. We used four information sources: two institution offered formats and two products agreed between evaluation teams and the University curricular design manager.
  - Administrative. Academic Requirements Format: withstanding 20 broken down aspects in: (a) 69 indicators for the study plan assessment such as congruency, pertinence, sufficiency of study cycle, objectives profile, study time, class time, practice time, optional flexibility and (b) 48 indicators for subject programs such as precision, focus and objective integration, content, strategies, assessment and material.
  - Audit Presentation Format: it takes into account five sections. First one is about the foundation presence, absence and information observations. The second one refers to curricular plan analysis and its relation with the founding elements. The third one is a SWOT analysis of egress profile, horizontal and vertical congruency, competencies focus program, subjects by curricular area and labor market needs. The fourth one is about conclusions and the fifth one for suggested recommendations.
  - Sample of Analyzed Subjects: two of four subjects from each curricular area were selected: one or two that could show in a prototypical way internal and external coherence and pertinence with the competencies insight, and also those which could illustrate structural and approach characteristic problems.
  - Detailed Report with Suggestions: it covers final assessment from egress profile and objectives, pertinence within the profile, curricular map and subject, relation between plan, labor market needs and higher education tendencies.

III.B. Collaborative Work Organization

Two psychologists and two pedagogues formed the assessment team without academic or administrative experience in the institutional UVM context, and half of them with competencies based experience and training.

Collaborative work was organized like this:

- General review and individual analysis. Includes the initial approach to each curricular program and to the institutional methodology design. Work division and its dynamic were established by mutual agreement. Each expert applies analysis criteria for the first assessment to their given program. In this phase an intensive research and consulting workload was generated with other professional experts on each curricular program due to its diversity in the knowledge they cover.

▪ In pairs exchange and discussion. The first drafts were circulated for their revision. Agreements and disagreements were discussed. Doubts and first questions arose on how competence focus was related to institutional methodology. Identification of the proposal's main characteristics and inconsistenciesIn pairs and individual reformulation. Each expert reviewed its record in order to integrate detailed observations that the team made, as part of a collaborative and dynamic writing that enriched the report. Agreements regarding competencies based strengths and weaknesses were detected. Recommendations for the curricular program were outlined. Agreements on final inform structure was reached.

▪ Integration and last group revision. The team leader organized in one paper the reformulated in pairs work. This paper was handed to each expert in order to review the draft. Last adjustments acknowledging observations made by the other team members were taken into account for its official handing over, which contained the aforementioned formats and samples of the analyzed subjects.

IV. On Competencies Based Curriculum Challenges
IV. A. Translation and Conceptual Problems

Professional profile and context needs. The panorama is heterogeneous respect to depth and extension of the elaborated foundations from those without enough empirical studies and literature, until those who incorporate this kind of information in a well-integrated and propositional way. Nevertheless, its important to acknowledge that the teaching teams could explain an insight on the profession social role beheld by a responsible way in a theoretical part, an empiric and/or from the life experience, brought up by an exchange of ideas from within and without University realm, where the identity of the professional association played an important role in defining its place in society.

A key moment in the appropriation of the professional degree social role, it's work and knowledge field is the elaboration of the professional profile. What is relevant and constitutes strength in the evaluated program is its worth, congruency and pertinence with the work market needs, short and long term. This last largely shows the highly professionalizing perspective of College formation. The challenge to solve is the combination of a training that answers not only to work pressure but also to social problems.

Competence vision and professional education. The evaluated programs beheld testimony on the difficulties that teachers have to assess on holistic, cultural, relative and dynamic conception of knowledge and the training process. In the professional profile formulation identifies a progression of knowledge complexity close to classical construction of learning objectives and task analysis further more than the declarative domain of subjects with and incipient holistic knowledge abilities, skills and values perspective. The overcoming of the declarative knowledge dimension launched a competences vision with a procedural level emphasis. These became evident in the curricular plan due to the competencies and sub-competencies division of which its detail brought a fragmentation of which is sought to be integral. The dilemma is to combine a global perspective with the specific breakdown of knowledge, abilities and attitude formation.

IV. B. Translation and Methodological Issues

Curricular structure linkage. Study plans are organized in skill professional areas (transversals), basic (common knowledge fields), professional (specific), and elective (specialized), which sought to translate from general to specific competencies formation. The first limit begins with the professional profile partial translation in the curricular structure. The second one has to do with the internal congruency degree and its structural parts. To the interior of the areas there are efforts to avoid lineal adding or incorporating knowledge and abilities from initial until final training. Horizontal congruent relations to the areas, pertinent vertical relations, and a partial correlation between both were established.

Concretion of Subject Profile. The general competencies definition, competencies indicators and learning products of each subject were centered on the knowledge development, abilities and attitudes to be developed according to the disciplines and the professional field, and were integrated with the detailed apportionment of the latter, even though some incurred in the conceptual content fragmentation.

There is a tendency in the agenda on knowledge application as a sequence of first taking into account the theoretical part and then the practical. The aforementioned is expressed in the subject programs (called synthetic) general structure whereas first a problem is set forth from which general competencies is to be formed and then its concept analysis is taken into account and lastly its application on the empirical work scenario. Specification of the didactic treatment of the challenging situation or situations that encircle the

different parts of the program is needed for solution creation. This treatment is engaged in the next curricular concretion level such as the apportionment of general structure of these programs (called analytical).

The transversal contents clearly specified in the initial cycle were blurred in the intermediate cycles, but not in the final ones, partly recovered in seminars, workshops and professional practices as to recover spaces to submit real problems. There is an emphasis in the skills development from within subjects that have a well-established and clear identity in terms of appropriation, self-acknowledgment and characterization of professional activity problems from a vision that gives belonging to a practical community.

A vast elective subjects ensemble with both ways understands the curricular flexibility aspect: firstly to venture in determined professional fields on which know how withstands before decision-making and proposal creation and secondly the permanent renovation for thematic analysis with social transcendence for the profession trade.

Didactic particularities. In order to undertake teaching processes towards competencies formation constructivist strategies were incorporated such as concept maps, cases, portfolios and projects. They were thoroughly used in many synthetic programs in a multiple option menu without an extensive development or correlation towards the length of the subject. A similar situation happens with the evaluation instruments such as rubrics, and also contradicted these kinds of methodologies being centered exclusively on declarative aspects more than on its performance. The proposal of a didactic methodology and evaluation is developed afterwards in the analytical programs.

V. Conclusions

The evaluated programs are in two intermediate stages of a "beginning curriculum" and one of a "partially based on competencies curriculum". A side of the translation problems in a curricular design focused on competencies has to do with the institutional context they are created on. First on academic transformations and latter on a slower pace in the administrative organization, which lessens the range of the progressive and integral change into a novelty, completely based on competencies curriculum.

The other translation problems are linked to the divergence and tension between previous conceptions on professional knowledge formation, didactic planning, and assessment and teacher roles with the innovative nature of a competencies based approach with constructivist profile. We consider that part of the matter answers to the strength of decades of educational institutionalization practices grounded in an ancient knowledge paradigm which exclude the importance of the interpretation aspects of teachers, with limited behaviorism conception regarding learning, which excludes the diverse construction process and its context.

The main value of evaluated programs and plans is that they are product of what teachers made of the institutional methodology of curricular design, process that was developed in a short period of time. Teacher participation efforts are key to formal curricular definition, that from competencies focus need reflection time spaces in order to form a different knowledge and training culture; and also from an institutional context that favors intensive and permanent literacy work with them and with students as well in every university life stage. All of which contribute to the shortening of distances among theoretical and practical curricula, with the aspiration that of the teacher becomes trained in the conceptual and technical insight of the expert from their retrieval of the everyday teaching task.

From the specialist perspective, we find valuable the evaluation task with different evidence sources and expert interpretation of the institutional methodology. The developed external evaluation was presented to the teaching teams responsible of curricular design and redesign for their review. The teams were sensible enough in their observations and recommendations to reformulate the studies before sending them to the official instances for their accreditation.

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Educational technology and digital-Baby: perceptions of nursing students in learning the clinical assessment of preterm infants.

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Introduction

There are currently many educational tools that incorporate digital technology. Include virtual learning environments (VLE), the digital learning objects, social networks and educational games - also called serious games.

Serious games are by definition games used for training, simulation and education can be executed on devices computacionais[1]. Present as differential incentives to use interpersonal development, diplomacy, organization, health, education, management and liderança[2].

Considering the advantages mentioned in the literature and learning needs of Generation Y that has developed in the midst of digital technologies, we have developed the e-Baby simulated environment that presents an incubator in which the user performs a clinical assessment of oxygenation in preterm infants virtual . The game meets the characteristics considered fundamental educational tools of this nature, since identified nearly a decade by scholars as providing the backdrop for the student to develop solutions to challenges and problems, formulate hypotheses and interact with playful tools and interessante[3].

In the case of e-Baby, you know the history of pre-term baby, choose the tools for clinical evaluation in accordance with their judgment on the case, answer the question associated with that moment of interaction with the baby and checks if your assessment / response is appropriate, testing their knowledge and simulating its action with a virtual baby. The serious game and Baby-shows phases and each with different implications breathing newborn preterm infants (PTI) Virtual ranging between lower and higher complexity of clinical involvement. There are buttons on the interface where the user has the option to shoot the entire assessment procedure and share on social network performance. The game has serious potential to aid teaching and learning in a more flexible, attractive and interactive by simulations that allow the maximum approximation to reality found in a neonatal unit, allowing the student a more appropriate training of clinical assessment of oxygenation of a segment population at risk, preterm[4]

In the context of constructing digital educational technology we feel urged to subjectively evaluate this technology from the perspective of student nurses, revealing their views on the use of the tool as a key variable in evaluating the same.

Method

This is an exploratory descriptive study with foreign participation, in which an evaluation was made of educational technology and Baby-perception and opinions of nursing students about their use.

The research was conducted with 14 students in their final year of undergraduate nursing Nursing School of Coimbra (ESEnfC) of Portugal.

We performed characterization of students through a questionnaire about age, gender, computer knowledge, availability of computer and internet access and the previous online games. Data were collected through completion of instruments to characterize and subjective evaluation online at the same link for access to and use of digital technology-Baby. Survey participants navigated in technology and-Baby for a period of 15 days freely choosing the location, time and duration of access according to the judge that interesting, filled the instrument and their responses were automatically sent to the database of the e-Baby.

The subjective evaluation instrument used in the study is composed of items that verified the opinions of students regarding the pleasantness of using the educational game, offered feedback rating, if indeed contributes to learning and motivates the user to learn playing, the participant believes that tools like this can replace teachers and recommend the expansion of the game to other issues in nursing, among other aspects described below.

Statistical analysis was descriptive with regard to the characterization data and subjective evaluation of the frequency of the students.

This study was submitted to the Ethics Committee of the Research Unit in Health Sciences - Nursing, Nursing College of Coimbra and approved under the opinion 73-02/2012.

Results

Among the 14 Portuguese students, 12 (86%) were women ranging in age between 21 and 29 years (mean 22.36 years and standard deviation: 2.06 years) demonstrating strong homogeneity in the categories gender and age among participants who our sample. None of the participants reported working beyond the studies and with regard to the frequency of computer use, 79% (n = 11) said they use frequently while others reported that the use is fair (21% / n = 3). As the preferred location to access computer, 64% (n = 9) responded in the home, 29% (n = 4) at the university; 7% (n = 1) with relatives and friends. All students reported owning a computer, and of these, 29% (n = 4) without laptop (notebook or netbook) and 71% (n = 10) have computer desktop and all have internet availability.

Stress some comments from students to help understand the results of this study and enrich the data analysis.

Regarding the students' interaction with the game is a critical success factor of the usability of the tool, a student said:

"The fact that this game is interactive makes it much easier to study and absorb the information it conveys. I think the e-Baby helped me supplement my information about premature baby in the sense that this program had a direct interaction with the baby "(E1).

About the importance of using game-Baby and for learning the subject, three students assessed that:

"Access to educational technology was important to meet the basic human needs of preterm infants. I think that is an optimal way to deepen knowledge within (the early) "(E13).

They become evident qualities of innovation and simulation of reality that the game features through the data shown in Table 1 and in the students' comments below:

"I think the use of this project by the ESEnfC would be very enriching because it would give a new way to study for future nurses" (E1).

"Regarding the e-Baby helps us a lot because the situation is very real and helped me practice the evaluation of respiratory rate in preterm infants, which sometimes becomes difficult" (E4).

"The technology is very important to integrate new knowledge. Help us to reflect on practice and facilitates the acquisition of knowledge. It is undoubtedly essential during this course the ease of use and by obtaining feedback "(E12).

Students also commented on the didactic aspects, ease, flexibility and autonomy that the game offers the student:

"Regarding the e-Baby think it's well built, it is easy to access and understand, and is a promoter of learning, since it requires us to be able to apply theoretical knowledge in the game. I think this system of learning is very positive, as it allows to choose which subjects we study and do not "require" to have a schedule, which can ease some people to participate in courses where it is used. "(E3).

"I think this form of learning is very rich because always allows access to information at any time of day and thus combine our time for this type of training. It is relevant and organized with some logic "(E7).

"The program is very interesting since it allows to develop skills according to personal characteristics and possibilities (in terms of time) that each presents. I believe all the tools developed are very practical and useful "(E10).

Students also expressed concern that the game could be expanded not only to other basic human needs beyond the oxygenation already addressed this issue, but also other issues that could simulate nursing care in the digital environment:

"I think the e-Baby is well built, but I think it could be adapted to all basic human needs of preterm infants. Thus we would have a didactic learning needs of all "(E2).

"It would be interesting to be extended to other areas, in addition to the oxygen in the case of premature newborn, or even to other domains of knowledge and intervention in Nursing" (E5).

With regard to the replacement of the teacher by the tool or the same association of teaching practice, the comments were:

"In relation to the point of replacing the teacher think that is not true because it would increase the isolation of the people at home and would not promote socialization. Specifically for me, hinders me a little learning compared with classroom because I learn so much by what I hear the teacher "(E14).

Below we quote the criticism of students that give the object of study and refinement of the tool in question:

"I think this technology should be accessible to every level of software, as sometimes does not work on some computers, which makes access and learning" (E6).

Discussion

The computer access by study participants was assessed by most of them as frequent (79% / n = 11) and all of them have a computer, either desktop type (71% / n = 10) is portable notebook type (29% / n = 4), indicating that the digital part of the routines of these students.

The positive assessment of students under usability aspects highlighted in Table 1 reinforce the advantages of motivation that the educational game can give to nursing students. The entire sample revealed that the game-Baby and is easy to use, educational, which allowed the learning of the need for oxygenation and remained motivated to study through the tool. The pleasantness aspect of the game was 'full agreement' or 'agreement' for almost the entire sample (93% / n = 13) highlighting a digital environment interesting for studies. Motivation through the graphical advantages of computational resources has been pointed out by many scholars as one of the main attractions that make students feel satisfied with the tool [7-8].

In addition, easy use allows students to develop their tasks with the tool at any location or time, respecting the specificities of each individual and the pace of learning, as two students stressed in his comments on the lack of mandatory access at pre -determined (E3 and E14). [7-10]. This feature overrides feature exclusively for access, also refers to navigation friendly for digital application, and 85% of students (n = 12) agreed or strongly agreed that the game allows the free choice of the navigation path, ie, the format of the game does not prevent the student proceed to a new task if approached without a previous run, although they have been elaborated didactically gradual scale of complexity and logical sequence based on the RN clinical case study.

The concept of choice of what you want to learn is complemented with the autonomy granted by the game to the student during learning, since the free use and timeless tool is also added to the possibilities of using individual or group. The autonomy was reported by 93% of the sample (n = 13) demonstrating that a significant advantage of the tool and also very important from the perspective of valuing the learner as an active member and principal of the teaching-learning [11].

It is important to note that three students showed failures access to the game on different computers (E6, E7 and E14). We believe that these criticisms are very important for the improvement of the tool and incorporation of the same course at the university while the teacher helper. The modifications required, if validated in team analysis computer, and that will be corrected later to ensure that students study could access the game and-Baby, instructions were given during the 15-day access.

The feedback was reported by 86% of students (n = 12) with full agreement or agreement as well as quoted by one (E12) as one of the advantages of the serious game. The importance of feedback is given

by the possibility that the student has, based on the evaluation of their simulated actions, reviewing the strengths and weaknesses reflecting on these and constructing knowledge based on experience [12].

When feedback indicates an error, you can try to hit the student in the next simulation to hone their skills and rebuild an old concept or acquire new knowledge.

We emphasize greatly on the speech of students' satisfaction in being able to conduct a training that simulates reality properly, allowing opportunities for virtual simulation and giving the student a better chance to explore the clinical examination of premature infants. This is critical both from the point of view of patient safety as learning, since the fact leads us to think that due to the fragility of preterm infants, there was no possibility of performing thorough clinical examination in a real environment, whereas the virtual baby can be manipulated as often as needed by the student in order for him to learn and practice to gain confidence and skills needed to perform the tasks associated with the topic 13-15.

One of the students pointed out by your comment that the game allows the practice of auscultation (E14) and yet another on the measurement of respiratory rate (E4). A study published in Brazil in 2006, conducted with nursing students, and pointed out that they had discussed often inability to recognize sounds and other respiratory difficulties about this health need, corroborating the importance of educational tools that facilitate learning and allow training environment and simulation to explore the tema16.

The game was created and Baby-priori only addressing the oxygenation and the choice of this basic human need is due to its primary and vital importance to humans as well as one of the main targets of involvement in the premature population. Moreover, it is crucial that future nurses have expertise in dealing with the potential risk to the patient in this context and attitudes applicable to the professional category.

However, we believe it is quite valid, and the expansion of the game-Baby in order to address other topics and incorporate other basic human needs to the case studies. Students unanimously agreed on with this statement and some represented through their comments presented previously, desire for new challenges of the game on other needs and even on other topics of Nursing. One student even stated that by expanding to new needs of preterm infants would thereby increasing the level of demand in terms of theoretical knowledge, which reflects motivation for studies and interest in the tool.

Interest in educational resource herein should be emphasized in many of the reviews described in this study, encouraging their use and incorporation into the course regularly offered as well as expanding opportunities for study and challenges. Thus we see high satisfaction and acceptance of serious game-Baby and developed in order to offer students a chance to digital simulation prior to actual contact with the premature.

Regarding the replacement teacher for tools like this, the results obtained in this study (72% of disagreement / n = 10) are similar to those found in a previous study with Brazilian students (75% of disagreement / n = 9) 17. Thus, we conclude that such a possibility is remote to the context of education and highly values the interaction between students and teachers as a strategy for collaborative knowledge building. Is increasingly reinforced the importance of the role of teacher, tutor or facilitator in the process of teaching and learning, especially when it leads the way with an emphasis on the active role of the student and also when it is appropriate teaching strategies when teaching tool incorporating interesting and motivating learning 17-18.

The Baby-game and was rated by students as very satisfactory in many respects and has proven to be a tool with great potential to aid teachers and students in the process of teaching and learning. We believe its use can still contribute with simulated practice focused on nurses working in the labor market as a strategy for continuing education, this may be the target of future studies. We agree with other pesquisadores19 that nursing professionals should seek to incorporate technology into their work process.

Conclusion

Users presented themselves integrated into the e-Baby, which is considered an important tool for education as a means to innovate teaching and motivating learning. Was considered appropriate interface technology with regard to the aspects of design and interactivity, making these items critical to the success of educational technologies. We believe that the results of this study will provide enhancements to this technology built and instigates digital educational researchers to rethink the development of new technological resources applied to education in order to enhance the human-

technology interaction. Furthermore, the enhancement of educational technologies significantly observed on the speech of students who participated in this study motivates the development of this line of research and encourages reflection of the gradual incorporation teaching practice.

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Curriculum as Intentional and Dynamic Process in Higher Education

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Abstract

There are numerous interpretations of the meaning and purpose of curriculum in higher education (HE), often with an emphasis on administrative perspectives. In this study, we understand curriculum as an intentional and dynamic process, revealing the values, beliefs and principles in relation to learning, understanding, knowledge and disciplines, as well as the cultural and political purposes of HE (Mäkinen & Annala, 2010; cf. Pinar *et al*., 1995). The purpose of the study is to analyse and describe curriculum as a process in HE from the point of view of teaching staff. The focus is on various intentions and dynamics that shape the curricula. The context of the study is a comprehensive curriculum reform in 2011–2012 at one multidisciplinary university in Finland. The data is comprised of semi-structured interviews with 25 teachers who shared their narratives of change from the position or perspective they had during the curriculum reform. The data set was examined as experience-centred narratives (Bruner, 1990; Connelly & Clandinin, 2006) related to time, position, space and discourses taking place within the transformation process. The analysis was based on abductive content analysis. Complicating actions (Labov & Waletzky, 2006) were sought in interviewees' narratives (i.e. turning points, challenges, shifts and their resolutions) and were examined with the comprehensive curriculum framework (Mäkinen & Annala, 2010) and the three-dimensional model of communities of practice (Wenger, 2003). The analysis brought the dynamics and orientation within and behind the curriculum to the fore. The following two main orientations were found: dialogical and reproductive orientation, emerging as (1) an attempt to find a shared goal versus delaying or discontinuing the process; (2) crossing borders versus maintaining prevailing traditions and positions and (3) curiosity and familiarizing oneself with the unfamiliar versus deprecation and rejection. The authors discuss these orientations in terms of varied contextual factors and tensions contributing to curriculum development in HE.

Keywords: higher education, curriculum as process, curriculum reform, communities of practice.

1 Introduction

Curriculum is one of the key concepts in higher education (HE) (Barnett & Coate, 2005). Curriculum reflects the fundamental ideas given to HE and is put into practice in teaching and learning processes. Yet developing curriculum is often a political enterprise with socioeconomic purposes. The European modernisation agenda encourages universities to develop their curricula towards high-quality learning outcomes and more efficient study times. However, higher education debate, policy formation and institutional developmental practices have not been engaged with scientific discourse concerning curriculum and its development (Barnett & Coate, 2005; Trowler, 2005).

Due to its contradictory purposes, the term 'curriculum' has various, often conflicting interpretations within academic communities (Coate, 2009; Fraser & Bosanquet, 2006; Mäkinen & Annala, 2010). Appealing to the autonomous position of the university as an organizer of teaching, the academic community has been fairly unwilling to approach their curricula with conceptual frames or research (Bulajeva *et al*., 2009; Leathwood & Phillips, 2000). Despite the ideal of academic freedom, there are implicit practices in designing, developing and implementing curricula (e.g. Margolis, 2001). There is growing interest in studying curriculum from the organisational perspective (e.g. Blackmore & Kandiko, 2012). However, there is little research from the perspective of curriculum studies and a profound lacuna in understanding of the individual and contextual factors contributing to curriculum design in HE.

In this study, we approach curriculum as an intentional and dynamic process, revealing the values, beliefs and principles in relation to learning, understanding, knowledge and disciplines, as well as the cultural and political purposes of HE (Mäkinen & Annala, 2010; cf. Barnett & Coate, 2005; Pinar et al., 1995). The purpose of the study is to analyse and describe curriculum as a process. We are interested in the intentions and dynamics that shape the curricula in HE. Accordingly, this article presents an analysis of university teachers' experiences of a curriculum reform. The analysis addressed the following research questions:

1) What kind of curricular intentions do the academics' narratives represent?

2) What kinds of dynamics shape the curricula in higher education?

2   Background and data collection

This article is based on a curriculum research project carried out in one Finnish multidisciplinary research university. In 2009, we began to study the meanings of curriculum in HE. We asked the departments to name an interviewee from their curriculum development team. We then conducted 27 semi-structured interviews concerning general practices and processes in curriculum design (cf. Mäkinen & Annala, 2010).

In the period 2010–2012, the university in question launched a comprehensive educational reform. The 40 departments were merged into nine schools. These schools took over all the tasks of the former faculties and departments. The number of study programmes was reduced and there was an organizational shift from subject-based education to degree programmes with curricula to be based on learning outcomes. Nine schools were founded in January 2011, and in April 2011 the new degree programmes were created. The curricula were to be ready after ten months, in February 2012. The authors participated in the reform as teachers in their own school, but also at the university level as experts, e.g. lecturing about the meanings of curriculum in HE.

The narratives for the present study were collected between April and June in 2012. The interviewer was a person who did not participate in the curriculum reform. We reached 17 of the formerly interviewed teachers (interviewed in 2009) and recruited eight more so that we had at least one interviewee from each of the new schools. The dataset was comprised of 25 interviews with professors (12), senior lecturers (7), university teachers (3) and administrative staff (3). The informants were encouraged to share their narratives of change – including the practices and processes involved – from the position or perspective they had during the curriculum reform.

3   Data analysis

The analytical approach employed was narrative inquiry (cf. Clandinin & Murphy, 2009; Labov & Waletzky, 2006). The data was examined as experience-centred narratives related to time, position, space and discourses taking place within the transformation processes (cf. Bruner, 1990; Connelly & Clandinin, 2006). Narratives were seen as a portal through which the experiences of the world of academics were interpreted and made personally meaningful.

The analysis was based on abductive content analysis. For analysing the data we applied Labov's (1971; Labov & Waletzky, 2006) model of narrative structure. First, complicating actions and resolutions (meaning units) were sought in interviewees' narratives, referring to turning points, challenges, shifts and their concluding ideas with respect to curriculum design. Next, the meaning units were examined with a comprehensive curriculum framework (Mäkinen & Annala, 2010; 2012). The framework was based on our earlier analysis of the first interviews in 2009. By examining the meaning units with the comprehensive framework, two main orientations illustrating the intentions and curricular approaches were identified. We named these as reproductive and dialogical orientation.

In order to capture the dynamics shaping these orientations in curriculum design, we continued to analyse the findings with the help of Etienne Wenger's (2003) three-dimensional model of communities of practice. We looked for descriptions of joint enterprise, mutual engagement and shared repertoire from the data categorized as reproductive or dialogical orientation. Finally, the common threads of the orientations were assessed by rechecking the meaning units and the quotes in the original data contexts.

In the following paragraphs, the results are discussed. The interview quotes substantiating the findings are numbered and coded, disclosing the informant's gender (male M or female F).

4   Curriculum as intentional process

According to our earlier analyses (Mäkinen & Annala, 2010; 2012), the comprehensive curriculum framework models different meanings that academics give to curriculum, including the nature of curricular aims of knowing, acting and being that are promoted in university studies (cf. Barnett & Coate, 2005). The framework consists of nine complementary domains, composed of two polarities – the utmost forms of external or internal intentions – and interconnected views, where curriculum unites the internal ideas of university education but reflects the changing society outside of the university. The current analysis indicates that the utmost external views did not appear as in the previous interviews in 2009. Instead, tensions were found between the utmost internal views and the interconnected views on curriculum. The former is referred to here as reproductive orientation and the latter as dialogical orientation.

In **reproductive orientation**, there was resistance towards the supposed aims of the curriculum reform; in particular, there was resistance to broadening the knowledge base, as is exemplified in the following citation:

It hasn't gone the way I think it was supposed to go, so that it would be more broad-based. It hasn't gone that way. Only, it was written to look like it has. We don't want the broad-based; instead, we want to keep our own profile high (16M).

The aim here was to follow the academic disciplinary and subject-based tradition; that is to say, how the content knowledge of a certain subject is to be reproduced via curriculum. The contemporary changes in society, working life and possible career options after graduation did not appear as resources for curriculum development; these views were either absent or seen as a threat to some ideals regarding university education and the autonomy of the professors. The discussions of whose courses or books are included in the curriculum reflect the personified curricular interests and intentions, often leading to the fragmentary nature of the curriculum (cf. Mäkinen & Annala, 2010).

The reproductive talk highlights protecting one's 'own' from something coming from 'outside'. If there was little dialogue with the 'outsiders' (e.g. other disciplines, administration), the shared understanding of the idea of curriculum reform was created and adopted among the insiders. As a result, the intentions of the curriculum reform may be explained narrowly, e.g. as a managerial attempt to reduce the academics' power or serving primarily political or economic purposes. This phenomenon is consistent with Naidoo's (2005) notion of academics' inclination to protect their scientific field and interests against the outside world.

In **dialogical orientation**, the external threats were not ignored but were taken rather as a resource for the staff, e.g. as a result of synergy in teaching in broad-based degree programmes there could be more time for research. Here the academics took an active role in trying to understand the idea of curriculum in dialogue with 'the outsiders'. This called for readiness both to cooperate with students, colleagues and administration, and to take risks, which may lead to disappointment or discovery of something new. The following citation exemplifies the dialogical orientation:

In a way, when people manage to get something done in spite of any conflicts there may have been, I think it is always a therapeutic and good experience, even if those people who didn't achieve their personal goals the way they wanted to don't feel happy about the outcome (5M).

Some understood that fundamentally the curriculum reform reflects the global survival competition between

universities and tried to find a meaningful way to live with the contemporary reality. Some interviewees suggested that the aim of the reform was to genuinely implement – not just technically – the Bologna process, and to move from a teaching-centred curriculum design towards a learning-centred approach. These suggestions come close to the idea of curriculum as a process (Barnett & Coate, 2005; Pinar *et al*., 1995; Stenhouse, 1975), meaning the growth of students' academic expertise and being aware at the same time of the idea of university education and its role in the changing society.

5   Curriculum as dynamic process

The academic teachers characterised the dynamics within and behind the curriculum design in the following way: they steamrollered others or were steamrollered themselves; protected themselves or escaped into practical and secondary issues; familiarized themselves with others and their programmes or got frustrated and made compromises. Although teachers described their own experiences, they also had analytical notions regarding the ways of acting as individuals and as communities of practice. According to Wenger (2003), mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire form the basic dimensions of a community of practice. In the data, these dimensions emerged as (1) crossing borders versus maintaining prevailing traditions and positions; (2) an attempt to find a shared goal versus delaying or discontinuing the process and (3) curiosity and familiarizing oneself with the unfamiliar versus deprecation and rejection (Figure 1).
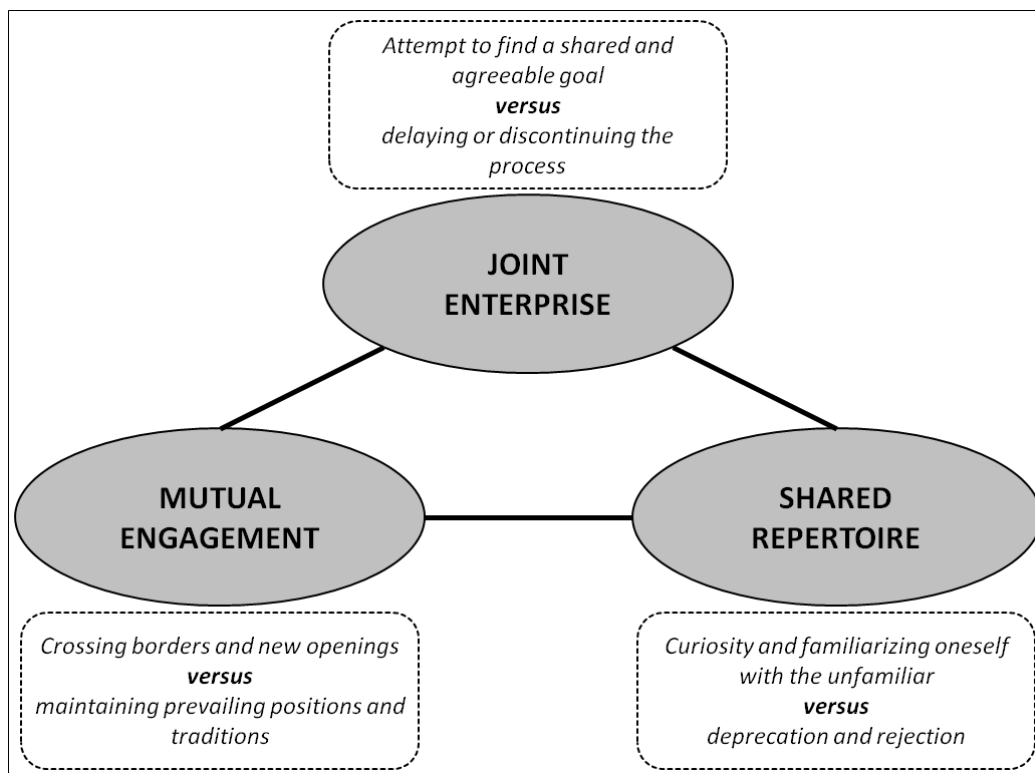
Figure 1. The dynamics shaping curriculum design (Wenger's model applied)

5.1   Mutual engagement in curriculum design

Traditionally, professors had been responsible for the degree requirements with the help of administration. In this university-wide curriculum reform the aim was to build broad-based degree programmes, and all staff members were encouraged to participate across disciplinary boundaries. According to dialogical perceptions, some participants observed that they collaborated more than ever before despite the time pressure and tensions and, furthermore, that the engagement of the whole staff was helpful in this situation. Crossing borders and new openings

were described as being worthwhile: '… it resulted in something new internally, in that we actively built cooperation between and inside the university schools more than ever before' (9M).

However, not everyone engaged in actions or made efforts to create new openings. Some participants saw the reform as a threat for traditional, disciplinary boundaries and prevailing positions with certain responsibilities, emerged as the following question: Who has the authority to develop curriculum? This was followed by confusion regarding who should engage and whose privilege or duty it was to participate in curriculum development. This is exemplified in the following citation:

> A: ... next time there are some events or 'key notes' in curriculum design, only the chairpersons of different curriculum design teams should be invited, not administrative personnel. You know, categorically speaking. It should target the curriculum team chairpersons.
>
> Q: Was it for administrative personnel now?
>
> A: Oh no, but you know, everybody was invited. But who was there, it was the administration. No professors from the curriculum design teams, the chairpersons. And for me, this sends quite a clear message, like this is not something that concerns us. Really, I think that everybody should participate. We are dealing with the contents here. And it should be like a matter of honour for every curriculum chairperson (2F).

The idea of participation and shared responsibility led to a situation in which people did not know who had responsibility for what. As a result of the new organizational structures having bigger units and working communities than before, people even did not know each other. It was partly for this reason that they did not engage in actions and did not participate in the negotiations. Furthermore, almost everyone interviewed pointed out that there was too little time to develop mutual engagement to approach curriculum development as a process.

5.2   Joint enterprise in curriculum design

Even though everyone did not favour the reform, there were genuine attempts to have dialogue on curriculum in order to find a shared and agreeable goal that would be meaningful for the scholars and the university strategy. However, those who refused to participate had joint enterprises to delay or discontinue the process. The resistance was explained with academic criticism towards neoliberal ideas entering the university; however, personal anxiety, prejudice and disinterest in the reforms seemed to be interwoven in the perceptions of curriculum development.

Thus, the enterprise is never fully determined by an outside mandate (Wenger, 2003). It is the community that negotiates the meanings at all levels – including the university, degree programmes and working groups – and make decisions in accordance with their position, understanding and interest. The next citation characterizes the need for negotiation of meanings which emerged in developing curriculum:

> … we had this fine theoretical knowledge and a vision, a concept, the idea of what we were trying to do. So that one doesn't just go right ahead to the implementation, and start talking about courses one wants to get rid of, or how the basic courses should be changed; instead, first we should have had this phase with absolutely no comments allowed regarding any of the courses. We should have talked about what this or that means, what are the premises we can commit ourselves to (1F).

According to the data, negotiations of the meanings of the joint enterprise were called for. However, the new organizational structures did not yet have shared working cultures. The schools and degree programmes were given autonomy, but they did not always know how to use it. There was no history of implementing this kind of change through dialogue and cooperation at the university level. Thus, the rhythm of change was a challenge. When the organizational changes were made just before the curricular changes, people were often unable to find forums for negotiation and did not know how to pass information on to both old and new colleagues. The traditional ways of leading academic communities did not work in this situation, and therefore a new kind of pedagogical leadership was required.

5.3 Shared repertoire in curriculum design

The third characteristic of communities of practice identified by Wenger (2003) is a shared repertoire, which reflects routines, words, tools, ways of doing things, stories or concepts that the community has adopted during its history. Words like 'curriculum' and 'learning-outcomes' were new concepts for many; instead of saying what is the syllabus, what they were going to teach and what books would be included, the academics were required to take a stand on what students are expected to learn. For some, this was a very unfamiliar perspective; perhaps it was so new that it was easier to reject it and claim that it was just some administrative or pedagogical language. Many interviewees talked about how the 'verb-lists' and 'learning-outcome language' caused amusement. One teacher captured this dilemma with the following reflection:

> *… some people talked about how we should only use a lot of verbs, you know, they kind of talked down what the whole thing really should be about, but I still can't quite figure it out myself. Either it is such a big linguistic or mental twist that it just takes time to understand it, or then again, maybe I was just too exhausted to perceive anything* (23F).

The data featured both deprecation and rejection as well as and curiosity and familiarizing oneself with the unfamiliar. Several interviewees pointed out that people also had assumptions about other disciplines without really knowing them. If two disciplines were physically or thematically far off enough from each other, the academics might be curious enough to get to know each other. Wenger (2003) also has noted that proximity does not always work – sometimes it is easier to cooperate with someone from a distance. The history of some disciplines was even described as hostile – hostilities which were activated in curriculum design – but fundamentally this was not a question about curricular issues. The curriculum change revealed the prevailing cultures of learning and doing things and, furthermore, made the stories rooted in history visible.

6   Conclusion

In this study, we have approached curriculum as an intentional and dynamic process in the context of university-wide curriculum reform. The results draw a big picture of curriculum change in one university. The academic teachers participated in the reform from diverse backgrounds and positions, with varied understanding of the meaning and purpose of curriculum. The results show that designing curriculum is a highly complex social process.

On the basis of this study we suggest that curriculum design in HE needs more attention. Developing curriculum requires leadership, continuous dialogue, negotiation of meanings and shared practice. These exist only if people are engaged in actions whose meanings they are willing to negotiate with each other (cf. Wenger, 2003). Disagreement should not be an obstacle to cooperation; instead, it could be used as a productive tool in finding novel approaches to collectively identifying the core nature and purpose of HE. No university can continue without being conscious about the relation of its own curriculum to the surrounding society and working life, and because of that, the academics should have dialogue about what is significant and inalienable in university education. Instead of using passive resistance or protecting oneself from different perspectives or disagreement, the academic communities should aspire to creative and research-based approaches to curriculum just as they already do with regards to disciplinary work. Therefore, following Barnett and Coate (2005), the curriculum reform should be seen as a question of ontological engagement in order to educate students for active citizenship in a world of uncertainty. The critical question is how to support communities of practice – their generation, orientation and dialogue within and between them.

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IPS' Technology and Industrial Management graduate course: A curriculum **follow-up analysis**

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Abstract

The Technology and Industrial Management (T&IM) course of the Polytechnic Institute of Setúbal (IPS), Portugal, is a four year graduate course organized in trimesters with three course units per trimester [quarter]. In the last two trimesters [quarters] internships or real context projects prepare students for a smoother integration in the professional activity. From its beginning, in 2007, T&IM was designed for adults who develop a full-time professional activity in industrial companies, and needed to supplement their skills with those typical of managers and engineers. The b-learning methodology was adopted since it enabled the targeted students to better reconcile their academic, professional and family responsibilities. In 2010-2011 the first T&IM students concluded their graduate studies and, within IPS' Integrated Management System, it was decided to monitor the suitability of the T&IM course curriculum. The following activities were undertaken: (a) data analysis, (b) satisfaction survey to current and graduate students, and (c) focus groups with graduate students that had finished the course in 2010-2011. The data showed lower dropout numbers than those of IPS' engineering courses. The survey showed good levels of satisfaction. Student satisfaction is high for curriculum related topics such as: (1) the course's ability to develop transversal skills and (2) the course teaching methodology. Comparing graduate and current students survey results, the former group declares a higher overall satisfaction with the course. These results are consistent with those gathered from the focus group. During the focus group graduate students added that the skills acquired were comprehensive and appropriate to their understanding of how organizations actually operate. From the gathered results it is concluded that there is a good level of curriculum adequacy and student satisfaction, although there are "problem areas" and topics requiring further research.

Keywords: adult learners; curriculum adequacy; student satisfaction; b-learning

Introduction

In spite of the improvements in the rate of students enrolled at all education levels and of the resulting population qualification increase (see Silva & Nascimento, 2010), Portugal still lags behind Europe average population qualifications. According to CNE (2011), in 2010 only 15.4% of the Portuguese had completed their graduate studies; the European average was 25.9%. The difference is even higher for secondary education; in 2010 only 31.9% of the Portuguese population between 25 and 64 years had completed this education level (12th grade) while the European average was 72.7%.

A contribution to the reduction of the Portuguese population qualification problem lies on the development of the lifelong learning concept and on more flexible access to all levels of education, including tertiary education. In 2006 Portugal issued legislation specific for the access of adult students to higher education, with the responsibility for adult student selection left to Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) (Portuguese Law No. 49/2005 and Decree-Law 64/2006). With this legislation non-formal experience gathered by candidates outside the education system started being valued and used in support of the candidates' "ability to attend" graduate degree courses.

According to Pires (2009), along with the improvement of the Portuguese population qualification, lifelong learning promoted the democratization of the access to tertiary education. However, with this "democratization" came students

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carrying skills, expectations and motivations that differed from traditional student population, HEIs were accustomed with. Adult students are often already integrated in the labor market and seek higher education not for "production of knowledge" but as a pragmatic and instrumental way of participating in projects, in society and for personal and professional achievement (Gonçalves *et al.,* 2011, p. 4692). Pires (2009) argues that HEIs are still insufficiently prepared for these new audiences, and still trying to find their own roles, strategies and practices as providers of multiple and diverse opportunities for adult learning. In the same line of thought Correia and Mesquita (2005) express their concern with HEIs "passivity" regarding the specific needs of these new audiences, and reinforce the importance of knowing these adult students specific characteristics before designing the appropriate responses.

Silva and Nascimento (2010, p.80) emphasize the importance of modifying the syllabus that is traditionally used in higher education classes and adapt it to adult learners; for these students the educational attitude should not be to teach "in the traditional sense, but rather to promote knowledge construction processes and especially the acquisition of skills to enable the learner autonomous access to knowledge" (Quintas, 2008, p. 39, in Silva & Nascimento, 2010, p. 80). It is also in this same line of thought that Alves *et al.* (2009) support "a paradigm of teaching and learning that promotes curriculum flexibility, the development of skills and curriculum articulation" (Alves *et al.,* 2009, p.3).

In 2006, at the engineering college of Polytechnic Institute of Setúbal (IPS), a new graduate course was conceived according to the standards of the Bologna agreement. The course curriculum and the teaching and learning methodologies were designed to suit adult students with a full-time job. Since its conception the course adopted solutions that were different from what was (and still is) traditional at IPS and at most Portuguese public HEIs. The purpose of the study that supports this paper was to evaluate the solutions that were adopted using data gathered from the students enrolled in the 2011-2012 academic year and from alumni that had graduated in 2010-2011, four years after the start of the course in 2007-2008.

1. IPS' Technology and Industrial Management graduate course

The Technology and Industrial Management (T&IM) course was designed for adult workers developing their professional activities in industrial companies located at Setúbal and nearby districts and sought to complement these workers technical skills with expertise typical in business management and in engineering. The objectives of the course were: (a) Acquisition of basic engineering knowledge for understanding the key industrial technologies; (b) Acquisition of basic business management knowledge to allow better performance in the professional activity; (c) Contribution to career advancement; and (d) Encouragement of innovative and entrepreneurial spirit, a vehicle for organizational change and business creation.

1.1 Curricular structure

Taking into account the needs of the targeted public (adults with full-time jobs) the course classes are scheduled at night and a reduced workload of three course units per trimester is considered. The curriculum was designed for a total course duration of four years. With a total number of ECTS equal to that of Bologna graduate degrees, each trimester has a total of 15 ECTS, which amounts to 45 ECTS per year and 180 credits in four years. The course curriculum is divided in equal parts between course units from management science and course units from engineering, each representing 43% of the total ECTS. The remaining 14% is divided between course units from mathematical sciences (4%) and project/internship (10%). The project/internship takes place during the two last trimesters of the course. The internship is primarily for students who do not have a job, while students who already have a job typically address project topics related to their professional activity.

1.2 B-learning

The T&IM course implements a b-learning methodology, blending conventional face-to-face classes with e-learning (online autonomous learning). Half of each course unit hours are taught at a classroom, with the presence of colleagues and teacher. The other half takes place with the help of an e-learning environment where the students can develop their work independently. Laboratory classes are always face-to-face. The e-learning activities can be synchronous or

asynchronous; regardless of their type, these online activities (project, chats, forum, shared work, self-test, conference–video, etc.) are designed to promote independent learning.

While designing the T&IM course a great deal of thought was given to the teaching and learning methodology that better suited the needs of adult students with full-time jobs. The decision to use the b-learning methodology presented the disadvantage of less face-to-face contact hours between student, faculty and peers. According to Tinto (1975) student integration in the academic environment plays an important role in academic achievement and dropout, especially for traditional students and residential HEIs. However, with b-learning students had the chance to better reconcile professional, family and academic responsibilities. Having two or three days of face-to-face classes per week meant that students (often working shifts) could better manage the time spared from work and family, and perform the required independent e-learning activities. On the other hand, Bean (1985) and Tharp (1998) report that for adult students and commuter HEIs, academic integration plays a less important role in student academic achievement and in dropout.

In spite of the risk it represented, it was assumed that the online component of the b-learning methodology could ensure that student's independent work was being followed by teachers, and could also ensure the strengthening of social ties between students, reinforcing the willingness to use and study with the e-learning component. At the beginning of each trimester faculty that taught classes at the T&IM for the first time had to complete a fixed amount of training on e-learning best practices.

2. Curriculum analysis

With the graduation of the first T&IM students in 2010-2011, a four years study cycle became completed. Within IPS' Integrated Management System (Ramos-Pires, 2010) it was decided to gather the data necessary to evaluate the T&IM curriculum design and the teaching and learning methodology in use.

2.1 Research design

Three research instruments were used in the evaluation of the T&IM curriculum:

a) focus groups with graduate students that had finished the course in 2010-2011;

b) satisfaction survey to current and graduate students;

c) form for the collection of administrative student data.

The focus group was used to assess the curriculum related subjects that where important for students and confirm that the satisfaction survey was in tune with student's major concerns. A factor analysis was made with data gathered from the satisfaction survey in order to correlate the variables considered and find factors that contributed to the interpretation of the survey results. Data collected from administrative records was used to assess dropout and number of enrolments until graduation in T&IM and in IPS' engineering courses.

2.3 Analysis

2.3.1   Dropout Rates

Figure 1 compares T&IM dropout rates from 2008/2009 to 2011/2012 with the corresponding averages for IPS' engineering courses.

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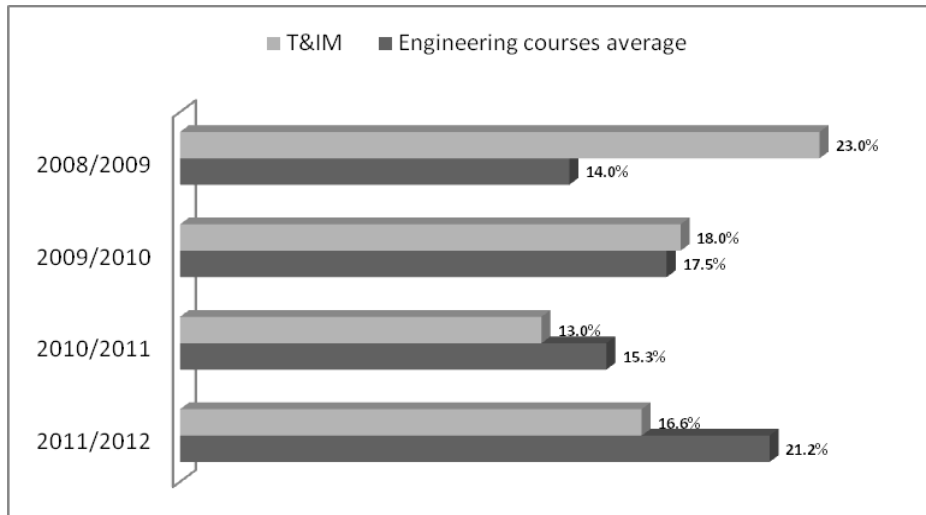
Figure 1: T&IM dropout rates compared with the corresponding averages for IPS' engineering courses.

Figure 1 shows a significant decrease in T&IM dropout from 2008/2009 to 2010/2011 followed by a slight increase between 2010/2011 and 2011/2012. Comparing T&IM dropout with the corresponding average for IPS' engineering courses, it is possible to conclude that after an initial period that coincided with the start of the course, T&IM dropout rates soon became similar to those of the engineering courses and in the last couple of years T&IM has had a dropout rate lower (between 2.5 and 5%) than the average of IPS' engineering courses. A study that addresses reasons for dropout among IPS' students is currently underway. According to preliminary results from this study there is no significant link between dropout and T&IM curriculum design. Economic difficulties (55%) and personal or health problems (27%) appear as the main reasons used by T&IM students to justify their decision to dropout. Comparing these preliminary results with those from Ramos-Pires and Gonçalves (2011), who did an exploratory study on IPS' dropout in the academic year of 2008/2009, it is possible to conclude that between 2008/2009 and 2011/2012 the argument of "economic difficulties" more than doubled: In 2008/2009 only 22% of IPS' students justified their dropout with economic difficulties, at that time professional reasons were those more frequently used (29%). It is likely that economic difficulties are also behind the dropout increase in T&IM and in IPS' engineering courses in 2011/2012.

2.3.2 Number of enrolments until graduation

In 2010/2011 IPS issued the first T&IM graduate certificates. From the total 16 graduates, seven had enrolled four consecutive years and three, with validated previous skills, had enrolled only three consecutive years. In 2011/2012 the number of new graduated students increased to 38, 29 of these with four enrolments and three with three enrolments only. Figure 2 presents, for 2010/2011 and 2011/2012, the ratio between the number of students graduating with four or less enrolments on those years and total number the students enrolled in 2007/2008 and 2008/2009, respectively.
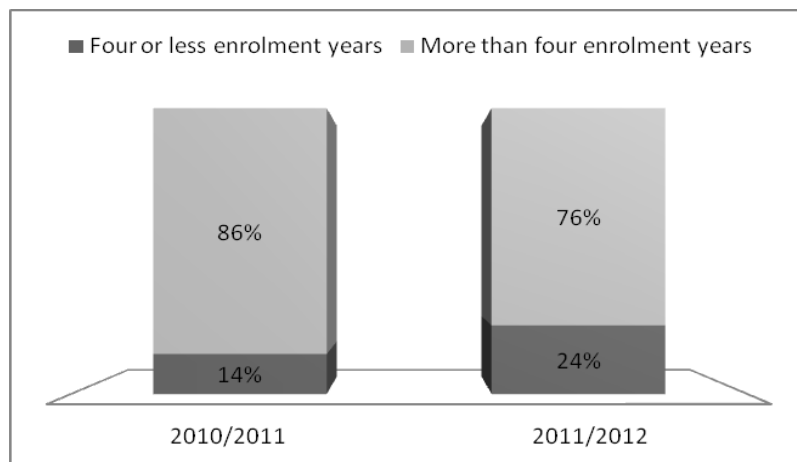
Figure 2: Percentage of students graduating with four or less enrolments.

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From Figure 2 we conclude that the percentage of students graduating with four or less enrolments is low. Out of the total number of students that enrolled in 2008/2009 only 25% (approximately) managed to graduate in the expected period of time (four years). However, a large percentage of those that graduate needed only four or less years: (10/16=) 62.5% in 2010/2011 and (32/38=)84% in 2011/2012. These results suggest that for one fifth of the students (84% out of 25%, in 2011/2012) the curriculum design was adequate. For the remaining majority there is a chance that the curriculum was inadequate. Along with curriculum difficulties, economic, professional, health and family reasons can also justify the need T&IM students have for extra time to graduate (mostly adults with full-time jobs).

2.3.3   Analysis of the Satisfaction Survey

To assess the students satisfaction with the course curriculum the PEA - 1st Cycle (perceptions of teaching/learning) instrument from the University of Minho was used. Emphasis was given to the instrument's questions that were related to curriculum evaluation. Results from the focus group confirmed that the instrument was also appropriate for T&IM students.

The survey considered T&IM current students (those enrolled in 2011/2012) and alumni. A total of 42 answers were received; 18 of them from alumni, the remaining (24) from current students. This represents approximately 10% of the universe of current students and slightly more for the universe of alumni. From the answers it was possible to conclude that alumni showed more satisfaction than current students (average vote of 4.04 against 3.63, respectively, on a 6 point Likert item). Table 1 presents the three most positive and most negative factors according to alumni and current students.

Table 1: Most positive and most negative items for alumni and current students.

	Alumni		Current students	
	Item	Average vote	Item	Average vote
most positive	Development of soft skills (critical thinking, oral and written communication, time management and team work, etc.)	4.61	Adequate number of students in class.	4.07
	Laboratorial infrastructures.	4.11	Laboratorial infrastructures.	3.93
	Scheduling curricular activities (exams, works, class schedules)	4.06	Adequacy of the programs of the UC to the course objectives.	3.85
most negative	Classroom and self-study rooms.	3.89	Evaluation methods adopted.	3.37
	Adequate number of students in class.	3.67	Informatics infrastructures.	3.37
	Adequacy of the programs of the UC to the course objectives.	3.56	Classroom and self-study rooms.	3.30

Results from Table 1 should be interpreted while taking into consideration that T&IM students are mostly adults who already have a full-time job. Such students often have a clear idea about the outcomes they expect from course classes. Survey results for items like "adequacy of the programs of the UC to the course objectives" were considered equally relevant for alumni and current students.

Table 1 shows that:

-   Current students have higher satisfaction regarding the adequacy between course unit (UC) programs and course objectives;

-   Current students have higher satisfaction regarding the number of students in class;

-   Both alumni and current students are satisfied with laboratorial infrastructures;

-   Both alumni and current students report lower satisfaction regarding availability of self-study rooms;

-   Alumni have higher satisfaction regarding the development of soft skills and the scheduling of curricular activities.

For a more in depth understanding of the data gathered with the satisfaction survey a factor analysis was made for the ensemble of the data gathered from alumni and current students surveys. This analysis showed that three factors

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explain 66% of the total information: (1) the **Planning** of the Teaching–Learning Process; (2) the **Implementation** of the Teaching–Learning Process; and (3) the **Resources** associated with the Teaching-Learning Process. From Figure 3 it is possible to conclude that satisfaction levels are acceptable for all factors and are very similar (averaging 3.86 using 6 point Likert items), however, the planning factor is the one that explains most of the sample results variance.
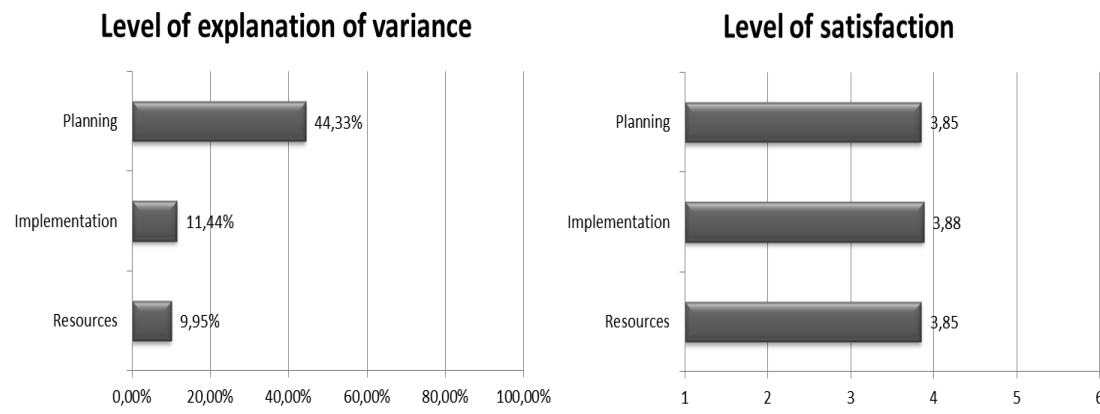
Figure 3: Variance explanation and satisfaction levels per factor.

Considering the items that made up the planning factor, the one associated with a higher student satisfaction was "scheduling curricular activities" (4.00); the item with lowest satisfaction was "correspondence between the workload and the number of credit units" (3.69). For the implementation factor the item that scored higher was "development of soft skills (critical thinking, oral and written communication, time management, teamwork, etc.)" (4.12) and the item that showed the lowest satisfaction was "coordination between the different modules/curricular units" (3.74). For the resources factor the item that scored higher was "laboratory infrastructure" (4.07), and the item where the level of satisfaction was lower was "classroom and self-study rooms" (3.57).

It is also important to mention that the item "teaching-learning adopted methodologies" is the only common to two factors (planning and implementation), a sign of the importance planning and implementing have in the teaching-learning process.

3. Conclusions

3.1 Global analysis

The rate of students graduating in four or less years is low. This may mean that in spite of the effort put into the design of the T&IM course curriculum, curriculum changes may still be needed. However, before any changes are made it is essential to identify the characteristics of the students that need more time to graduate.

Regarding the students' satisfaction with the teaching-learning process, the survey results show that improvements could be made on the "conditions of classrooms and self-study rooms", "evaluation methods adopted" and "computing infrastructure".

Regarding the results from the factor analysis results, all three factors presented a similar level of satisfaction. However the planning factor is responsible for explaining most of the survey results variance. For this planning factor the three variables with lower scores have all a direct impact on the students success: (1) "correspondence between the workload and the number of student credit units"; (2) "materials to support learning"; and (3) "assessment methods adopted (exams, papers)". To increase the number students that graduate in four years improvements should be made on these items.

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3.2. Limitations and Future work

The number alumni at the focus group and the survey's response rate do not allow generalizations of the results from the present study. It would be important to repeat this study, periodically, not only to improve its statistical representativeness but also to understand the evolution of student satisfaction over time.

Since a graduate course is subject to constant changes, due to changes in students characteristics and in faculty, in the future the work described in this paper will continue, contributing to the implementation of a course monitoring system used by decision makers to justify curriculum changes and pedagogic alternatives.

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Status of Technical Education Curricular in The Training of Federal Network Teachers in Brazil

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Abstract

This text gathers reflections, discussions and analysis of data collected in a documental research developed in a doctorate program in Education at the Federal University of Uberlândia (UFU). The study aims to register, discuss and reflect on the status of vocational and technological education in secondary school in the curricula of teacher training programs, specifically within the Scientific, Technical and Vocational Education Network in Brazil. The structural bases of our analysis are built upon the historical condition of these institutions as a place whose original purpose was to train children and youth to practice a profession. In a process of struggle and resistance, the subjects – researchers, managers, teachers and students – who are more critical and progressive have argued for a vocational and technical education that exceeds the "training" and the reductionism of the technical instrumentation. Therefore, it is advocated a project of TESS in which worker training is anchored in a perspective of autonomy and dichotomic overcoming between an education for "the head more than the hands" (GOODSON, 1997). Given this, we take as an empirical field for our studies the Federal Institutes of Minas Gerais, where the passport to incursion into the teaching degree curricula, offered by these institutions, was to analyze, identify and apprehend the status of vocational education in these curricula. The theoretical and historical support for our reflections were studies made by teacher researchers, especially those who are dedicated to investigate the technological education in secondary school in Brazil, as Machado (2008), Kuenzer (2009) and Santos (2008). In the field of curriculum, our reflections are supported by the foundation of the studies of Silva (2005), Moreira and Candau (2008), Sacristan (2000), Pacheco (2005), among others. The results show that proposals and projects highlighted in the curricula of teaching degree programs do not reflect the objectivity and materiality of teacher training for TESS, leaving vocational education in a peripheral status in teacher education.

Keywords: teacher training; curricular challenges; vocational and technological education

Introduction: Contextualizing the research process

As announced, this work is part of a documentary research in education doctoral at the Federal University of Uberlândia (UFU), Minas Gerais. It aims at recording, discussing, and reflecting on the status of technical vocational secondary education (TECHNOLOGICAL EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOL) in regards to the curricula of teachers, specifically in regards to the degrees offered by the Education, Science, and Technology Federal Institutes of Minas Gerais.

Given the many possibilities, the biggest challenge was to find theoretical knowledge that could provide understanding of the essence - both procedural and contradictory - structure, and dynamics of the researched object (COSTA, 2012, p.21). That is because, according to the educator Frigotto (2005, p.75), "our theoretical choices are not justified in themselves." Also according to this author:

> Behind the theoretical disputes that are waged in the academic environment lies a more fundamental clash of ethical-political character related to the role of theory in the understanding and in the social transformation by which humans produce their existence. (...) The theoretical choices, in this sense, are neither neutral nor arbitrary (...). (Frigotto, 2005, p. 26).

Given such considerations, we highlight that the option and construction of the theoretical body are predominantly interacted with our beliefs, experiences, conceptions of life and of the world, etc ...

1. Methodological process: procedures of selection and analysis of data

Our object of study was based on literature research that is inherent in every process of research, because "any scientific work begins with a literature research, which allows the researcher to know what has been studied on the subject" (Fonseca, 2002, p. 32). In this phase, we selected different sources that could confirm with a critical analysis our object of study - the curricula of teacher education for technical vocational secondary education. The curricula are formulated from the expansion of the Federal Network of Vocational, Scientific, and Technological Education (RFEPCT). Subsequently we conducted a documentary research that "is characterized by the search for information in documents that received no scientific treatment, such as reports, articles from newspapers, magazines, letters, films, recordings, photographs, among other disclosing matters" (OLIVEIRA, 2007, p . 69).

Thus, we consulted the State regarding the regulations (laws, decrees, resolutions, opinions[1]), intended to formalize and regulate the training of teachers, especially regarding the training of teachers for vocational and technological education. Under the Federal[2] Institutes of Minas Gerais, we focused our studies on the analysis of the following documents: Projects of training courses for teachers, with a closer look at the curricular matrices; the memos; the profile of graduates and; the possible field of action of future teachers in order to achieve our research goal. The inquisition of these documents occurred in 2011 and 2012, by accessing the homepages of these institutions and downloading such documents.

2. Our opinion on Teacher Training for Vocational Education

As disclosed by Ministry of Education[3], there is a projection for 2014 of 555 Federal Institutes in the country. This entails approximately 600,000 jobs being offered by RFEPCT[4]. All this growth demanded the hiring of 12 thousand and 500 new teachers through public tenders, which means an increase of 78.9% in the Federal Network faculty during the period of 2005 to 2011. It should be noted that Law 12.677/2012, recently enacted, includes over 24,306 new posts of effective teachers in Basic, Technical, and Technological Education.

Given this context, considering the evolution of the numbers and the prospect of hiring new workers - teachers - to meet the demand of this network, we ask: are there training courses for teachers, specifically for Vocational Education? Is training high school biology, chemistry, mathematics, etc. teachers the same as training technical education teachers? The position defended here is that it is not the same. Teacher training for vocational education may interact with the high school training, but it must, above all, work the specifics of training the worker for the working world, and it requires, above

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[1] Machado (2008) makes a foray into the history of teacher training for vocational education in Brazil and thus performs a detailed study of legal provisions aimed at regulating this training. Attached is a table with some of the legal provisions found in this research.

[2] The Federal Institutes of Education, Science, and Technology (FIs) were created with the enactment of Decree No. 6.095/2007 and consolidated with the publication of Law No. 11.892/2008, which, besides creating such institutes, establishes the Federal Network of Vocational, Scientific, and Technologic Education, formerly known as the Federal Network of Vocational and Technological Education (COSTA, 2012, p. 105). Thus, FIs were constituted from a voluntary adhesion and aggregation, becoming, therefore, products of the transformation of 31 federal centers of technological education, 75 units decentralized education, 39 federal agro-technical education centers, seven federal technical schools, and eight schools linked to universities. Its outcome was the creation of the 38 Federal Institutes of Education, Science, and Technology.

[3] Data available at http://www.brasil.gov.br/noticias/arquivos/2011/05/03/rede-federal-tem-21-alunos-para-cada-professor-segundo-mec. Accessed on 15/06/2011.

[4] By comparison, 173 thousand enrollments were made in 2005 and that number jumped to 418 thousand in 2011. 71.7% of this amount, that is, 300 thousand, was in TECHNOLOGICAL EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOL and courses of Initial and Continuing Training. The remaining 118 thousand enrollments were in teaching degrees, undergraduate programs, technologists, and graduate programs.

all, an education that considers the structural principles of vocational education (COAST 2012). According to Machado (2008, p.9), "the lack of qualified teaching staff has constituted one of the most important hotspots that strangle the expansion of vocational education in the country." To this teacher, besides the inherent challenges of every teaching practice, teachers of vocational education also face "new challenges related to organizational changes that affect professional relationships due to technological innovations regarding work activities and professional culture (...)" (MACHADO, 2008, p.10).

The starting point for the documentary analysis of the degrees of the federal institutes of Minas Gerais was the attainment of the prescribed curriculum, which according to Sacristan (2000, p. 254) "is geared, in any educational system, towards some type of prescription or guidance as to what should be its content in relation to mandatory education." Thus, we discuss the design of curriculum in a modeling perspective that occurs within a school system, directed at certain teachers and students, being instrumental in the formation process of the individual. Contextually, the curriculum takes different perspectives and meanings. As Silva explains (2005, p. 150), "the curriculum is place, space, territory (...) is the power relationship (...) is history, travel, journey (...) is autobiography (...) curriculum vitae: our identity is forged the curriculum. The curriculum is speech text, document. The curriculum is identity document." Supporting this understanding, Moreira and Candau (2008), claim that the word curriculum can be associated to different concepts that relate to socioeconomic factors, both political and cultural, which helps it to be understood as

> (a) the content to be taught and learned; (b) the school related learning experiences to be lived by students, (c) the pedagogical plans prepared by teachers, schools, and educational systems, (d) the objectives to be achieved through the teaching process, (e) the evaluation processes that end up influencing the content and the procedures selected (MOREIRA & Candau, 2008, p. 17).

Sacristan (1995, p. 85) points out that sometimes the "curriculum is designed as a simple specification in a document, as thoroughly as you want, all goals, areas, content, or major themes and concrete topics that must be addressed in the classroom", which implies a knowledge of what is in fact the curriculum. To Pacheco (2005), despite the different perspectives and different existing dualisms, the curriculum is defined as a project whose construction and development process is interactive, which implies unity, continuity, and interdependence between what is decided at a level of legal or official plan, and at a level of the real plan, or the process of teaching and learning (p. 37). For the purpose of our studies and since it is a documentary analysis, we will focus our attention on the official curriculum; however, we will seek for clues of possible ways of materializing this curriculum in the real plan. Therefore, we discuss the training courses for teachers from two basic premises. The first refers to the permission of professionals without a teaching degree in the teaching profession and the second, not less important, concerns the interpretation and understanding of vocational education as a form of basic education, which involves observing the attempts of training teachers for vocational education materialized in the curriculum projects. Therefore, we present in Figure 1 the rates published by the National Institute of Educational Studies and Research Anísio Teixeira, highlighting the percentage of teachers "with and without teaching degrees" working in Brazilian technological education in secondary school.

Graph 1 - Number of Teachers in TECHNOLOGICAL EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOL with Higher Education: "with and without teaching degrees"
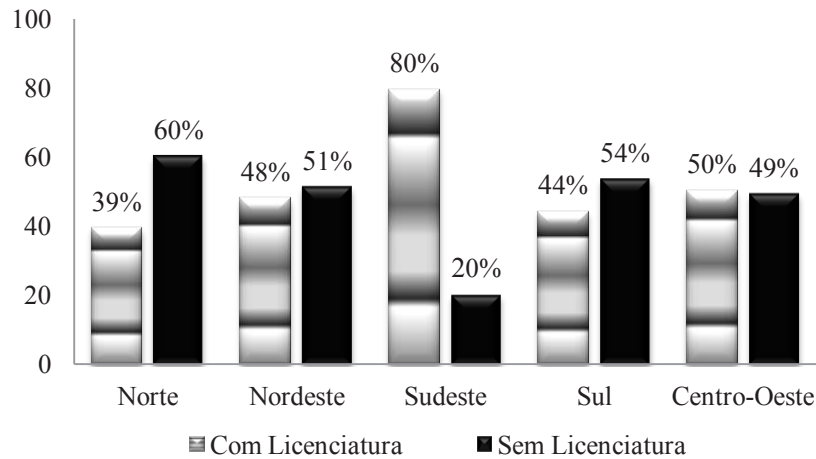
Source: Teacher Training Synopsis/National Institute Of Educational Studies And Research Anísio Teixeira /2009

As shown above, we note that the highest rates of teachers without a teaching degree are concentrated in the North and Northeast while the southeastern region has the highest rate of teachers with a teaching degree. What does this mean? There are different points of view for the interpretation of this scenario; however, with reference to our concepts and believing that education, specifically vocational education, needs to be conceived as a serious and possible project - also in relation to social transformation, overcoming welfare and reductionist biases - we interpret this permission as a lack of commitment to education. To Diniz-Pereira (1999, p.114), this situation continues to be sustained by the logic of improvisation, which seems inconceivable in other professional fields - e.g., law, medicine, and engineering – but possible for teaching. In other words, there is no requirement or *sine qua non* condition that says that teachers have to graduate from a teaching program or, in the case of professionals in other fields, have to attend supplemental educational courses so that they may be able to teach. As a rule, professionals from other fields are changed into teachers by accessing classrooms doors. As if by magic, they enter school as engineers, architects, managers, etc... and become teachers.

Returning our attention to Graph 1, we report that, despite the apparently satisfactory index of 80% of licensed teachers in the Southeast Region, according to MEC/National Institute of Educational Studies and Research Anísio Teixeira /Deed (2011), 57% of vocational education teachers in Minas Gerais do not have teaching degrees or training/supplemental education courses. We understand training courses for teachers as privileged places where discussions and debates about education and school knowledge can take place. Amaral's studies (2010), based on those of Gautheir (1998), indicate that such knowledge - about education and school - is unknown to most ordinary citizens and members of other professions and that, therefore, it is specific knowledge of teacher training that enables "a global vision of education that the curriculum of other professions does not provide."

2.1 The curriculum of teacher training of institutes of Minas Gerais: What is the status of technical vocational Secondary education?

For a description of the scenario of teacher training in the federal institutes of Minas Gerais, we elaborated Table 1 where we present the organization (regions) and distribution (number of campuses) of these institutes as well as the identification of the undergraduate teaching courses with their respective areas.

Table 1: Federal Institutes (FIs) of Minas Gerais and the offering of teaching degrees

FI of Minas Gerais	FI Minas Gerais – 06 campuses	Teaching Degrees	Biology – Physics – Mathematics - Geography
	FI of Minas Gerais North – 07 campuses		Biology – Physics – Mathematics - Chemistry
	FI of Minas Gerais Southeast – 04 campuses		Biology – Physics – Mathematics – Chemistry – Physical Education
	FI of Minas Gerais South – 03 campuses		Biology – Mathematics – Computer Technology – Physical Education
	FI Triângulo Mineiro – 04 campuses		Biology – Computer Technology – Chemistry – Social Sciences

Source: Survey Data/2011

Minas Gerais is the state with the largest number of Federal Institutes. There are 05 institutions, totaling 24 campuses[5]. It should be noted that apart from these institutions, Minas Gerais has CEFE-MG which also belongs to RFEPCT; it has not, however, turned into an institute. Thus, this institution was not included in our studies. We observe that the Federal Institutes of Minas Gerais favored teaching degrees offers in biology, followed respectively by teaching degrees in mathematics, physics, and chemistry. Such offers are in line with the proposals originated from the government, where the prominence is to train teachers for high school subjects, especially for physics, chemistry, biology, and mathematics, as defined by Decree No. 6.095/2007. By doing so, the government hopes to solve the problem of shortage[6] of teachers for high school education that focuses on these areas. We also note that the undergraduate teaching courses at the FIs of Minas Gerais include a course in each the social sciences and geography; two in physical education; and two in computer technology, one of which is offered as a distance course.

A - The curriculum structure of teaching degrees of FIs of Minas Gerais

The structural basis of the teaching undergraduate curriculum of FIs of Minas Gerais is organized into three Cores: i) Specific ii) Pedagogical and iii) Instrumental. The Teaching Core is considered differential because it enables discussions further focused on the act of being a teacher, supporting the (re)construction of teacher identity and, above all, the performance of the licensed individual as an education professional. According to Libâneo (1999) and Pepper (1999), it is the training of teachers that enables the development of knowledge and skills, competencies, attitudes, and values so that teachers can build their teaching knowledge/affairs from the needs and challenges that teaching as a social practice puts them in everyday life. Therefore, the knowledge of education and teaching theory can be mobilized, that is, the theory of the areas of necessary knowledge for the understanding of education as a social reality.

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[5] The number of campuses of each researched institute is for the year 2011/2012. There is a trend of the expansion of newer campuses. In a revisit of the institutions' homepages on 05/27/2013, we found that, for example, the Federal Institute of Minas Gerais South expanded the number of its campuses by 100% in two years. There were three campuses in 2011 and six campuses in 2013.

[6] The teacher shortage is so big in Brazil that we run the risk of suffering from a "blackout" of professionals, mainly in the areas of Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics, and Biology. The alert was given by the Board of Basic Education in a report released in 2007. Since then, the situation has worsened. The current deficit is of nearly 300 thousand teachers according to Professor Clélia Brandão, a member of the National Council of Education and of the Board of Basic Education and president of the Bicameral Commission for Teacher Education. Available at http://redeglobo.globo.com/globoeducacao/noticia/2011/11/brasil-tem-um-deficit-de-quase-300-mil-professores-de-disciplinas-basicas.html. Accessed on 06/15/2012.

This core-based organization will make sense if it provides the fundamental integration of knowledge - scientific, specific, cultural, social, political, and pedagogical - to the network fabric of knowledge that is necessary in teaching training and practice. Such coordination may favor the intersection of knowledge, from an interdisciplinary and didactic-pedagogic perspective, converging into a less fragmented training and education and, consequently, into a more articulate training and education, favoring interdisciplinary dialogue.

Because we recognize the importance of the pedagogical core in teacher training, we allocated greater attention in checking the areas/disciplines that are taken into account. The result was that, with the exception of one institute, none proposed in its curriculum a discussion on vocational education. All of them considered the studies on teaching, others made sure to study the philosophy of education, educational psychology, etc.., many also made sure to discuss "inclusive" issues such as the education of youth and adults and the study of libras (Brazilian Sign Language), etc… However, the technical vocational high school education was not considered in the curriculum of teacher training in four of the five Federal Institutes of Minas Gerais. This fact is relevant since the locus where the training of such teachers occurs is an institution that has its genesis in the history of professional education offer. How can the complexities and particularities of worker training for the work reality not be discussed and reflected with future teachers?

B - The scenario of teacher training translated into course projects

To comprehend the intentions of the teaching degrees of FIs of Minas Gerais, we analyzed course projects aiming at understanding the goals and purposes of graduate performance, as presented in Table 2. We stress that we did not have access to the course projects of one of the 24 campuses surveyed; however, we received general information about the teaching degree offered at this campus.

Table 2: Area of activity of teaching degree graduates and/or objectives of teacher training

FI 1	The Teaching Degree aims at training professionals for teaching Physics, especially in basic education: **High school Education** (…)
	The Biology Teaching Degree at FI1 aims at educating and training professionals for the various sectors of this field of knowledge, to work in teaching and research, particularly in **Basic Education** (…)
	The Course objective is to train teachers in **Basic Education** (second stage of **Elementary and Secondary Education**) in Mathematics (…)
	The Chemistry Teaching Degree aims at educating and training professionals for the various sectors of this field of knowledge to work in teaching and research, particularly in **Basic Education** (…)
FI2	Professionals with teaching degrees in Social Sciences will be able to teach classes in **Basic Education** - **Elementary and Secondary Education** – and Higher Education (…).
	Train professionals capable of working in **Basic Education** in the perspective of improving the quality of the processes of teaching and learning (…).
	Chemistry Teaching Degree aims at training teachers to work in **Basic Education** - **High School and Middle School**, according to the set of principles, fundamentals, and procedures established by the National Curriculum Guidelines.
FI 3	Act as a professional in the field of science and biology, **in elementary, secondary education, and higher education** in establishments in the public and private network.
	Educators for computer technology teaching **at a high school** in institutions that introduce computer technology in their curriculum. Educators for teaching computing technology **at technical level** and specific needs of the area that became necessary.
	The Physical Education Teaching Degree trains qualified teachers to teach in **Basic Education (Early Childhood Education, Elementary Education, Secondary Education, and Youth and Adult Education)**, (…).
FI 4	The main objective of the Mathematics Teaching Degree is the training of mathematics teachers for **Elementary and Secondary Education**, WITH QUALITY.
	Train skilled professionals to serve as Science and Biology teachers in **Elementary and Secondary**

	Education, respectively (...).
	Train skilled professionals to work in the field of Physical Education, **at all levels of education - Early Childhood Education, Elementary Education, Secondary Education, and Higher Education -** and in informal areas that require action of such professionals (...)
	The course is intended for the training of **High School** Chemistry teachers**.**
FI 5	Train teachers for **Basic Education** (**Middle School and High School**) in Mathematics, prepared to positively respond to the educational demands of society.
	The Mathematics Teaching Degree has the training of teachers for **Basic Education** as its main objective**.**
	The professional area of teacher with a teaching degree in Physics is teaching in **Basic Education (Middle and High School)**, and he can even operate in special education, distance education courses, and in the production of materials and knowledge in Physics teaching.
	The course aims at training professionals capable to act in the area of teaching in **Basic Education**, in the Biological Sciences (...).
	The professional area is teaching in **Basic Education (Middle School and High School)**, and he can operate even in special education, distance education courses, and in the production of materials and knowledge in Physics teaching.
	The teacher with a teaching degree in Geography should be able to act as **Elementary and Secondary Education** teachers (...).

Source: Homepages of FI of Minas Gerais 2011/2012, emphasis added

As shown in Table 2, none of the investigated FIs aims at educating professionals to work in vocational education. In general, the majority proposes teacher training for the performance in basic education; however, vocational education is not designed by the promoter as part of basic education. This understanding is based on two arguments. The first argument is enhancement by the fact that when promoters refer to the possibility of graduates performing in basic education, they delimit the final grades of Elementary and Secondary Education.

The second argument is based on peripheral status for vocational education under Brazilian law, since the current Law of Guidelines and Bases of National Education No. 9.394/1996 determines that school education is composed of basic education - formed by early childhood, elementary, and high school education - and of higher education, thereby excluding vocational education. However, as of 2008, the Technical Vocational Secondary Education became part of school education, with the enactment of Law No. 11.741/2008 and creation of section AIV-A, which includes the regulation of vocational education; therefore, it was understood as part of basic education.

Thus, our studies on teacher training for vocational education enables us to infer that this training (re)built it on the foundations of discontinuous and fragmented educational pathways. As Santos (2008, p. 128-130) asserts, from the point of view of designing teacher training, an aggravating factor is the fact that teacher education has historically been fragmented, streamlined, conservative, with irregular supply, emergency-like, improvised, and dispersed. And yet, we highlight the following conditions:

(a) Difficulty in the articulation of a general knowledge common base with a specific base associated to an area of more extensive training; (b) conservative pedagogical practices; (c) low incorporation of technological advances related to information and communication technology; (d) low incorporation of technological innovation necessary for effective teaching innovation for an effective practical theoretical relation; (e) provision of initial training in universities, teaching degrees that when such exist, they do not turn to the EPT; (f) lack of attention to work issues and to Pedagogy EPT courses; (g) instability in offering specific courses per area; (h) lack of alternatives of graduate programs and high cost of existing alternatives; (i) lack of current teaching degrees specificity targeting teacher training for EPT; (...) (j) lack of specificity of the training of these teachers due to the fact that they are structured based on legislation that generically deals with basic education; (l) offer of teaching degree courses by the private institutions that aim exclusively in meeting the demands of the market, which contributes to the inaccurate characterization of these courses regarding the specificity required by the EPT; (m) reduction of the teaching profession to a partial task of defined content designed to meet a specific demand; (n) denial of the epistemological status of science education and consequent distortion of the teacher as intellectually responsible for an area of knowledge; (...) (o) non-recognition of teaching in technical education as a job

that involves a field of own knowledge, to be exercised by a professional himself, in this case, the teacher; (p) duality between scientific knowledge and pedagogical training that is not consistent with the development of science, technology, and the scientific method; (q) little coordination between scientific, technical, pedagogical, and tacit knowledge; (...). (emphasis added) .

The author's arguments are conclusive because, as pointed out in this article, the teaching degrees offered by surveyed FIs do not even recognize the purpose of teacher training for the performance in vocational education. These considerations are supported by the assumption that only offering one teaching degree in a certain area does not guarantee the training of professionals to critically and autonomously deal with the challenges posed to TECHNOLOGICAL EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOL. At this rate we believe that these teaching degrees need to incorporate work as an educational principle, discussing work relations (labor and capital) regulated by the neoliberal capitalist logic. Ultimately, to train professional teachers for EFA assumes the unveiling of explicit and implicit relations between the world of work and society, reflecting on the socio, political, and economic context in which we operate, with a view of enabling questioning and societal transformations. In short, it is essential to overcome the figure of the teacher as an instructor who would, in vocational education, worry about only teaching tacit knowledge. Therefore, it is essential that teacher training for TECHNOLOGICAL EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOL stops surfing the waves of improvisation and of (re)arrangements so that it can actually break the historical pattern that has been constituted by the vocational education based on "social and technical division of labor" (KUENZER, 2001). In Brazil, the trajectory of the EPT is materialized in offering a dual education structure through vocational schools and academic schools to meet the demand of people with different backgrounds and social destination (CAMPELLO, 2009). In this structure, technical education is for the children of workers; consequently, it is subordinated to the needs and demands of the process of capital accumulation (Frigotto, 2003). Given such contexts, we understand that education contributed to the social and technical division of labor through differentiated curricula, distinguishing intellectual training from manual training, as asserted by Braverman (1981, p . 113) in that the " separation of hand and brain is the most decisive simple measure of division of labor taken by the capitalist way of production." The polytechnic education does not exist in this model of education.

Given these considerations, we understand that the area of general, academic, and preparatory education is strongly bounded concerning the projects of teaching degrees. This is because the performance of graduates is recognized for professionalism in terms of more preparatory training, thereby displacing technical training (vocational education) to a peripheral status in the process. Thus, teaching degrees occur in a privileged space for vocational training (TECHNOLOGICAL EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOL) since the FIs arise from technical and/or agro-technical schools that are recognized for this type of training. Although this is the case, the pedagogical projects of teacher training do not propose to discuss and debate this teaching genre.

Final Remarks

As final remarks, we will highlight two issues confirmed in this research. The first refers to the fact that teaching degrees, curriculum, and teacher training policies do not see EFA as part of basic education. The specificity of teacher training for vocational education is invisible in the investigated curriculum since, by defining the graduates' acting area as middle and/or high school, it (the investigated curriculum) excluded the EPT from the educational setting. In other words, we perceive a lack of clarity as to what it means to train teachers for basic education in the genre of EPT. Accordingly, we find that the RFEPCT has not promoted political training of teachers for the EFA, indicating a contradiction in teacher training that develops at vocational education institutions – one-hundred-year-old institutions that have the tradition of offering technical education – and does not, however, propose to train teachers to act in it in the future. The second issue is related to the lack of mandatory training in undergraduate education courses for the teaching profession. In Brazil, any professional with an undergraduate diploma can act as a teacher. Such permissiveness can be understood as a disregard of entities, both governmental and educational entities. Therefore, we consider that vocational education still occupies a peripheral status in training courses for teachers of Federal Institutes of Minas Gerais.

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The curriculum of teacher training in the representations of faculty members at public universities in São Paulo

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Abstract

This text presents part of the results of a research project underway which seeks to analyze the knowledge necessary for teachers in basic education, in view of the curricula of the Language courses of two public universities in São Paulo, Brazil, and in the representations of the faculty members involved in it. Thus the data collected in the semi-structured interviews undertaken with ten of them, five from each institution, will be presented. The objective is to bring out the relationship of these agents with the prescribed curriculum of the course. It is important to note, therefore, what the subjects of the research recognize as the training plan accepted and undertaken by the university and in what way they relate to that plan. As theoretical frame of reference for the analysis of the data the ideas of Lefebvre, as regards the concept of representation, have been adopted. In the continuation of the project, the representations of the faculty members will be compared with the information obtained from the documental analysis in such a way as to contribute to the discussion of the curricula for the initial training of basic education teachers.

Key-words: Curriculum; Teachers' training; Representations.

1 Introduction

In this text data collected in semi-structured interviews undertaken with ten professors of Language courses of two public universities situated in São Paulo, Brazil, are presented. The objective adopted is to bring out the relation of these agents to the prescribed curriculum, especially regarding what they identify as knowledge relevant to the training of basic school teachers. The authors highlight, therefore, the importance attributed to the prescribed dimension of the curriculum, understood as the expression of an unstable equilibrium based on the different conceptions and interests. It is emphasized the question of the representations of these faculty members and the text is structured as follows: initially the elements which motivated the research are presented; then the methodological aspects and the points outstanding in the statements of the faculty members themselves, followed by closing considerations, indicating points for discussion and deserving of further study, as also possible contributions to the debate on the teachers' training curriculum.

1.1 Motivation

The field of teachers' training in Brazil has been profoundly affected by the educational reforms, initiated in the 1990s and still underway, which have been widely analyzed as to their social, political and pedagogical implications (Kuenzer, 1999; Carvalho, 2001; Maués, 2003, Rego & Mello, 2004; Gatti, Barretto & André, 2011). The expansion in the number of teachers' training courses in response to the increased opportunities of access to basic education offered the population, as also the persistence of the indications of the low quality of the learning of the pupils at all levels of schooling, have challenged the whole Brazilian educational chain. The present conflicts regarding the models of teacher training and the dissatisfaction which they provoke do not occur only in Brazil, but also in countries of the western world in general.

As regards the courses which train teachers for the final years of the basic school, the changes which arose as a result of the National Educational Law of 1996 (LDBEN nº 9394) deeply sought a different articulation between the specific and the pedagogical fields, beyond a purely temporal relationship of succession – three years of theoretical studies followed by a year of practical training – which survives in many projects.

This is the setting which motivates the research which is presented here. In analyzing faculty members' declarations it is sought to establish whether and to what extent particular social representations as regards the social

function of the basic school and of the teachers' training influence the curricular structure and the programs of the courses, as also the representations of the professors themselves. The analysis of the faculty members' representations seeks to contribute to the elucidation of the forces present in the movements for the curricular reform of the teachers training courses, comparing data and their contextual sociocultural and institutional aspects. The universities involved in the research - identified as A and B – have been undertaking teachers' training projects for basic education for many decades and teachers' training itself is here considered as a field permeated with representations derived from various origins: social, political, legal, epistemological and pedagogical (Penin, 1994).

2   The research

The study to which this text relates is linked to a research project in which emphasis is given to the representations of faculty members of teachers' training on Language courses, taking into consideration the specific context of each of the courses and universities under analysis, as also the wider context in which the training of teachers in the State of São Paulo and in the country in general is formulated and implemented.

Some of the aspects greatly emphasized by contemporary Brazilian academic production in the discussion of teachers' training reinforce particular and social representations and influence the elaboration of curricula and training actions. Other aspects resist legislative normatization and the recommendations of academic production, but also continue to inhabit the universe of representations on teaching activity and make possible the creation of new meanings for the teachers' training curriculum. In the light of the above, within the outline given here, elements will be sought to strength the discussion of the question: How do the representations of the academic teachers influence the curricular reformulation of the teachers training courses and their practice?

2.1   Subjects of the research

Ten professors of Language courses of two public universities in São Paulo had interviewed – five of them from each institution. Actual involvement of the subjects in the teachers' training was adopted as the criterion of choice.
Of the five faculty members of each institution, three are linked either to the Language School (University A) or to the Language Department (University B) and two to the School of Education (A) or to the Department of Education (B); all have graduated in Language courses and are involved in research in the field of education.

2.2   Research procedures

The research procedures adopted were: documental analysis and semi-structured interviews. As analytical procedures, with regard to the data collected, the professors' declarations were organized in four areas for the purpose of analysis: (1) Relationship between specific training and academic background; (2) Important knowledge for training for basic education teaching; (3) Teaching strategies undertaken during the teachers' training course, and (4) Identification of advances in teachers' training. Documents and professors' declarations were examined in accordance with the analysis of the representations and the observation of the genealogical method, formulated by Lefebvre (1983, 1991). It is supposed that the unveiling of the representations related to the basic school is a process characterized by incoherences and contradictions which interfere dialectically with the processes of training.

3   Justification

Seeking to fill a gap with regard to research which takes the university professor as subject, this study seeks to attain the movement between the lived and the conceived, marked either by reiterations of the already established or by actions which create new meanings. Within this perspective, the subject is considered not only as the vehicle of representations which are formed by the crossing of his personal and professional trajectories, but also in the relationship of belonging to a historically situated social group, which influences his actions and his discourse. The representations are understood as being constituted by subjects, enclosed within specific life-histories, as also within the social scale. The analysis seeks to identify the way in which certain subjects, professors who train teachers for the basic school, on the basis of their life-experience, generate representations – understood as facts of words and social action (Lefebvre, 1983). It seeks, further, to explain how they deal with the representations existing in their daily work so that their actions may be classified as creative, mimetic or reiterative (Penin, 1994).

4   Results

The declarations of the professors of universities A and B were initially grouped for analysis in accord with the areas already indicated.

In one of the institutions, the whole course is offered in one physical unit (B) and, in the other, the subjects of a pedagogical nature are offered in a specific unit – the School of Education – while those of specific character are presented previously in another space (A). In this latter, later efforts defined a Teachers' Training Program, which sought better to articulate the actions of the disciplines and the professors of the two places, still awaiting full implementation.

As regards the curriculum for the training of Portuguese Language teachers, those interviewed belonging to the specific block of the course of the two universities stressed the value of both groups of subjects in the curriculum, – those of specific content, related to language and literature, and those of pedagogical character. It is, however, possible to identify a careful defense in the formative aspect of the specific contents, a defense which appears not to be related just to the importance given to the specific contents, but also to the perception of the importance of the aspects dealt with in the pedagogical subjects. Thus, beside expressions of opinion like:

> The most important types of knowledge are those which the person [...] receives as the content of the bachelor's course or of those credits   which are foreseen in the teacher's training [...] the person needs really to have specific knowledge of his area of training (A.2);

there are also expressions of opinion such as:

> I would say that it is necessary, principally, to know how to read the texts and the world that surrounds us. [...] to know how to interpret – texts and contexts. Also [...] that he should have a humanistic background and a critical one, that will allow him to discover, empirically, what are the methods, the techniques, the most adequate pedagogical instruments for each teaching-learning each situation. (B.2)

The majority of those interviewed attest the need for *articulation* in the work of the various faculty members. This position is probably provoked by the hegemonic social representations of the criticism of a mere juxtaposition, present in the legislation in force, as also in discussions which occur within the ambit of the institutions at national level.

> I believe that this joint work is important as it will contribute decisively to the profile of this course and to the profile of the professional that it will prepare. (B.3)

> [...] I see that we shall be better able to articulate the subjects of the bachelor's course with what we have in the School of Education [...] on whom we count all the time. (A.1)

Even though *the recognition of the need for articulation* between the two types of training be explicit, it is possible to identify a certain ambiguity or even hesitancy as regards the relevance attributed to the pedagogical training. That is to say, if there were, in fact, as appears to be the case, a *shift* in the place or the value given to pedagogic questions in the professors' representations as regards teachers' training for basic education, it is still possible to identify doubts or dissimulations (whether conscious or not) in the discussion of the related problems.

In order to arrive not only at the professors' concept (his understanding of the questions) but his living experience, that is to say, what he does (or his colleagues do), one of the questions which composed the interview questionnaire asked that he should describe the teaching strategies he uses. The Training Program of University A foresaw that the training period should begin with the first part of the course while the students are still attending the bachelor's course, with the clear purpose of breaking the strict theory-practice distinction. But, even though they understand it as important, it appears that they prefer to leave the training period over until their period in the School of Education, dedicating themselves more deeply, together with teaching, to the analysis of text books and official documents, as also to the elaboration of didactic sequences:

> I develop a subject just on the basis of the Portuguese language text book [...], its stage determining the objective of its teaching.[...] It is in the School of Education that it will go to the class-room. This is the fundamental stage, it still needs to be applied. (A.1)

> I work on the preparation of [...] didactic sequences, of small projects, that is to say, [...] it is a small laboratory of teaching experiences that we do here, on the basis of the content that we study. (A.3)

This kind of strategy is also observed in University B:

> I see various initiatives taking place here, including some very powerful ones. [...] In the subject Teaching Training Activities, that we do here, [...]I see the analysis of teaching material being done. (B.2)

When asked to identify possible advances in teachers' training the faculty members elaborate on the field of *contestation* and *conflict* or even on a certain *discomfort* which they experience. On one hand, they express the

importance for the country of the meaning introduced by the new legislation; on the other, they point out the difficulty involved in changing a culture (a representation which has lasted for decades). In fact, when courses for the training of specialist teachers were first introduced (1934), pedagogical studies were despised and what one understands by solid theoretical training in language and literature was over-valued. For many, this awareness creates discomfort, but, at the same time, real problems:

> Up to that point, teaching was for the few but then the LDBEN told us that teaching is for the many. [...] What happens is that the Language course wants to teach the few [...] I think that the curriculum should be revised [...] If I have a pupil in the sixth grade [of fundamental teaching], with a serious illiteracy problem, who will take care of that? (A.1)

> I think it's great to have institutional support for certain questions that are part of our convictions, but I insist that, in practice, in my practice, not much has changed. I think we're offering a more coherent course. I have the impression that these changes have come too to make us think out our practice, the course itself. (B.4)

The identification and understanding of institutional history appears to be a fundamental aspect for proposals for more promising changes. Thus the importance of studying locally declarations such as the following:

> We used not to talk of education here [...] obviously there are exceptions, but there is an overriding thought that education is a lesser thing. [But] this is a bad point, I've never heard, to this day, of any planned moment for us [professors of the School of Arts and of the School of Education] to be able to talk, so as to exchange experiences [...] and I know some colleagues who would be very interested in going there or in receiving someone, a group of teachers of Education, so that we could together listen and get to know each other. (A.3)

One can perceive from these declarations a possible shift of representations which has almost crystallized out over time with regard to teachers' training. To accompany this process or the genealogy of these representations, indicating the conflicts and contestations at play in an institution can contribute to the change of deeply rooted concepts and practices and the overcoming and replacement of representations and thus contribute to more radical transformations in the courses concerned.

5 Conclusions

In this text, the study of the declarations of faculty members active on Language courses has as its objective the identification of their representations as regards the relationship they establish between the pedagogical projects now applied and the teaching activity they carry out and/or that they judge necessary to carry out at the present time. It is intended, by means of the identification of the representations, to understand how they come through to certain subjects and how these, by virtue of their practical experience, react to and/or incorporate them. Further, this study seeks to identify: the origin and power of the representations, their possible dissimulations and/or simulations, their shifts and/or replacement and their nuclear and peripheric aspects.

The quest for explanations for this process leads us to consider, as did Lefebvre (1983), that the act of knowing and creation imply the movement and mediation of representations. There is the need, in this process, to capture the movement of the replacement and the shift of representations. These, despite the changing of the subjects, in the everyday routine of the institution, in the curriculum, in the legislation etc. can become fixed, blocking the way for the desired and necessary transformations. Equally, the critical study of the representations present in the everyday routine of the formative institutions can show moments and/or signs of overcoming obstacles, and of identifying representations which lead to creative acts.

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Educational technology in teaching nursing students on clinical evaluation of the preterm baby

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Abstract

Introduction: The serious games help the process of teaching and learning not only related to clinical skills of students, but also in developing notions of communication and research. Objective: (1) To verify the cognitive performance of nursing students in the clinical assessment of premature influenced by the association between formal classes and a virtual learning environment (VLE), and a serious game; (2) To evaluate the satisfaction of the students regarding the use of serious games e-Baby. Methodology: It is a quasi-experiment study with Portuguese nursing students enrolled in the last year of the course (n = 14). The educational intervention consisted of a semi-presencial course (60 hours) with allocation of digital tools Physical Examination of the Preterm baby and e-Baby available in a VLE (Moodle®) and moments of average fidelity simulation. The group's performance was analysed using the Wilcoxon test (performance score = post-test - pre-test) considering α = 0.05. The simulation variable was analysed separately, and a part of the students took the test before the class with simulation and other students took the test after, and there was no statistically significant difference. It is for descriptive statistics on the theme that learning increasingly improved every step that was evaluated. The Wilcoxon statistical test showed significant difference when comparing the learning obtained from baseline considering all students / n = 14 (p = 0.001). With respect to performance comparison between the experimental and control groups, there was no statistically significant difference using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney test (p = 0.845). The results of evaluation were very satisfactory highlighting that students judged the serious game positively in all aspects evaluated and reinforce that even with all these advantages, the teacher cannot be replaced, ie, the resource consists of a tool auxiliary. The technology can be an important tool for teaching innovation and motivation of learning, considering the performance of students and their satisfaction in using the serious game and virtual learning environment.

Keywords: Neonatal Nursing; Educational Technology; Learning; Physical Examination; Premature.

1   Introduction

Information technologies have been used increasingly in nursing education as a tool in the process of teaching and learning. Some projects have been developed based on computer technology and applied as students attempt to promote good results and evaluate them in order to add significant data in the discovery and application of technology in education.

There is an interest in this technology specifically to meet pedagogical proposals for nursing education, complementing or replacing traditional teaching methods (Bloomfield, While and Roberts, 2008). Information technologies have been used increasingly in nursing education as a tool in the process of teaching and learning. The serious games help the process of teaching and learning not only related to clinical skills of students, but also in developing notions of communication and research.

The educational games is configured as a complementary tool in the construction and setting concepts developed (Tarouco *et al*. 2004). Thus, exploring the potential of games for education, serious games have been used. There is interest in seeking the application of educational games for researchers and health professionals to new teaching strategies (Cooper; Cooper & Milton, 2009; Fox, 2009).

Was built the serious game e-Baby (Figure 1), which features simulated environment of an incubator in which the user performs a clinical assessment of oxygenation in preterm infants virtual. The user knows the history of preterm baby, choose the tools for clinical evaluation, evaluates and checks if the evaluation is appropriate, testing

their knowledge gained from the use of the game. The game e-Baby is phases each with different compromises breathing preterm virtual higher and lower complexity, must be identified. There are links that the user has the option of shooting each evaluation procedure and share on social network performance. The e-Baby integrates the educational technology SSRNPT, available in the course Clinical Assessment of Preterm Infant in the virtual environment Moodle that includes, among other interactive activities, chat and forum (Fonseca *et al.*, 2013).

The serious game on the oxygenation of preterm infants has the potential to help in a teaching-learning process more flexible, attractive and interactive with simulations that allow the maximum approximation to reality found in the neonatal unit, allowing for a more appropriate training related to clinical assessment of oxygenation a segment of the population at risk, the preterm infant (Fonseca *et al.*, 2013).

The offering of these technologies to the teaching-learning occurs through eletronic-learning, or just e-learning. However, we agree with Gomes (2003) about the existence of a broad and diverse range of definitions and concepts about e-learning, and in defense of the adoption of the term e-learning closer to the pedagogical potential arising from the use of grid technologies in design of distance learning situations based on the interaction and collaboration, towards the construction of meaningful learning.

Thus, we believe that educational technology can make education in nursing more dynamic and attractive, especially if placed in a virtual learning environment. Instigated to check the impact of digital technology and simulated using mannequins, guided by a distance learning platform that also privilege the communication distance and classroom education in nursing, developed the present study.

Figure 1. On the left, home screen of the serious game e-Baby. On the right, the setting, character and virtual buttons of the serious game e-Baby (photo by Fonseca et al., 2013).

2   Scope

To verify the cognitive performance of nursing students in the clinical assessment of premature influenced by the association between formal classes and a virtual learning environment (VLE), and a serious game; (2) To evaluate the satisfaction of the students regarding the use of serious games e-Baby.

3   Methodology

It is a quasi-experiment study with Portuguese nursing students enrolled in the last year of the course (n = 14), this sample, intentional non-probabilistic.

The educational intervention consisted of a summer course semi-presencial, duration: two weeks (60 hours), which used innovative educational technologies e-Baby and Physical Examination of the Preterm baby, addition to lecture, discussion forum and chat on and available in a VLE (Moodle®) and moments of average fidelity laboratory simulation.

Design and Sample: Experiment with the control group (n = 7) and experimental (n = 7). The group's performance was analysed using the Wilcoxon test (performance score = post-test - pre-test) considering α = 0.05. The simulation variable was analysed separately, and a part of the students took the test before the class with simulation and other students took the test after, and there was no statistically significant difference.

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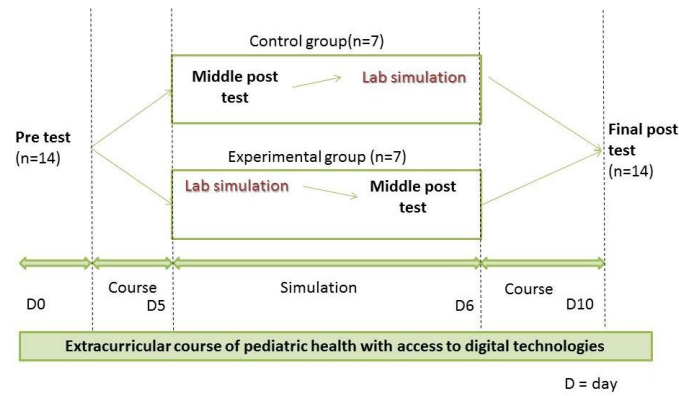
Figure 2. Intervention study: laboratory simulation.

Computerized tool was used to characterize the subjects and the other two for data collection, one for pre- and post-test with 20 objective questions, made exclusively for this study and another questionnaire evaluating subjective (opinion) student on the e-Baby prepared in Likert scale. Qualitative variables were analysed by frequencies and quantitative characterization by descriptive analysis. Approved by the Ethics Committee under number 73-02/2012.

4   Results

It is for descriptive statistics on the theme that learning increasingly improved every step that was evaluated. The Wilcoxon statistical test showed significant difference when comparing the learning obtained from baseline considering all students / n = 14 (p = 0.001).

With respect to performance comparison between the experimental and control groups, there was no statistically significant difference using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney test (p = 0.845).

Table 1. The score (range 0-100) in the study stages.

	Pre test	Middle post test	Final post test
Mean	53.9	68.2	90.35
Standard deviation	15.2	13.5	12.7
Minimum	20	40	55
Maximum	75	90	100
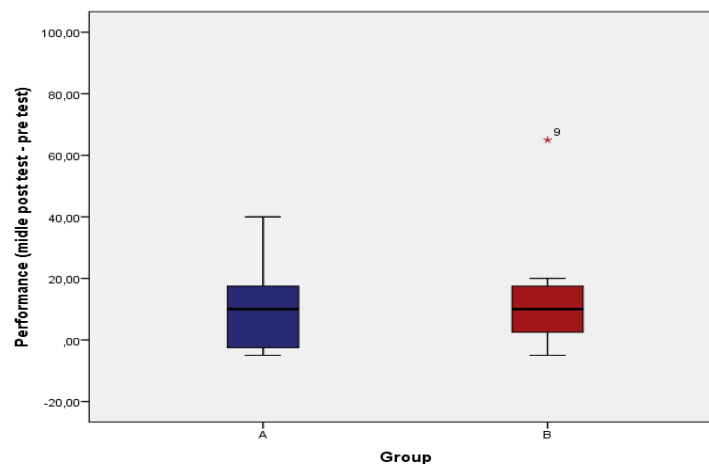
Figure 3. Comparing the performance of group A (experimental) compared to the control group (B).

Another study compared two groups of nurses working in clinical practice, as the knowledge about cognitive intravenous found statistically significant advantage with the group that used the multimedia resource (Tsai *et al.*, 2004). The Generation Y learn more easily when learning relates to technology in building interactive, collective and collaborative knowledge (Gibson, 2009).

The results of evaluation were very satisfactory highlighting that students judged the serious game positively in all aspects evaluated and reinforce that even with all these advantages, the teacher cannot be replaced, ie, the resource consists of a tool auxiliary.

Table 2. Frequencies of responses on the subjective evaluation of the e-Baby by 12 students.

Characteristics of technology e-Baby	SA		A		NAND		D		SD	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	n	%	n	%
Easy to use	7	58,3	5	41,7	0	0	0	0	0	0
Nice	9	75	3	25	0	0	0	0	0	0
Provides immediate feedback	5	41,7	5	41,7	2	16,7	0	0	0	0
Didactic	11	91,7	1	8,3	0	0	0	0	0	0
Provides autonomy	8	66,7	3	25	1	8,3	0	0	0	0
Enables learning the basic human need for oxygenation of preterm infants	7	58,3	5	41,7	0	0	0	0	0	0
I can choose what I want to learn	5	41,7	7	58,3	0	0	0	0	0	0
It would be interesting to have games like this with other themes	10	83,3	2	16,7	0	0	0	0	0	0
Games like this can replace teachers	0	0	0	0	1	8,3	7	58,3	4	33,3
The use of the game helped my learning	8	66,7	4	33,3	0	0	0	0	0	0
I felt motivated to use the game	6	50	6	50	0	0	0	0	0	0
I believe that the access time to the game was satisfying to enrich my learning	7	58,3	4	33,3	1	8,3	0	0	0	0

SA = Strongly agree; A = Agree; NAND = Neither agree nor disagree; D = Disagree; SD = Strongly disagree.

Students also commented on the didactic aspects, ease, flexibility and autonomy that the game offers the student: "Regarding the e-Baby think it's well built, it is easy to access and understand, and is a promoter of learning, since it requires us to be able to apply theoretical knowledge in the game. I think this system of learning is very positive, as it allows to choose which subjects we study and do not "require" to have a schedule, which can ease some people to participate in courses where it is used. "(E3). "The educational technologies used in this course were a plus, since they are easily accessible, is very well organized" (E4). "I believe that educational technology addressed in this course is didactic and raises the interest of stimulating student learning and seeking knowledge autonomously" (E6). "I think this form of learning is very rich because always allows access to information at any time of day and thus combine our time for this type of training. It is relevant and organized with some logic "(E7).

The concept of choice of what you want to learn is complemented with the autonomy granted by the game to the student during learning, since the free use and timeless tool is also added to the possibilities of using individual or group. The autonomy was reported by 93% of the sample (n = 13) demonstrated to be a significant advantage of the tool and also very important from the perspective of valuing the learner as an active member and principal of the teaching-learning (Williams, Iglesias & Barak, 2008).

Educational technologies beyond the quality of the content, appearance motivates the use, makes browsing pleasant and stimulates the search for new knowledge, contributing to the teaching-learning process through the act of awakening on user creativity, curiosity and motivation for the study based on positive emotion across the tool (Norman, 2008). The serious game on the oxygenation of preterm infants has the potential to help in a teaching-learning process more flexible, attractive and interactive with simulations that allow the maximum approximation to reality found in the neonatal unit, allowing for a more appropriate training related to clinical assessment of oxygenation a segment of the population at risk, the preterm infant.

5   Conclusions

The use of technology showed a statistically significant difference in the participants, the technology can be an important tool in education as a means of teaching innovation and motivation of learning, considering the performance of students and their satisfaction in using the serious game and virtual learning environment.

The summer course in its format robust as the incorporation of innovative strategies and tools and methodological framework has contributed greatly to student learning in the subject. Furthermore, it was evidenced by the comparison between groups that simulation laboratory analyzed alone had no impact on differences between groups, reinforcing the proposed association between computer simulation and laboratory, and other tools and teaching strategies that helped in building collective knowledge.

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Innovative Curricula and Teachers Training

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Abstract

Teachers participation in innovative curricula is not an easy attitude for the majority of instructors, for their background and their culture are grounded on traditional curricular organizations. The resistance of instructors remains as the main challenge for implantation and consolidation of innovative curricula in college education. This fact demands special care towards activities of selection of a faculty which is going to think and to accomplish an innovative project, a time of awareness for this faculty to comprehend, assume and compromise with the accomplishment of the new project, a plan for continuing training serving those teachers who choose to participate in the project offering support, advice and collaboration on their everyday teaching activities with their new students, in the analysis and referral of possible problems or difficulties that may take place. Researching for aspects of curricular change in College Teaching, the FORPEC – Grupo Formação de Professores e Currículos Inovadores no Ensino Superior (Teachers Training and College Teaching Innovative Curricula Group) – from the Post-graduation in Education Program: Curriculum of Pontífica Universidade Católica de São Paulo, discusses since 2004 the centrality of teachers training process as mainstay of an innovative curricular build, and in this case specifically we focus on teachers training in an innovative curriculum in the law area. This research was accomplished in the years 2010 – 2012 in a Brazilian Law Course which started a new curricular model in 2005. The methodology, of qualitative approach, has as data collect instruments documental analysis and semi-structured interviews with methodology coordinators of the course in study. As result we could identify the institutionalization of a process of initial and continuing training established to give teachers conditions to carry forward the new curriculum. The curricular design previously outlined, strong institutional support, instructors' selection, continuous assessment of a pedagogical coordination, a permanent forum of debates about teaching and learning processes and the preparation of teaching material with active methodologies made up the foundation of this innovative project. The basic condition for an innovative curriculum to be carried forward is to rely on the participation of those who will build it since its beginning. The feeling of belonging to the project is fundamental to the experience and work in new curricular models.

Keywords: innovative curricula; teachers training; higher education.

1. Introduction

Innovative Curricular Paradigms and teachers training for these curricula in Graduation Courses in Superior Teaching have been the focus of studies and quests of the research group FORPEC (Formação de Professores e Paradigmas Curriculares Inovadores no Ensino Superior, Teachers Training and College Teaching Innovative Curricula Group) from the Post-graduation in Education Program, Curriculum of Pontifica Universidade Católica, São Paulo, Brazil, since 2004.

We started from a basic conception of curriculum which abridges how the experience of a set of knowledge, competencies, abilities, and values organized in an integrated mode which aim the education of the apprentices in our Educative Institutions to a society contextualized in a given historical, political, economic and social time and space.

The notion of curriculum presented encompasses the organization of learning in cognitive area, and other fundamental aspects of the human personality like knowledge, competencies, abilities, values, attitudes; it points out the idea that the apprenticeships be built along the interaction between students and teachers, by means of practices and intentionally planned activities so that they happen in an active and effective mode.

The building of a curriculum in its social dimension takes in consideration the changes the changes that are being operated, the current needs of service to the population, the new professions, as well as the changes that the traditional professions are experiencing due to the integration between two or more areas of knowledge.

The possibility of transformation of a curriculum also put its constructors in a perspective that allows scanning the horizons in search of new possibilities, challenging the limits of what's established and thinking an education that answers to the current and future demands or our generations.

2. Innovative Curricular Paradigms in Graduation Courses in Higher Education

When dealing with Innovative Curricular Paradigms in Graduation Courses in Higher Education, starting from our researches, we outlined the conception of innovation in college teaching with a wide and multidimensional concept, as a set of changes which affect key points and constitutive axes of university teaching organization, caused by changes in the society or by reflections on conceptions intrinsic to the mission of College Teaching, and that turns itself over to important and fundamental aspects of a new educational proposal, concerning the whole University. We consider innovations and changes that seek to translate in the Institutions life the current reflections that are rethinking teachers training and its role or mission in our times.

Curriculum conceptions studied and proposed for authors such as Moreira A.F.B, Sacristán, G., Lopes A.C. , Macedo E.F., Apple, M., Young, M., although having a polysemic connotation, always present aspects on which curricular innovation could not be disregarded.

Thus, historical and social contextualization of the society and of the educative institution, the needs of our youths, dimensions of time, space and circumstances;

the temporal and historical emergencies, learning with focus on several dimensions which constitute a person and from whose development we are depended to work with the education of our citizens: development of cognitive dimensions; cognitive-emotional, abilities and competences development, as well as of attitudes and values which pervade the citizen's activities;

appreciation and integration of different areas of knowledge (for multi- and interdisciplinarity) on the quest of understanding of natural and human phenomena and of people's and collectivity's existential situations as well as its application in vital student's situations and experiences;

methodology review, privileging strategies which favor student's participation, group interaction and interaction with the teacher, collaboration in the building of knowledge and practical apprenticeship;

rethinking of the evaluation process integrated to the apprenticeship process, as motivating and encourager element of that last, with continue feedbacks, correcting, offering the student new learning opportunities, encouraging him to the pursuit of new ways which allow attributing a major sense to the process of teaching and learning;

review of teaching action for a pedagogic mediation concerning the students, proposing learning goals, mediating experiences and knowledge systematization, planning new learning situations, acting in partnership and co-responsibility with students and articulating educational spaces and times, co-articulating the collective experience of building professional training;

change in the student's role, which takes on the role of subject of his training process, participative and pro-active, partner and co-responsive, co-articulator of the collective construction of his education. Incentive to students' attitudes change will be made by means of concrete activities which ensure him and demand of him participation, labor, research, dialogue and debate with other students and with the teacher;

exploitation of class as space and time of studies, debates, researches, discussions, contact with specialists;

the commitment for Institutional Management which assumes the proposal and implantation of a curricular redesign with all its consequences and needed changes. The commitment and the engagement of managers of an Educative Institution is indispensable for success of a curricular transformation due to the support that is expected form it to plan, effectivate and consolidate a curriculum.

On this direction, the Research Group FORPEC, as specified by Masetto (2013) has performed researches which included Mc Master University's studies, in Hamilton, Canada, which started its innovation around the 1980's with a PBL (Problem Based Learning) curriculum as a health area training paradigm present in some medical schools abroad and also in Brazil. We investigated the cooperative curriculum at Escola Politécnica of Universidade de São Paulo (USP), projects in health area at Universidade Federal de São Paulo (UNIFESP) substantiating that in a training and interpersonal curriculum proposal integrating students and teachers from different specialties in health area with teachers of other related areas. Still considering the health area, Universidade Anhembi Morumbi has created its Escola das Clências da Saúde (Health Sciences School) with seemed curricular concerning: integration between

courses and focus on health, on people's welfare and quality of life. We researched also Universidade Federal do Paraná – Litoral with a courses and university project in a paradigm of curriculum by projects (Masetto, 2013).

3. Teacher Training for Innovative Curricula

In this line of researches, it has been found that intrinsic to all curricular proposals which continue on their way and reach their building, implantation and operationalization goals there is a fundamental element: a coherent teacher training project integrated to the innovation that they would like to implement. It has also been found that some projects which started as innovative and could not keep such faced serious problems with permanence and commitment of teachers coming afterwards.

This fact has constituted itself as a start for FORPEC to initiate a wide project to investigate explicitly this issue: how does the constitution and upbuilding of innovative and successful project faculty occurs. What measure of attention has been given to teachers who make up and participate in an innovative project, how has their choice been made, which modality of training was developed towards them so that they understand the innovative project, assume a commitment with this project and feel competent to accomplish it? How has teachers assessment taken place in the implementation of an innovative project?

It's noticeable not only the importance and the centrality of the role of teachers training in all curricular innovations investigated, but most of all is investigated which elements constitute a process of teacher training directed to innovation, and teachers integration on the building and operationalization of curricular innovation.

One of the projects investigated by FORPEC targeting to discuss curricular innovation and the training of its faculty was the Law Course of a Private Institution in the State of São Paulo, Brazil.

In 2001 in São Paulo and Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, the focused University made an open research to substantiate the building of a curriculum to the area of Law. Based on this initial diagnosis, the Law Course established as a goal the creation of a graduation course which counted with an innovative educational environment, in a college which could meet the new demands of companies environment and to train professionals to the academic area and to be public policy makers, all of them bringing features of the new professional needed profile. In that sense, the new course project was instituted based on the following premises:

i) high degree of sinergy and cooperation between the courses of Law, Economy and Administration; ii) strong interdisciplinarity; iii) intensive study with exclusively dedicated students; iv) stimulus to research in the law area; v) emphasis in training for basic abilities associated to selective deepening in some issues; vi) integration between graduation and post-graduation; vii) stimulus to national and international interchanges; viii) stimulus to the use of new technologies, teaching techniques and didacticism; ix) stimulus to research and to reflection about the institutional models and law models about a national project; x) flexibility and freedom in the setting of curricular grid for students, so that identification of their real vocations and their interests was stimulated (PDI 2007 – 2011, p. 17).

According to professor José Garcez Ghirardi's understanding, one of the "touchstones" of this curriculum's proposal in focus was the breaking with the so called "enciclopaedistic perspective of law teaching, it being understood by the term a conception which privileges the mnemonic accumulation of alleged contents and theories, considered indispensable to the training of the future bachelor" (Ghirardi, 2007, p.4).

As a Law Course which intended to innovate on what concerns the law teaching, it proposed to a rupture that pointed to several other possible ways: the goals were bolder and ambitious than covering the positive Brazilian contents planning, to lead the student to an autonomy in the formulation of solutions with responsibility by the rigor of his own law argumentations.

The proposed reformulation tried to ensure the student the arising of major intellectual curiosity, major critical analysis capability and major freedom in his academic and professional training proposal with an analytic instrumental which enabled him to face law issues and to exercise major autonomy in the building of apprenticeships.

The main changes in the new curriculum involved initially not only the contents, but the redesign of priorities; the reorganization of titles; the introduction of Law correlated disciplines and the new methodologies which gave the teaching the possibility of a greater familiarity with knowledge and greater interaction with the faculty. "Each year of the course was thought together, as an integrated and organic cycle in the student's training. Thematic concerns of each discipline are conceived year by year as parts which fit together with the others in the same cycle" (Sunfeld et al, 2007, p. 13).

Cycles differ from each other by the degree of deepening which they confer to a selected set of issues which can be repeated in posteriors cycles, but always with another approaching and treatment. Concern with an enciclopaedic sequence of issues is left, privileging, though, some contents which will be revisited in progressive degrees of detailing and problematization (Sunfeld et al, 2007).

Curricular organization of course was structured in four cycles; i) First cycle (full time): The organization of the world and of the Law; ii) Second cycle (full time): The great laws; iii) Third cycle (full time): Advanced analysis; iv) Fourth cycle (variable timetable): Specialization.

Aware that it's not enough to make changes in a course pedagogical proposal or in official documents, new curriculum organization team was careful enough to previously elaborate the courseware adequate to the innovative project features, adapted for each first year discipline from the pedagogical project curriculum, as alternative to the traditional Law teaching handbooks. New methods and contents that were alternative in relation to the already existing ones were also tried and new pedagogical options infused a different conception of law teaching.

Although having performed a teachers selection process in harmony with the curricular choice and nearly two years before the first class, teachers were already in an initial training process to innovation, implementation of a new curricular model demanded a pedagogical training program which was institutionally established.

Collective performing of a pedagogical action is an aspect to which Francisco Imbernón (2010) points when he discusses issues related to educative innovation and teaching profession. The author points out that innovation loses a good percentage of insertion and improvement when it's produced isolated and is converted in a simple personal experience. Thus, he believes n the possibility of a collective protagonism and, therefore, institutional, implying in a new conception of the institution and of training, immersed in processes of research and reflection that are capable of modifying institutional, social, professional and educative contexts.

The innovative course also opted for the introduction of a Methodology Coordinator to assess, subsidiary and auxiliary new and veteran teachers, promoting continuous apprenticeship actions in the educational environment. Beyond seminars, forums, discussions with national and international speakers, support to teachers' participation in external events, a weekly time for training workshop with all teachers of the course was established.

4. Conclusion

Performing this research brought us two very important results: we identified an Innovative Law Course project containing all features we defend in our concept of Innovation in Higher Education and we found out, as fundamental element of its success, the actuation of his faculty and its administration. Besides, we could find and analyze a teachers training process from its selection, on its initial training and afterwards on its continued training which allows the sustaining and the evolution of this curriculum during ten years of its existence. We believe there is not an only formula, neither an only model of curriculum. We know other training processes aiming to implement innovations in several training areas of professional and Teachers Training. But what we also know is that creation of innovative curricula is not enacted from the top hierarchy downwards and no one performs an educational innovation without preparing and supporting teachers in this accomplishment.

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Assessment for learning in higher education: a case study in the Course of Law in a Portuguese university.

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to understand the learning assessment practices as experienced by a teacherher students of a Law Course of in a public Portuguese university. The data was collected by means of 20 hours classroom observations conducted during a 2012 semester and by means of interviews carried on with the teacher and students. Data analyses were supported by the theoretical work developed by Pacheco (2005), Zabalza (2005), Fernandes (2009). The narratives reveal that there is a higher prevalence in developing a school curriculum centered on a technical paradigm, according to which learning is submitted to the assessment and final grade. Besides, data reveal that assessment is summative-oriented, that relationships between students and teacher are experienced as hierarchical and horizontal, and that power relationships mediate the processes of teaching, learning and assessment. The research concluded that the curricular traditions of that Course, as well as the teacher training (combined with other indicators) affect the teaching, learning and assessment in very specific ways, considering the epistemological nature of that specific knowledge domain. In other words, the way how to conceive these domains is strongly intertwined with conceptions of scientific knowledge within such Course. For this reason the assessment still governs the processes of teaching and learning and that it is mainly oriented by summative function at the expense of the formative one.

Keywords: assessment for learning; higher education; Law Course.

Introduction

This work is about a qualitative research with characteristics of a case study because it aims to characterize and understand the assessment for learning developed in the Course of Law in a Portuguese public university. We tried to answer the following question: how is the assessment for learning developed? The narratives were constructed during one semester of the year 2012 from interviews with a teacher and eleven students and 20 hours of observations in the classroom of a Curricular Unit (UC) which stands for a curriculum structure. The narratives were constructed based on an investigative array and guidelines that conducted the construction, organization and data analyses process. Initially it was produced partial narratives for students and teacher's interviews separately and another one for observations. Later it was built a global narrative in which we crossed the narratives and observations in order to integrate them, which gave us support to a content analysis on the assessment of learning from the contributions of Bardin (2009). We chose a discussion of the learning assessment by thematic unit based on a theoretical framework as a way to best describe and analyze it.

1 Assessment for Learning in Law Course

The Assessment is a multidimensional and complex field, therefore it's always controversial for raising contradictory issues with regard to their goals, functions, agents' role, results and consequences so far as to raise doubts about its usefulness, legitimacy, credibility, rigor and purpose and what makes us think on a given assessment process that can be understood as a fair assessment. For Javier Román and Castilla (2011) a fair assessment is inclusive, equitable, participatory, democratic, non-repressive, it seeks for reflection and improvement. Surely, if it is unfair and "has many faces, and his face scarred '(Moreno-Olivos, 2010) it matters to us reflect not only on its development, but above all, its implications and influences to students, teachers and university institutions. The learning assessment, stated as one of the domains to the process of teaching and learning that aims at improving learning (Fernandes, 2009), is very important to build a successful professional performance because it concerns self-esteem and students' studies quality which cannot be put aside in the educational process in higher education. However, it seems that it must be reformulated as argued by the participants of this research due to its predominantly summative character.

It was noticeable in this study that students, who are the main subjects of learning process assessment, do not participate in the design and planning of it, such tasks are restricted to the teacher. Excluded from these tasks, students are left as the object of this assessment, opposing the vogue that the more actively engage with the assessment process in terms of design and development the more effective will be their learning (Stiggins, 2002 cited by Moreno-Olivos, 2007). In this sense, the assessment is far from being for students a "fuente de motivación para aprender" (Moreno-Olivos, 2007, 2010). The literature points out that when students have the opportunity to influence the design and development of assessment they come to understand more clearly and properly its purpose, its criteria, its formative nature, the importance of participating actively in the teaching and learning activities because they feel responsible and co-workers of these processes. There is still a strong presence of the summative assessment at the UC observed fulfilling a function of monitoring and regulating the students' learning in order to identify what they have learned, and consequently, what they need to know more and better. This assessment was conducted after the completion of a study period as a punctual manner, established at key points in the school calendar, with great privilege for tests and examinations, by which one can register, prove and shows the result for learning by means of grades or ratings letting students do little to enhance them. The terminal character of this assessment lies in the fact that students find themselves almost always unable to redo them if needed or at their will in order to improve their learning. With this perspective, assessment is an isolated teaching and learning process associated with specific moments of assessment with classificatory function, since the evaluative data had a direct impact on students' final grade.

Formative assessment lies in a prominent place in the teacher's imaginary; however it does not lie in a prominent place in the area of teaching and learning. Although the teacher admits and defends the assessment process in a formative perspective, integrated and articulated in the processes of teaching and learning, as defended by Fernandes (2009), she hardly develops it in this perspective, because it is still noticeable the hegemony of summative assessment as a determinant to assign a quality by means of grades and ratings to the students' learning and absolute condition to substantiate and justify the results of formative assessment. Therefore it is not surprising that the teacher understands assessment as a synonym of measurement, although she recognizes that the assessment goes beyond this point, perhaps because it lacks a conceptual basis of these areas due to her neglected pedagogical knowledge during her formation, an important condition for a teaching quality in higher education as reflected Zabalza (2005). It is in this confrontation in which one can observe that the assessment moves between two worlds with very different functions: one corresponding mainly to a social function that is the selection, classification and certification, which control and accountability form the basis of this function; another one less important is its pedagogical function where it is formative, feedbacking and motivational on the students' learning (Moreno-Olivos, 2007).

To work the summative and formative assessment function in a inseparable and complementary way is still a major challenge for the teacher, once this is not a standard practice, although she recognizes the negative consequences for the student's learning when these functions are worked dissociated and without coordination with the teaching and learning processes, thus she keeps herself away from a formative and integrated perspective of such

processes. As there isn't a deliberate and systematic approach to articulate students' performance assessment to the teaching and learning processes, assessment reveals itself as an independent process with self-governing because the relationship between the results obtained by them and the teaching and learning practices developed in the classroom is not visible.

In the UC observed it is clear that assessment functions as a mechanism to balance the relation between the teacher and the students (hierarchical and power relationships); education (it's only taught what will be the object of assessment, being balanced and developed by planning formal assessments, i.e., it is set that the priority for education, when, how and for what purpose) and learning (it's only studied what is the object of assessment, which will be required and they invest in their learning more effort and dedication as the evaluative events come closer) to the point that assessment governs them. The assessment influence on learning is evident when students take advantages of mechanisms to manage their studies by selecting the most valued knowledge by the teacher for the purpose of learning and this way excluding others not so relevant, because they are sure those are the ones that will be taken as a reference in the assessment process according to the final verdict: ratings publication. Therefore, assessment guides, subordinates and conditions the learning and teaching. This situation was also studied by Perrenoud (2007) and Moreno-Olivos (2010), making students depending on it, guiding the curriculum development since all that are outside the scope of the assessment is a "waste of time and investment" as narrated some students in this study.

The tasks and events for learning summative assessment analyzed did not vary although their purposes were focused exclusively on rating (grading and classifications) and certify (attest learning due to approve or disapprove), justified by the teacher as "a practice heavily dependent on university regulations " which reproduces an evaluative culture predominantly restricted to tests and exams. Students conceive tests and exams with a strong tendency to get good grades and classifications, which features a harmful practical assessment because this cannot be summarized to the functions of classification and certification. Such examinations and tests were made strongly based on a technical curriculum paradigm and on a memorialistic education (Pacheco, 2005) from which are required univocal answers, worked individually, without consultation, in order to collect objective information instead of what was supposedly learned by the students. For students the assessment events guide their methods of study and learning, and for the teacher it is a "typical classical assessment." With this approach, we see a tendency to show more evaluative learning outcomes than actually the process in which they are develop. Students think that "if one varies such events", it would be good for their learning because they believe that "they would be fairer and less threatening than traditional examinations." For the teacher, such events need to be too demanding so that students can show their mastery in a greater number of "complex skills". A demanding assessment has its implication for students who are forced to strive in their studies to succeed in grades and ratings, what "takes many hours of study to demonstrate what they have learned." In some cases, it also shows implications on the teacher's work regarding the evaluative accounting needs to be performed in order to reach a given result of students' learning. Although she has not varied her assessment practices of summative nature, the teacher explains that she develops them in a continuous and procedural manner.

The feedback was considered by the participants of this research an important element in the assessment process as a means to regulate learning, which goes back to what Fernandes (2009) emphasizes about its main purposes: to communicate to the students their status in relation to learning and orientations that are supposed to help them overcoming any difficulties. However, what was evident was the supremacy of the first objective at the expense of the second, that's why we agree with Alves *et al* (2012) when they claim that feedback should not be limited to the information on the work done and the students classification. Such communication was done in some informal moments in a punctual manner (during the end of a learning activity where students were asked to answer questions made by the teacher) and formal (releasing grades / ratings after the final application of tests and examinations). The publication of such results, even though causing dissatisfaction in some students did not generate any hypothesis so that they might ask for an improvement of grades (hence improving learning), instead they conform themselves to the results. This practice contributes little to the fulfillment of assessment formative function. However, in the latter case, students were aware of their learning results too late to take any action that could re-orient their studies and learning in order to improve them, this feedback perspective helps only to inform the learning level making assessment performs its certification function.

It's clear that the feedback given by the teacher wasn't enough to support students' reflection and to provide them with skills that should contribute to improve learning. As long as from this feedback will result a given measure, the students agree that the assessment results are expressed in numbers since they claim to have difficulties to interpret them differently. A most likely explanation for the students' understanding lies in the fact that, they're conditioned with this type of assessment practice that has its origins in basic and secondary education, they get used to a given assessment model from which they cannot keep away from the conceptions and orientations that regulates

them and they cannot have another attitude when they face models of a more formative nature. Communicating assessment results using grades and ratings publication is part of Portuguese academic culture institutions and it is a practice found at the UC analyzed, in this sense when students are faced with formative feedback which are not expressed by a valued measurement, it seems like they're not appraised since they objectively don't notice the quality of their learning and what it is necessary to improve them, if needed. This explains why if there isn't any objective parameters and no measures references about the evaluative results, students require from the teacher a "grade", a "rank", a number to know with precision and clarity on what evaluative scale they found themselves .

The feedback resulting from the assessment process should be timely, clear and understandable to the subjects (Olivos-Moreno, 2007; Fernandes, 2009) otherwise it does not fulfill its feedback function for the teaching and learning processes, a condition that was not always followed by the analyzed processes since they emphasized much more on grades and ratings publication at the expense of the accomplishment of one of the most important assessment pedagogical functions which is the opportunity of " los evaluados identifiquen y su reconozcan las frotalezas de su aprendizaje y lo que aún les falta por lograr" (Moreno-Olivos, 2007), whereas objective conditions are available. Another issue related to this function lies in the fact that the teacher did not take advantage of the assessment results to reflect on her pedagogical practice with possibilities to re-orientate the teaching-learning process, if needed, what makes the assessment process apart from teaching. Thus, this informative assessment function only fulfills the role of confirming publicly the level where is located the students' learning.

It should also be noted that self-assessment (teacher / student) and hetero-assessment among students were not applied. This is justified by the teacher claiming that there are no records in the regulations of the Organic Unit that hosts the course that could support this procedure, or even because the teacher doesn't recognize in these evaluative practices opportunities that students can also self-regulate their learning when they have the opportunity to express their learning's content and quality, and the efforts and motivation used for that.

Final Considerations

The teaching, learning and assessment processes worked continuously, fraternal, collaborative and cooperative can help students not only to learn more and better but rather they can have certainty that they feel able to learn more and much better too. In this understanding, the participating teacher in this research, far from using assessment as a means of improving student's learning, she can assume the role of a formation teacher instead of the role of examiner-teacher as cites Perrenoud (2007). Certainly it is necessary for a higher education institution to develop training actions for their teachers where the pedagogical area is also central as well as the scientific field has traditionally been valued. Such actions may create a series of studies and learning related to teachers considering changing conceptions and pedagogical practices of teaching, learning and assessment as well as more relevant curriculum changing to a curriculum critical perspective, which probably would keep them away from a teaching job based more on intuition, experience and convenience as emphasizes Fernandes and Gaspar (2013).

Data analyses reveals that learning is dependent on a tradition based more on the teacher experience and intuition where pedagogical knowledge needs to be invested in terms of formation as a university teacher. It is evident at the UC analyzed a relevant teaching curriculum development centered on a technical paradigm in which learning is subjected to assessment and grade; assessment is developed mainly driven by the summative function at the expense of formative one; the power relations mediate the teaching, learning and assessment process, they're seen as if they were entities of different worlds as put by Gardner (2006). For this reason, it's not surprising that assessment still governs the teaching and learning processes.

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Teaching, Learning and Assessment in a Portuguese University: The Perceptions of Students and Teachers

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Abstract

In the context of the Bologna Process and the massification of higher education in Portugal during the last decades, massive retention and success problems became apparent. The urgent need of a pedagogic and curricular paradigm change gained the spotlight with the support of educational research. This communication shows the results of a survey answered by teachers and students of a Portuguese University, corresponding to the 3rd phase of the *Avena Project – Assessment, Teaching and Learning in Higher Education in Portugal and Brazil: Realities and Perspectives* (Fernandes, Rodrigues & Nunes, 2012) *. This text presents the analysis of 3.128 students' and 438 teachers' responses, belonging to the 49 first degree courses of the 10 faculties and institutes of that University. The results reveal differences in the perceptions depending on the year of study and the scientific field, suggesting the weight of different epistemological and pedagogical traditions, as well as similarities in the curricular organization.

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Key-words: Teaching; Assessment; Learning; Curriculum; Higher Education.

1 Introdution

Since the 90's of the last century that research on higher education reached the top of the national concerns. Pushed by the massification of higher education and the raising levels of academic failure, studies started focusing on students and their problems, as well as on the interventions concerning them. Only more recently the educative institution came to focus and, finally, also the inner classroom (Rodrigues, Peralta & Nunes, 2011).

2 Problem and guiding questions

This context, the Bologna Process and the research on teaching, learning and assessment in higher education, pointed to the need of a pedagogical paradigm shift. Although, such a change seems problematic, because of the lack of teachers' pedagogical professional training at this level in Portugal, on one hand, and of the weak support provided by the Portuguese educational research, which rarely integrates teaching, learning and assessment features, on the other (Rodrigues, Nunes, Devesa & Fera, 2012).

This fact justified the *Avena Project – Assessment, Teaching and Learning in Higher Education in Portugal and Brazil: Realities and Perspectives* (Fernandes, Rodrigues & Nunes, 2012), which in its 3th phase includes a survey that became the source for this presentation.

This communication is bounded by the following guiding questions: Which teaching, learning and assessment features are shown in the perceptions of teachers and students from different scientific fields? And which teaching, learning and assessment features are reflected in the perceptions of students from different years of study?

3 Methodology

The survey used a questionnaire that, apart from the sociodemographic items (the only different for teachers and students), includes 45 questions, divided in 3 groups of 15, referring to teaching, learning and assessment. These items comprehend the facets of the *traditional teaching paradigm* (lecturing, memorizing and final exam assessment), as well as those of the *constructivist paradigm*, focused on student's activity, formative assessment, and self-assessment and self-regulated learning. The answers were provided on a 4 level Likert type scale: Totally Disagree (TD); Disagree (D); Agree (A); Totally Agree (TA).

The questionnaire was applied online to the population (with the support of the Rectorate Quality Assurance Office), achieving a 20% response rate, corresponding to 3.128 students and 438 teachers from the 49 first degree courses of the 10 faculties/institutes of the University. The global consistency of the instrument was 0,9.

Comparisons focused on the frequency distributions of teachers' and students' answers and the statistical analysis used the Kruskal-Wallis test.

4 Results

Due to length limitations, it is not possible to include the tables with the comparative data (displayed item by item, per questionnaire domain: teaching; learning; assessment). So we will restrain to the description of the core pattern that synthesizes the results achieved.

We will start by comparing the scientific fields, which include: Arts and Humanities; Health Sciences; Sciences and Technologies; Social Sciences (Fernandes, Rodrigues & Nunes, 2012).

4.1. Teachers and students perceptions by scientific field

The comparison between students and teachers, even though revealing significant statistic differences, points generally to a common answer pattern, reflecting a similar perception, with few nuances (Rodrigues, Soromenho & Devesa, 2013). For this reason we've decided to present here a joint summary of the teachers´ and students' results, instead of separated analysis. For the same reason, before presenting the comparisons by scientific field, in each subsection, we present a summary of the general sense of data, upon which stand out the (frequently small) differences between fields.

4.1.1. Teaching features perceived per scientific field

The answers point to the prevalence of lecturing, with students listening and taking notes. However, about 2/3 of respondents also refer the utilization of diverse teaching resources and the opportunity to participate on several activities. Nevertheless, only half of the respondents recognized the students' participation in the organization and promotion of activities and the use of different classroom work dynamics.

Teaching appears to be essentially teacher centered, since the activities in which students take bigger organization and leading responsibilities are less common. Still, they have some place in the classroom. Besides that, teachers are generally available to answer questions, help students beyond class time to overcome their difficulties, and encourage them to relate knowledge and solve problems. Though students are more critical than teachers about teaching features, they generally considered that classes provided the learning supposed by the syllabuses.

Against this general background, some particularities stand out in different scientific fields, probably as the consequence of diverse pedagogical and curricular traditions. We will try to focus on those upon which teachers and students most converge.

In Sciences and Technologies, as in the Health Sciences, stands out the somewhat bigger use of several teaching resources and the less participation of students on the organization and promotion of class activities (here Health Science's teachers disagree), alongside with a greater weight of lecturing. Yet, they differ on the use of diverse

teaching methodologies and on the help provided to students beyond classes (higher on Sciences and Technologies and lower on Health Sciences). Anyway, the general pattern suggests that teaching is more centered on the teacher and on the subject matter and that activities are more programmed and controlled by teachers (which consider that create more opportunities to learn what is inscribed in the syllabuses). But in the Health Sciences teachers seem to have less time to assist students after classes.

By contrast, in Arts and Humanities, as in the Social Sciences, stands out the less use of diverse teaching resources, a bigger variety of activities (not noticed by teachers) and a stronger participation of students on the organization and promotion of class activities, which diminishes the weight of lecturing. This pattern suggests more syllabus flexibility and more inclination to students' (creative) participation.

4.1.2. Learning factors perceived per scientific field

The items which refer conditions that promote a better learning receive a general agreement by the respondents (even if there are some statistically significant differences between scientific fields). Among these factors are: regular proposal of tasks, mutual aid environment, diversity of teaching resources, encouragement to participate in activities, diversity of classroom work dynamics and continuous assessment. Besides that, about 60% of the respondents feel that teachers support students to learn autonomously beyond classes and assist them in their learning. Moreover, to the majority, students engage actively on tasks and use the assessment information to improve learning. In this matter, teachers are more critical then students. On the other hand, students are more critical about the structuring of classes in order to verify what have been learned.

Notwithstanding, they all consider that students learn because they have to study for the tests/exams (but in a lower degree in Arts and Humanities), although they tend to recognize (but less so in the Health Sciences) that it is not a sufficient way to learn what is expected by the syllabuses. Thus, there seems to be some kind of conflict between the assessment strategies and the factors that lead to a better learning and even to the learning prescribed by the syllabuses. The influence that tests and exams have on learning come, probably, from the weight they have on the final student grading (shown ahead).

The comparison between scientific fields in the more descriptive learning items (which do not focus the opinion about what causes a better learning) corroborates some differences and resemblances noticed before about teaching.

Sciences and Technologies stands out for the support and monitoring of students, including beyond classes, contrasting with the Health Sciences, which is also the field in which students have less opportunities to verify their learning in the classroom, despite being the one where they more actively engage in the learning tasks.

Furthermore, in Sciences and Technologies, as in the Health Sciences, students learn more by studying for the tests, while in Social Sciences and Arts and Humanities they consider more that tests are not enough to learn what is predicted by the syllabuses. This suggests more open syllabuses (and learning) in these last two fields, less dependent on previously and strictly defined content considered as indispensable.

4.1.3. Assessment conceptions and practices perceived per scientific field

The answers on this matter reveal the weight of final summative assessment on the assessment's conceptions and practices, and also on learning. According to the respondents, assessment is mostly used to assign grades to students and is essentially a process of administering tests and assigning grades. Tests are, besides that, the most important elements on assigning grades, although, to the majority (at least 60%), some diversity of assessment techniques and instruments is also used. Howsoever, more than 50% of students and more than 40% of teachers don't see tests as the better way to assess learning and competence. So, in their point of view, tests do not favor an adequate learning (as seen above) neither its proper assessment.

On the other hand, less than half of the students (and a bit more teachers) acknowledges that assessment is used to guide students to learn better and a little more feels that assessment is used to help students to perceive their difficulties and/or progress, or recognizes that it is used by students to guide the way they study.

Though the assessment criteria are generally known by students, only ¼ of respondents considers that students are frequently involved in situations in which they have to assess their own and/or their colleagues' work, being a bit higher the number who admits that teachers discuss the assessment system and process with students during the semester. As teaching, or even more, assessment is an activity that lays essentially in teachers' hands and which is less shared with students, except for the feedback. However, about 50% of students (and a little more of teachers) concedes that there are given opportunities to clarify and question the judgments issued.

The comparison between scientific fields shows, nevertheless, distinctive traits, agreeing in everything with what it already revealed about teaching and learning.

In Social Sciences and in Arts and Humanities, assessment comprehends a larger diversity of techniques and instruments (only according to students), is more continuous, more discussed with students, and more used to make students analyze and reflect about their learning. In these fields, tests are less recognized by students as the better way to assess what they know and are able to do.

On the opposite, in the Health Sciences and in Sciences and Technologies, assessment is less continuous and less discussed with students, and tests have a bigger weight on grading. In this context, assessment ends perceived essentially as a process of administering tests and exams to assign grades. As teaching and learning, assessment seems more uniform, pre-programmed and strictly controlled by teachers in these two scientific fields.

In the overall, this comparison, between scientific fields, shows different scientific, epistemological and pedagogical traditions, which shape and articulate logically the teaching, learning and assessment practices.

In fact, there seems to be scientific fields (such as Sciences and Technologies and Health Sciences) where syllabuses are strongly structured and pre-defined, which content must be completely acquired and controlled, with more teacher centered teaching and lecturing, pre-programmed and uniform learning tasks, and assessment by tests and exams, that homogenize certification, as well as learning. Fields where the weight of accumulated knowledge seems to imposes itself, overdetermining training.

Quite differently, there appears to be other scientific fields (as Social Sciences and Arts and Humanities) where syllabuses, teaching and assessment sound more open to students and their participation, seeming less uniforms, imposed and indisputable, somewhat more centered on the students and appealing to their creativity, autonomous elaboration and construction, setting a training context with a greater balance between initiative and control.

4.2. Students perception by year of study

Besides the scientific field, another curricular dimension which we think might have influence on teaching, learning and assessment is the year of study, assuming a progressive organization of training, going in the way of deepening, specialization and operationalization (of practice and professionalism), as it approaches the end of the course.

Once only the students' questionnaire had an item inquiring about the year of study, this analysis is confined to their answers and their perception points in the sense of a progressive curricular disinvestment on the pedagogical features of training, more noticed on the last years (3rd/4th) of the courses.

4.2.1. Teaching features perceived during the course

In what concerns teaching, for students, as they progress through the courses, teaching methodologies become less varied and the teaching and class organization yield less the learning aimed by the syllabuses, students are less encouraged to articulate knowledge to solve problems and teachers use less the assessment results to change their teaching methodologies.

4.2.2. Learning factors perceived during the course

As far as learning is concerned, and as progressing through the courses, students feel that they learn more and more by studying to the tests and exams, have less opportunity to verify in the classroom what they have learned and are less assisted and guided by teachers. So, they receive less assessment information to improve learning.

4.2.3. Assessment conceptions and practices perceived during the course

In this respect, the students' perception of assessment during the course reinforces the image drawn before. Tests grow their weight on grading and assessment becomes less continuous, less diversified, less discussed, less used to guide or to make students analyze ant reflect upon their learning, or to understand their difficulties and progresses, engaging them less on self-assessment or peer-assessment procedures. As a consequence, they use less the assessment information to guide their study and finish, more and more, by identifying assessment as administering tests to assign grades, as well as considering that test are the best way to know what they know.

In short, the increase in the course progression seems to carry a decrease in the attention to the students and their monitoring, including through (formative) assessment. The centering on the teacher and on the syllabus content grows, but the factors of educational efficacy (and *authentic learning*) shrink.

5 Conclusion

In general, the *traditional teaching paradigm* is still prevalent, based on lecturing, assessment by tests and exams, and a more "passive" learning mode. The use of diverse teaching methodologies, resources, classroom activities and work dynamics, is present, but in a less expressive way, and what counts most on grading are tests and exams. Despite the availability of teachers to assist and attend students, even outside classes, in the mood of formative assessment, they are not engaged in self-assessment or in the assessment of their colleagues' work. Assessment seems formally understood essentially as a process of learning verification for certification and grading purposes. In spite of the signals of some permeability to the *constructivist paradigm*, teaching and assessment are yet very teacher centered and the attention to students and the monitoring of learning decrease as progress in the training course increases.

On the other hand, the comparison between scientific fields, although very broadly defined (and, probably, encompassing, some of them, somewhat diverse realities, deserving a more refined analyzes), reveals nuances that seems to imply different teaching, learning and assessment rationales. In fact, the Health Sciences and the Sciences and Technologies fields seem to leave less room to the construction by the student and to (true) autonomous learning, centering more strictly on the content, on the teacher and on uniform assessment control with tests and exams. On the contrary, the Arts and Humanities and the Social Sciences reveal more openness to a diversified and continuous assessment and to the students' participation on the structuring of teaching-learning-assessment situations (of their curriculum).

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The Curiculum in the Initial Physical Education Teacher Formation in the courses coordinators perspective

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Abstract

With the entrance of Bologna's conditions and their obligatory implementation in all Portuguese institutions till the end of 2010, the teacher's formation courses had to be restructured matching the goals proposed in Bologna's Declaration of 1999.

The Coordinators of the Physical Education teacher's formation courses of the 2nd cicle need, as well as the teachers, a teaching knowledge repertoire having as its reference the teacher's professional knowledge as they use it daily in a working context, allowing the introduction of formation disposals targeting to make future educators familiar with the professional practice (Almeida & Biajone, 2007).

Key-Words: higher Education, Physical Education, Curriculum

1 - Introduction

Considering the main responsability of the university, that is to take acessible to the social field by the high education, we say that a high education course it's a complex knowledge transformation process important to the society in professional and personal behaves'.

For a process to present such demands to materialize satisfactorily and necessary, there must be, in the institution, someone who has as role to administer it, guide it, coordinate it. And this responsibility, from the standpoint of regimental, is the coordination of courses (Palmeiras & Szilagvyi, 2011, p. 3)

According to these authors, the Coordinator must have knowledge of information technology and communication, instruments and institutional regulations in force. With regard to the skills required for the performance of the coordination function, these authors tell us that the Coordinators shall be prepare to a results orientation, decision making, negotiation skills, leadership and organization.

For all this to result in a smooth manner, ethics, initiative, responsibility, creativity and innovation, flexibility and adaptability to change, teamwork, self-control, interpersonal relationships and the ability to listen and ask values are fundamental to good coordination.

Studies reveal that 46% of teachers would like to get to the position of Coordinator. When asked to report the reasons, the main quotes refer to strategic vision needs, innovation and implanting interest in being part of the teaching career come to pursue a management position (Rebelo, 2012).

In these expressions, derived from spontaneous answers to open questions, especially when it comes to innovation, there is some inconsistency with the responses in relation to the degree of importance of attitudes to hold the position of coordinator. It can be noted that the average was the lowest among the attitudes listed; innovation here was repeated by teachers who want to be Coordinators (Palmeiras & Szilagvyi, 2011).

The main competences to coordenate are managing human resources, create actions from the school reality, propose guidelines and action for education development, provide educational assistance, caring for the organizational aspects of teaching, ensuring an environment of cooperative work, monitor and evaluate, plan, coordinate, manage and evaluate (Marquesin; Baptista & Penteado, 2008).

It thus becomes essential perceive the matrices thought of Physical Education Courses Coordinator in Portugal, in order to verify the main difficulties encountered in the structuring curricular concerns

2 - Methodology

The object of study in qualitative research are not behaviors, but the intentions and situations, ie it is investigating ideas, discover meanings in individual actions and social interactions from the perspective of the actors involved in the process. The nature of qualitative research is based on the inductive method because the researcher intends to unveil the intent, the purpose of the action, studying it in its own significant position, ie, the meaning has a value as inserted in this context, adopting the posture who try to understand the situation without imposing expectations prior to the phenomenon studied (Coutinho, 2011).

The analysis of the interview has become in recent years central to a wide range of approaches in the social sciences. The development of discursive analysis is however not an isolated phenomenon, and can be seen as part of an interdisciplinary movement recorded in research in sociology, anthropology and other social sciences to communication and linguistic phenomena. For this reason it is difficult to speak of 'discourse' and 'discourse analysis' as a single entity or as a uniform approach to investigation procedures (Azevedo, 1998, p. 107).

The interview is a research technique that provides the investigator gather information directly related to your goal in order to solve a problem arising in any situation experienced by the same, besides being the most common source of collecting information on qualitative research (Thomas & Nelson, 2002).

According to Gil (2009), the interview is a form of asymmetrical dialogue in which one of the actors collect data and introduces himself as another source of information. In general, it is defined as an intentional conversation carefully planned, that unfolds between two or more people, with different times and must be initiated by an informal conversation.

Flick (2005) tell us that structured interview is something that requires researchers and respondents closer involvement. Has built up a roadmap with a sequence in which the issues and topics addressed were previously determined. The basic structure of the script was based on the conceptual framework that feeds the problem and objectives of this study.

2.1 – Participants

Participated in our study four Masters Coordinators of University's in Portugal (ISMAI, UTAD, FMH, FADEUP), with ages between 48 and 69 years old, with experience in education which varies between 23 and 40 years.

3 - Results

In order to obtain an overall framework of components for the purpose of this study, we obtained from interviews with coordinators in primary domain (D1), which can be seen in the following table.

D1 – Teachers Formation	
C1 – Physical Education Currículum	Ca1- Course adequability
	Ca2 – Curricular Units' Changes
	Ca3 – ECTS
C2 – Changes apened	Ca1 – Specialization
C3 – Bologna Process	Ca1 – Consequences
C4 – Dificults Founded	Ca1 – Implications
	Ca2 – Solutions

C5 – Teachers preparation	Ca1 – Interest and Adaptation

To understand how we get the Coordinator answers, we create the "Teachers Formation" (D1) with 5 major componentes (C1, C2, C3, C4, C5).

3.1 - C1 – Physical Education Curriculum

The first Component talks about Physical Education Curriculum (C1). This componente was divided in 3 categories (Ca).

In first categorie, emerge the Course adequability and the Bologna Process goals (Ca1).

3.1.1 - Ca1 – Course Adequability

In Coordinator opinion, the Physical Education course restruturation is adequated because they fall the legal rule 43/2007. In fact a nominee of Avaliation in High Education (called A3ES), the course should cover scientific áreas covering pedagogical practice, supervised practice and specific didatic.

"In addition to finding that is adequate in terms of physical education teacher, I think that teh course is adequate, because it has become essentially practical and gives them many practice hours and took them many transmission of knowledge hours, many hours of theory, ie, there are no longer those hours in the classroom. " (E1)

"From what I know of the programs of other countries that are signatories to the Bologna Process, I think that our masters are well prepared, and more than that, I think at least part of the institution I represent a great concern that our Master students have a quality education that responds to the Dublin descriptors, responds to the needs of the explicit Bologna Process because it rests more on developing capacity and skills than the sum itself or in the acquisition of knowledge. " (E2)

This restructuring has been improved and adapted according to the needs of the students, the institution and the curriculum applied.

"We try to do something that was both the sequence that we had here in the 1st cycle, but this openness to other courses and that more can be solid in order to correspond to what was the satisfaction of the skills that we had already inventoried for teaching practice. " (E3)

"I'm the master coordinator, I think that has to take some adjustment, but it has some curricular units that are directly geared to the free movement of workers in Europe, the assumption is appropriate Bologna". (E2)

As 2nd Category Component "Curriculum in Physical Education" came the Programmatic Changes of courses in Coordinator opinion.

3.1.2 - Ca2 – Curricular Units' Changes

Among the main changes, there was a reduction of hours of theory and theoretical transmission of knowledge. Greater stimulation also occurred in relation to research. Coordinators also say that the students pre Bologna came out with more valences and other requirements in relation to current students who have a much more specialized education.

This specialization has been structured according to the skills required for the exercise of the faculty of physical education and student contact with school reality is fundamental to the acquisition of these skills.

"In addition there has been this change of decreased hours lectures and theoretical transmission of knowledge, there was a substantial decrease in contact hours and an appeal to the stimulation of research by students and there was a major concern in teaching to do and not to teach how to do it. " (E1)

"When I spoke of the generalization of the masters was not only the terminology but also because in pre-bologna many students ended the bachelor, entered a few masters, very few delivered the thesis, a minority continued to PhD. Now many make the master and thus cheapened up the whole process. " (E1)

"We have here today a practice training very much based on the traditional model of lecture, then the student goes to class, then the student memorizes after the student studies, then go take the test, then I do not know why ... We are trying to change that with much group work, many work that implies that the person is going to space school to see what was going on there, how things are, because we need more of that, I think ... ". (E3)

The 3rd Category to emerge this component concerns the ECTS course organization.

3.1.3 - Ca3 – European Credit Transfer System

The ECTS course organization, has facilitated the curricular structure, however, there were some difficulties in the implementation and application of the scientific credits required for the normal development of curricular units, because Avaliation in High Education (A3ES) imposes a distribution of ECTS in certain scientific fields.

"The organization of the course based on the ECTS is much easier because we no longer have the equivalence processes, to have processes crediting. So 6 ECTS are 6 ECTS whether in sociology or be in education, and in terms of accumulation of knowledge or skills I can say that is false that the individual turns out to have the crediting two courses and may have nothing to do with one another. " (E1)

"I came to discover that the course had been rejected by a formal question... We had given more importance to the traineeship than what could be, moreover a matter of 2 credits, but the design of the course, is far beyond from the legal rule 43/2007 to almost formats the course giving the weights to the different components, the areas of training in science education, areas of didactic training, the stage and the training of teachers, so it is more or less established and how a course more to the right, the left, with more credit, less credit thing is made up ... ". (E4)

The main difficulty of ECTS organization revealed by Coordinators is the autonomous work done by the student. This question is not yet fully assimilated by students.

"The students were saying that they had no time for such things ... and I said," let's just see the composition of the subjects in terms of ECTS, which is what this is "and i showed them that it was autonomous work the expectation in some disciplines involved significant work, 40, 50 60 semester hours is a lot of work. " (E3)

3.2 - C2 - Perceptions changes by the Coordinators

The 2nd component relates to the changes found by the Coordinators to the implementation of the Bologna assumptions in the respective courses. It is important to understand how the coordinators realized these changes and then apply them in a more harmonious in the curriculum of the courses.

The first category to emerge from component C2 concerns the specialization performed in the 2nd cycle in Higher Education.

3.2.1 - Ca1 - Specialization

Thus, the Coordinators report that specialization, inhibits the acquisition of knowledge and skills of the student, because the labor market is nearly full in regards to teaching, ie, the student must necessarily be qualified to a wider range of functions.

"They can acquire more specific skills and therefore better qualified for a particular function but given the changes and now not only the transformations, we found, for example, that the education market of Physical Education in school is completely blocked, so be here to prepare people specifically to an area where they will not immediately intervene and when they can eventually intervene, the thing is already heavily modified to reality, ie, we want to format or form to train people for a reality, so that we can understand, visualize, certain skills, etc ". (E4)

"... But anyway it is not practical to do so that people will exercise their profession, which basically means that this preparation must necessarily be specific and could make more if people had enabled a wider range of functions ". (E4)

For this reason, Coordinators said that is unfair to those students in 5 years are designated masters, because it started somehow to trivialize the course from the moment that at some institutions it is not necessary to achieve the input requirements for access to the physical education course, which causes an acquisition of knowledge and skills by the weakest part of the future PE teacher.

What was helped, in the opinion of the Coordinators, was the emphasis on courses related to research in student training, since the 1st cycle is addressed to scientific research.

"No. The only thing I think it was unfair and I still do not like is that in 5 years they became masters ". (E1)

"In this case, the ute particularly, we once again have the input requirements... we eliminated them and should have them back. It eliminated the input requirement, we should at least ask for a resume and sporting an individual who has never practiced sport, can not all become physical education teacher, it was my opinion. " (E1)

"Although this perspective they could enter, then it should be classes not only teach knowledge, but also the know-how. Classes of shares practical, swimming, football, basketball, rugby, should compel them so to do and know to know to pass by the parties or practices that die or become stronger. Who indeed could not give up doing the course right at the 1st year and we avoided that PE teachers came to school they did not know what are the skills of physical Education teacher ". (E2)

" Ultimately go school students with training more complicated ... The private schools that have either a faculty or a structure forming relatively questionable, but not up to me to make these valences. " (E4)

3.3 - C3 – Bologna Process

In the 3rd component (C3), the theme emerged related to the Bologna Process, because it was essential in the entire restructuring of the specialization of future PE teachers.

As the first component of this category, we have the consequences that the Bologna process led on Physical Education courses.

3.3.1 - Ca1 - Consequences

Coordinators say that the Bologna Process came framing teacher education in an equitable way in Higher Education institutions in Portugal. This process led to the specialization of Physical Education Teacher, creating difficulties for Institutes of Education, preventing them from forming teachers, opening doors to other institutions that are forming physical education teachers.

"... I do not know if it was exactly the intention of Bologna, but who legislated, has created some difficulties for the high schools who prevented them from training teachers, but on the other side also opened other possibilities for other institutions to form and it seems to me that they had neither knowledge nor critical mass to form teachers, so in specialty areas, such as the PE. " (E4)

"I don´t know if i can cal changes, because i never manage any master before Bologna Process. or rather, the master of which have been implicated before Bologna Process, as we already had news of developments ideological, scientific and scholarly Bologna Process, already built thinking in PB, so I can not speak on transformations because at least in terms of coordination Masters I pretty much only worked with these prerogatives. "(E2)

3.4 - C4 – Dificult founded

In 4th component (C4), we speak about the difficulties founded by the Coordinators in the (re) structuring of the respective courses and how they overcome these same difficulties.

At this component "Difficult founded" emerged the category (Ca1) "Implications".

3.4.1 - Ca1 - Implications

The difficulties were not experienced by the Coordinators, but the work they performed was demanding and competente. With Avaliation in High Education, the courses requirements had to be restructured in order to meet the assumptions of Bologna, with an area of increasing importance given to teaching practice and student host a larger number of students from different institutions, because with the current economic situation, the institutions of higher education have a higher intake of students in the same survival strategy.

"We didn't have many difficulties, we work, but if the difficulties are work okay, we have difficulties. We work hard together. There have been initial proposals, the curricular units were allocated to teachers. Teachers came to present the curricular units to each other, overlaps much discussed and what is missing and what is not missing and so I think that everything is more or less adjusted, had to also include something that is not spoken, it is something that is important and it is this dimension that these courses must have. " (E3)

"This is a costume that required us to develop and implement field therefore has to answer the questions, the specific requirements of the area of education science, but we do always a very strong connection to the physical education and school sport, so is always so much stronger. " (E4)

"We know and that is another issue, another difficulty of our course. Is that for purely economic survival strategy every school must admit more people than would be required. " (E4)

Coordinators try to solve all the implications that occur with changes made, so emerged the Ca2 (Solutions) to try to answer the Ca1.

3.4.2 - Ca2 - Solutions

To solve some problems, the Coordinators meet with the students representatives and the curricular units teachers to take stock of what should be kept and what can be changed to meet the needs expressed by students and teachers.

"We have student representatives who are selected and who are, shall we say, listen at any time on any matter with the coordination. We also Met with teachers, meet with students to make this overview, the balance of how things are doing. " (E3)

"So this is a work that we do up in a comprehensive way, because it is an inductive work to enable them to included perspectives from everybody. We must be close to be able to make a *check-list* type thing, but until now was not possible and we do this. We do this survey. " (E3)

"Usually in meeting teachers', in addition to having the care of no overlap of content, we always make an assessment of students, or ask students to make an assessment of the disciplines, to have the certainty that we are responding to the needs of students, whether the subjects or teachers. " (E1)

"You need to speak to the regentes the point of view of the rulers by regarding the point of view of students and so these meetings are meetings, shall we say, are a little outside of what is normal and then we have, say, one caught we do at the end of each year for all disciplines in all units, an opinion on aspects more positive and more negative functioning as the form and content of different courses". (E4)

3.5 - C-5 Prepare teachers for changings

Finally, as the last component, the Coordinators perceptions on the preparation to cope with changes of a High School Teachers.

These changes, caused that the Coordinators realized interest from teachers and a natural adaptation to all the assumptions required in the initial training of future teachers of physical education, thus resulting in the following category:

3.5.1 - Ca1 - Interest and Adaptation

Coordinators felt that the teachers were interested in adapting to the new reality, trying to learn about the changes, but their preparation was not fully acquired. Given this situation, we find that some ambiguity in the opinion of the Coordinators interviewed. Not felt that there were many difficulties of teachers to adapt the curriculum of curricular unit.

"The level of UTAD felt they were all very keen to adapt to it and the 1st year was a process of adaptation and there was no difficulty at that point." (E1)

"That I do not know, because it is the part of teaching what you mean, I'm honestly not within the classes of the other (but received no feedback). No, at least I know things are not going wrong, does not mean that there are no problems ... but the problems there is one thing, have the perception that there are problems in the implementation of Bologna Process is a completely different thing ... ". (E2)

However (E4) states that in his institution, the Teachers were not prepared for all the changes experienced, while (E3) has not made changes in their curriculum course preferring to create a curriculum from scratch.

"Now this is a very big challenge that lies and, therefore, whether students or teachers have to do, but there was this part, a clear difficulty of adjustment." (E4)

"It was not exactly an adjustment, because the subjects were all created from scratch. We were not seeking the 1st cycle courses and then adjust. Were created from scratch ... We have courses for teacher education, teaching and training school sport". (E3)

4 - Conclusion

Concluding our research, we can say that in Coordinator opinion, the Physical Education course restruturation is adequated because they fall the legal rule 43/2007 in every Institution. This restructuring has been improved and adapted according to the needs of the students, the institution and the curriculum applied.

Among the main changes, there was a reduction of hours of theory and theoretical transmission of knowledge. Greater stimulation also occurred in relation to research.

The ECTS course organization, has facilitated the curricular structure, however, there were some difficulties in the implementation and application of the scientific credits required for the normal development of curricular units, because Avaliation in High Education (A3ES) imposes a distribution of ECTS in certain scientific fields.

What Coordinators don't agree is that is unfair to those students in 5 years are designated masters, because it started somehow to trivialize the course from the moment that at some institutions it is not necessary to achieve the input requirements for access to the physical education course, which causes an acquisition of knowledge and skills by the weakest part of the future PE teacher.

The difficulties were not experienced by the Coordinators, but the work they performed was demanding and competente. With Avaliation in High Education, the courses requirements had to be restructured in order to

meet the assumptions of Bologna, with an area of increasing importance given to teaching practice and student host a larger number of students from different institutions, because with the current economic situation, the institutions of higher education have a higher intake of students in the same survival strategy.

Coordinators felt that the teachers were interested in adapting to the new reality, trying to learn about the changes, but their preparation was not fully acquired. Given this situation, we find that some ambiguity in the opinion of the Coordinators interviewed. Not felt that there were many difficulties of teachers to adapt the curriculum of curricular unit. To solve some problems, the Coordinators meet with the students representatives and the curricular units teachers to take stock of what should be kept and what can be changed to meet the needs expressed by students and teachers.

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Teaching and Learning Perspectives in Higher Education[1]

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Abstract

This describes practices of teaching and learning in a course included in a master's program curriculum in the field of health sciences and evaluates the potential of these practices in the acquisition of knowledge and the development of critical thinking and understanding.

The course lasts 14 weeks and includes contributions from several scientific areas; the analysis of a subject is stimulated through several topics; teaching is oriented to learning objectives arranged into modules and goes through several phases.

Were observed 34 hours of classes, using an observation rubric, we interviewed 2 teachers and 4 students. For data categorization, we used content analysis (Bardin, 1977).

The observations revealed an interactive environment among peers and between students and teachers. The assumption of a student-centered and integrated education perspective may help learning, potentiating the development of autonomy and critical thinking skills, understanding, curiosity, self-confidence and self awareness.

Keywords: Teaching; Learning; Higher Education

1.Introduction

Teaching is a complex pedagogical action, considering the multiplicity of variables and skills required in and out of the classroom. Teaching transcends the scope of the visible, objective and quantifiable, teaching is not just what teacher does in class, but also students' motivation, their interests, their attitudes and their conceptions about the process of teaching and learning. So the quality of teaching depends not only the teacher but on a set of organizational factors that may affect teacher performance (goals, schedules, resources).

So, the methods used by teacher are according to his knowledge as well as the purpose of the training process. In this article, we discuss about different perspectives of teaching and learning, widely used in medical education, which tend to favor a consolidated knowledge of the contents, as well as a strong individual accountability and autonomy, with consequences in personal and professional development.

Within an humanist perspective, the curriculum focuses on the student and the teacher 's role "is that of a facilitator who has a counseling relationship with students and who guides their growth and development" (Joyce & Weil , 1996 , p.297). According to Rogers (1985) this perspective has the purposes of leading the student to a high state of mental and emotional health, helping him to develop self-confidence and self awareness, taking into account the individual needs and aspirations of students and consider them as

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partners in determining what and how they learn, as well as developing a qualitative thinking in particular with regard to creativity and expression, fundamental characteristics for solving problems, which can be optimized through a process of interactivity .

Despite the kindness of these intentions, they will not lead, by themselves, to deepening and consolidating knowledge, individual responsibility and autonomy. So it's important to " create an environment where students and teachers are partners in learning, share ideas openly , and communicate honestly with one another " (Joyce & Weil, 1996, p.297). However, the autonomous and student-centered learning seems to appeal to a strong individualism: " gifted students prefer to work alone" (Joyce & Weil, 1996, p. 69) what could be be mutually exclusive of the idea of collaborative learning and the development of autonomy . The development of partnerships implies personal effort and carrying out tasks autonomously in order a fruitful group work. In this regard, based in a research carried out by Qin , Johnson and Johnson , in 1995 , Joyce and Weil (idem , p.68) argue that "the cooperative structures generally generate improved learning in the important area of problem-solving". Zabalza (2008) also argues that autonomous learning and student-centered so widely referred in the educational discourses, only occurs if certain conditions are observed in the curriculum development process: mentoring, student's preparation, appropriate technological infrastructures and teaching.

Furthermore, teaching can be considered within a behaviorist perspective, focused on training students to perform complex behaviors, which involves a high level of precision and coordination with one another. Space and time of learning are considered opportunities to enhance it and it is expected that students establish a strong commitment to the tasks they perform. According to Snell (2000, p. 2):

> a good self-directed learner therefore needs a number of skills. (…) learners must be able to reflect on practices, identify learning gaps, and have well-honed questioning skills, (…) learners must have well-developed information location and retrieval skills (e.g., the ability to search a computer database efficiently). They must also have well-developed critical appraisal skills to allow them to access and assess the value of new knowledge.

Teachers who have high expectations for their students and concern for academic progress
> demand excellence and behavior conducive to academic progress. (…)
> A major goal of direct instruction is the maximization of student learning time
> (…) and the ability to perform a skill independently and without error" (Joyce & Weil, 1996, pp. 344-347).

We think that an integrated approach of teaching and learning "may have important benefits for learning and retention because it facilitates contextual and applied learning, and can promote the development of well organized knowledge structures that underlie effective clinical reasoning" (Muller , Jain, Loeser & Irby , 2008 , p.2).
The combination of different perspectives will be a strong way to forming competent professionals, to develop them attitudes supporting either a good professional or an engagement with life long learning (Shokar , Shokar Romero & Bulik , 2002).

2 . Methodological options

This study was developed within a framework of a research project involving seven universities (4 Portuguese and 3 Brazilian), whose primary goal is to describe, analyze and interpret teaching, learning and assessment practices in higher education.

Data collection provide from several instruments: surveys, semi-structured interviews (SSI) focus group (FG) and classroom observation (CO). The observation was made in courses covering the scientific fields of Social Sciences, Arts and Humanities, Engineering and Technology and Health Sciences.

At the University of Minho were observed in the first half of 2011/2012, 2 courses from Arts and Humanities, 1 from Social Sciences and 2 from Health Sciences. The object of this study is one course of the first year of the undergraduate program of Health Sciences.

It was observed 34 hours of classes, using an observation rubric, which dimensions provided from the theoretical framework of the AVENA project: teaching, learning, assessment and classroom environment.

In order to understand teachers and students perspectives about teaching and learning in the course that we observed, we interviewed 2 teachers and 4 students, whose content was recorded, transcribed verbatim and then subjected to a content analysis and categorized (Bardin, 1977). The categories were defined a priori, according to the project framework AVENA, but emerged from the SSI, the FG and CO other categories through an inter codification process.

To ensure anonymity, the code "I" was attributed to the expression "interview", "T1" to "teacher" and "T2" to the other teacher. Students were assigned the following code: "FG" for focus group and "S" student "FGS".

Then, we proceed to the triangulation of the data and structured a narrative to the course observed. In this article, we present and discuss teaching and learning dimension.

3 . Presentation and discussion of results

The lectures took place in rooms with about one hundred twenty students. In turn, the theoretical-practical classes were developed in laboratories with thirty students per class. Teaching was organized in four phases and the planning depended on the pre-defined objectives, as referred by a teacher :

I prepare phase 1, giving students lots of contents in a short time, in order they can discuss and reflect. (...) Obviously that phase 2 is more practical (...), I give them practical examples. (IT2)

Throughout the observations, we could observe that teachers didn't aim only the students acquire knowledge but also to promoting the autonomy, focusing on the interaction. This was confirmed by teachers: "we imagine a subject that can be more relevant to students, that will benefit from the interaction between teacher and student" (IT1) and "(...) I prepare lessons to encourage students". (IT2)

The teaching method for both teachers was predominantly interactive (Joyce & Weil , 1996), although with some lectures that teachers considered important: " We use clearly an interactive method (...) We don't value so much the lecture method, although it is also important in some moments . " (IT1)

This interaction was achieved through questioning permanently students, encouraging participation and promoting their interests. According to a teacher, " (...) we always have some questions and try to stimulate students the best we can ," " (...) we force them to participate more and more in class. " (IT2)

Much of the classes were conducted to sharing in small groups and teachers gave the opportunity to dialogue, as well as they regulated the activity: "students can ask teacher at any time if they don't understand " (IT1). Students had freedom to put questions, in or outside the class, as they argued in the focus group : " if we have doubts, we ask or sent them " (FGS) .

A perspective of teaching and learning, strongly closed to the autonomous work, conducted students to taking on learning strategies, such as research tasks and self-study, from the materials provided by teachers " during the first class, teachers put questions and we study contents at home. " (FGS)

When students made questions, teachers rarely answered directly, helping them and guiding them to the answer by formulating new questions, a strategy that develops the reflection and engages students on their own learning. Fundamentally, it is a process of a tutor self-learning, essential for fostering an autonomous learning (Zabalza, 2008) .

Students felt these strategies as a way to motivating and engaging them in the learning process: " if we make questions we can have better learning and if we go into this class unprepared, we can't learn, because we can not understand the contents". In this regard, a teacher said : " the system (..) gives great possibilities to those who are autonomous, (...) who have self-discipline, who are hardworking and intelligent , but it causes great difficulties to those who want all the contents very expositive . " (IT1; IT2)

At the same time, the high level required does not avoid the consolidation of a strong collaborative work among peers, what deconstructs the idea that good students prefer to work alone (Joyce & Weil , 1996). Students recognized " (...) we are always here ready to help one another: I have a doubt (...) can you explain me? "(...) At most, we are all good colleagues " (FGS). This idea was supported by a teacher : " I think there's a reasonable spirit of helpfulness. (...) There is always competition, but we don't feel it within the classroom. " (IT1)

In summary, students appreciated the teaching and learning process "it is impossible to leave the faculty without being a good student. It's great (...) the experience is excellent " (FGS).

4. Highlights

The observations revealed an interactive environment among peers and between students and teachers. The assumption of a student-centered and integrative education perspective seems being very useful for learning, for the development of autonomy and critical thinking and understanding. This course is a successful example. These perspectives improve learning, critical thinking skills and understanding, curiosity, self-confidence and self awareness, which tend to favor a consolidated knowledge of the contents, as well as a strong individual accountability and autonomy, with consequences in personal and professional development.

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The challenge of involvement in teacher education: the perceptions of university teachers of scientific disciplines in Biological Sciences undergraduates with new curriculum proposals linking theory and professional practice, in Bahia, Brazil

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Abstract
This article discusses the involvement of university teachers in initial Biology teacher education in courses with differentiated curriculum configurations, based on Brazil's most recent legal guidelines. The concept of involvement assumed by the study is in line with the Multi-referential Approach. It considers the scientific dimension in the education of Biology teachers and the way these university teachers inspire their students in both their practice and the construction of their identity, and poses the questions: How do these teachers identify and involve themselves in educating their students to be biology teachers? Do recent curriculum changes alter these relationships? The research is qualitative and based on ethnomethodology. Our means of data production, therefore, rely on narratives (written memories and open-ended interviews) in which four university teachers express their perceptions of their professional education and practice. Classroom observations, recorded in field diaries, were also used for data triangulation. Content Analysis was utilized as a series of techniques to analyze communication and its meanings, providing a basis for inferences and interpretations. The study provides evidence that the curriculum proposals linking theory and professional, although leading to differentiated perceptions of and demands on university teachers, do not appear to profoundly change their involvement as teachers in the education of their students. There is a predominant belief that, above all, their role in teacher education is to pass on content specific to their area. This appears to be related to the construction of their identity, which we consider to be hybrid, and their concept of education, which lacks reflection both in the initial education and in their professional development. Another associated aspect is the disconnect that takes place between university education and the context within which its students perform: the school.
Keywords: Biology teacher education; University teachers´ scientific disciplines; involvement

Introduction

The qualification of professionals produces some specific challenges, including the link between their initial education and the reality in which they will be placed. These challenges increase when one considers education Science and Biology teachers, as the teachers working at universities have little education in and experience of basic education. We characterized the formative routes and identity processes of university teachers who lecture on scientific subjects at Biological Science courses in a previous study (Madeira *et al.*, 2013). We recognized an epistemological and formative hybridism resulting from the relation between education and the field of performance as a Biologist and practice as a university teacher, with the construction of knowledge and ethnomethods.

In this study, our objective is to understand how these university teachers, with their different formative routes and identity processes, are involved, through their practices, in educating their students to be Science and Biology teachers, considering different curricular contexts with regards to the link between initial education and professional practice.

While seeking this understanding, the concept of involvement that Ardoino (2000) and Macedo (2002; 2010) offer, in which the subject is valued to understand the phenomena, is adopted here. Involvement is "something which presents itself, interpreting and understanding, from one's own existence.... [which] affirms the subjectivity of the

Being or, that is, our condition as moving, lucid and errant subjects, whether conscious or otherwise." (Macedo, 2010, p. 71). In this sense, involvement, with the origin of the term referring to "plicare" (double up), constitutes an ideological and libidinal relation with the social reality in which we are immersed. A subject who has a mastery and handling of the strategies for the reality in which he is immersed is assumed but, above all, an action on them, from reflecting and constructing his ethnomethods.

Therefore, we consider that we are all *involved* in our activities and so our question was to seek to make explicit in which form the involvement of four university teachers in education their students to be Science and Biology teachers are mobilized. Consequently, we analyzed written memories, interviews and classroom observation diaries using a qualitative investigational approach.

Methodology

The subjects of this research are four female university teachers who lecture on scientific subjects (zoology, collective health, biophysics and physiology) at a Biological Sciences bachelor's degree course at a private faculty located in the metropolitan region of Salvador and a public, state university in the municipality of Feira de Santana/Bahia. The four university teachers gained their initial qualifications from studying on a Biological Sciences bachelor's degree course; three hold doctorate qualifications (one has a post-doctoral degree) and one has a Master's degree. They all have more than 10 years' experience in higher education and three have some prior experience of primary education. Clarification on the research was provided to the subjects before accepting and signing a Free and Clarified Consent Term.

We are in agreement with Macedo (2006) when he affirms that "reality is always more complex than our theories and does not fit into a concept... the qualitative perspective does not adapt to the paradoxical subtleties of everyday life." Therefore our investigation is centered on understanding the different forms in which the teaching university in this study are involved in education their students to be Science and Biology teachers in primary schools, from their own perceptions, and while considering their formative experiences and the curricular context for the courses on which they teach. A multi-referential view of these subjects' everyday phenomena in its complexity is therefore presupposed, adopting the leading role of social actors and a form of research which tries to "*comprehend their understanding.*" (Macedo, 2012, p. 89).

Thereby, our methodological research option has a qualitative approach, with the theoretical foundation of ethnomethodology and critical ethnoresearch bases. This option directs us to seek an understanding of "becoming", "being" and "feeling" an involved educator. We seek to understand the way that teachers "perceive, explain and describe order in the world in which they live" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1994, p. 60), taking 1) the subject to be investigated: education and involving teaching university and 2) studying how these teachers construct and understand their everyday lives, particularly within a professional domain, as a reference.

Taking on the paradigm of the subject as an actor introduced us to the methodological perspective presented by Josso (2002, p. 20), namely the "experiential" or "biographical approach". Therefore, we valued the university teachers' narratives, expressed in the form of written memories and semi-structured interviews. The narratives are not recognized as faithful reproductions of the processes experienced by the subjects but as devices which are rich in meanings and possibilities for reinterpretation. The written memories and interviews are considered here as complex investigational materials (Cunha, 2005, p. 37), also taking into account that which was not said, as we agree with the above-mentioned author when he affirms that: "The fact that the person highlights situations, suppresses episodes, reinforces influences, denies stages, remembers and forgets has a wide range of meanings." (p. 38). These evident contradictions were explored in the analysis and interpretations of the written memories and interviews. Classroom observations, registered in field diaries were also used for data triangulation.

Content Analysis was used for narrative analysis and the "theme" was established as a unit of record, being the criteria used for the texts clippings, with the assistance of NVivo® software. The elements of the text were reassembled in the categorization process on this basis, related to: 1) Dedication to teaching and professional development; 2) Involvement with institutional actions, the course and the curricular proposal; 3) Linking theory and practice in the curricular component and 4) Feelings for the profession and students. The analysis and interpretation of data, following intensive reflection conducted on the relation between these and the guiding questions for the research – how teaching university involvement occurs when educating their students from their formative and identity processes, in the context of curricular changes – took place based on the presence of the theme in their accounts, characteristic of a qualitative analysis approach.

Consistent with our methodological option, our analysis and interpretation took place throughout the entire research process, in constant activity from start to finish. This interpretation gained density at a specific time and forged a relatively stable set of knowledge which we seek to express here as an "open-ended product" (Macedo, 2006, p. 136).

Results and Discussion

An analysis of written memories, interviews and classroom observation for this study leads us to recognize different aspects of the teachers' involvement in education students to be Science and Biology teachers. They become involved not only through concrete actions linking professional practice within the domain of the curricular component but especially in more subtle aspects, such as dedication to teaching and their own professional development; involvement with institutional actions and the course; knowledge and involvement in the curricular proposal and their feelings for the profession and their students.

The way that the teachers dedicate themselves to teaching activities is marked by the belief that their responsibility in education is, above all, to convey the content in a complete and correct manner, within an academic education perspective (Pacheco & Flores, 1999). The teachers' dedication to organizing theoretical classes using illustrated slides, separating material and preparing outlines for the practical classes, diversifying evaluations and seeking to update specific content on the subject is perceptible. Theoretical classes are frequently explained by the teacher using a large volume of information and little student participation, characteristic of this teaching concept. This occurs with the teacher, Antonia, who despite claiming that she is favorable to students' more active participation, in practice she prioritizes conveying knowledge and placing herself in a leading role.

It draws a lot of attention to the trend for monopolizing talking and the teacher's ideas: "Is anyone unsure about what a cloaca is?" Nobody says anything. "No? Nobody is unsure... everybody knows that cloaca is a common chamber between the systems of reproduction, excretion and diges ..."(TION, a few students completed the phrase).This is a typical example of a teacher who LOVES teaching and explaining, and as much as she believes in the importance of student participation, ends up monopolizing the talking, at least in a theoretical class. (Teacher, Antonio's classroom field diary)

In relation to enhancement activities and reflecting on teaching practice, the lack of continued institutional education policies is highlighted. Only isolated actions take place that are of little support to university teachers in their professional development as teaching university, and as educators for new professionals which, in this case, is new primary school teachers. The teaching university's positions in relation to activities of a pedagogical nature oscillate between extreme resistance to valuing them, especially those which are more applied as opposed to theoretical discussions, as Idalina tells us:

I like them. I think that they work well. Some don't; there are some which, well, you get ... This is what I think: when it is very, like those talks when we are very distant, I think that we don't profit at all. But it's cool when we have a workshop. (Interview with Idalina)

Manuela also provides us with the thought that opportunities for curricular reformulation promote collective reflection on undergraduate teaching and greater involvement from the teachers in relation to the course, as observed at the college meetings which we took part in.

[On sharing experiences between course teachers] It comes up during reformulation activities. Some problems emerge and then there is a discussion and questions. The areas meet more intensively because the demand to finish is also greater. I think that it existed at this time. (Interview with Manuela)

Therefore, we observed that the teaching university's knowledge and involvement in the curricular proposal is a further dimension of involvement processes when educating their students. However, this mobilization is directly related to effective and autonomous participation, which recognizes teaching university as the subject of curricular reconstruction processes, with the intention of improving the course or, that is, of educating the students. This is jeopardized in situations in which there are other interests (financial and power struggles), which guide any reformulations.

... there are two questions here: there is the question of us making an alteration, which we do a lot here, which occurred at those meetings that were held. That was really cool because we ended up knowing more about other subjects and then we started to see the contents that we could work on simultaneously; we started to reorganize

things, to have new subjects and there wasn't any great concern about size, workload, reducing workload, you know? … the first discussions that we had … were really cool. They were really interesting. Now, after that, they started just cutting things out; it started getting more complicated. (Interview with Idalina)

The curricular proposals for linking theory and practice or initial education and professional practice at the institutions in this study differ, in so far that scientific subjects at private universities need to contain activities which associate the content being studied with primary education. This link is more related to pedagogical subjects and internships at state institutions, which are developed from the second half of the course. Therefore, there is an explicit demand on teaching university at private institutions and this produces more regular and concrete actions. Actions of this nature are also carried out at public institutions as a result of teaching university initiatives. However, there is a lack of appropriate guidance for students to develop these activities.

I keep doing it. I have already proposed that … working to prepare anatomical and physiological models. A seminar is inherent, isn't it? It ends up being a part. I asked them to do, set up their class as if it were for college students, within our content. (Interview with Fernanda)

At the end of the class, the teacher remembered a piece of work that was requested at the start of the semester (and emphasized to me that it relates to the question of education), and according to her, it valued educational transposition as they need to learn to use the content in an enjoyable and creative way, in order to work as teachers. She also complained that only two students handed in the work. When orientating a student on what to do, she was restricted to quoting that the student should select content (not quote that this selection should be related to the objectives and contents of secondary or even primary education, for example) and make a connection. (Antonia: classroom observation diary)

The involvement of teaching university is also highly mobilized by feelings towards the profession and their students. Idalina shows her identification as an educator through her concern with the students and Antonia tells us of her identification and satisfaction with the teaching profession.

I am enormously concerned about how they [the students] are going to leave here … because we have seen that they are studying much less, show less concern … and also in relation to the question of ethics … These two things really attract a great deal of attention: it is the lack of ethics and corruption; if they are here in the classroom, what will they be like outside it? (Interview with Idalina)

… I like being called teacher Antonia, not doctor or anything like that, and I am a teacher because that is what I really consider myself to be. A person who is connected to this activity, which I think is extremely enjoyable, and I had the opportunity to do it very early on in my lifetime. (Interview with Antonia)

Considering what Barbier (1985) offers us on involvement: "…personal and collective engagement (…), due to its familiar and libidinal history, past and current positions in relations of production and class and its socio-political project in action." (p. 120), we seek to learn about the forms of involving the teaching university in education their students to be Science and Biology teachers and connect this with their formative routes and identity processes.

Conclusion

Involvement for the teaching university in this study in education their students is essentially mobilized by the way that they conduct their professional practice in aspects of dedication to teaching; involvement with the course and its curricular proposal; proposing activities linked to the future teachers' field of performance, the primary school and the teaching university and students' feelings. In turn, these pedagogical practices are related to the identity processes for the teachers lecturing on scientific subjects, with a hybrid composition, both formatively and epistemologically (Madeira *et al.* 2013). This fusion of technical rationality, typical of Biological Sciences, with practical rationality experienced during a long period working as teaching university, is recontextualized in their pedagogical practices, involved at different levels and in aspects of education professionals to teach Sciences and Biology at primary level.

The study also leads us to understand that different curricular devices for linking initial education and professional practice are not determinant in involving teaching university when education their students to be teachers but specific demands on the university teachers for these courses favor a reflection on practice and the students' performance, often producing interesting actions within the scope of the curricular components.

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The preceptorship in team as effectuation mechanism of National medical curriculum guidelines.

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Abstract

The preceptorship in team arose from the need to work professional interaction as a tool for action in promotion, prevention, rehabilitation and recovery of individual or community health, in medical students and resident physicians. The experience that this internship format brings is in consonance with the National Curriculum Guidelines of Medicine because it offers to the students a unique opportunity to experience in loco the health-disease correlation with factors such as socioeconomic, sanitary conditions and psychological status and work them in team (intern, physician, nurse, community health worker, nurse technician, dentist). This preceptorship model has been developed at Family Health Unity (USF) in Jardim Teresópolis, in the city of Recife, in the northeastern region of Brazil, with the trainees of medical school since July 2011. To investigate the effect of training in public health which uses preceptorship team in training for these future professionals, we conducted a qualitative and exploratory research. For this, semi-structured questionnaires were used. The sample was the students of medicine who has done theirs supervised stage in this Unit in the period from November 2011 to April 2012. It was evaluated their preceptorship and the impact on the care which was received. The students reported that the experiencing allowed them to experience the interdisciplinary work, improving user assistance in their health needs, and to the student in their pedagogical needs. Therefore, they evaluated this model of preceptorship as very positive. It is understood that the curriculum involves three perspectives: formal or prescribed, the real or lived and the concealed or hidden (Perrenoud 1995) as a development of its own configuration. So, it is concluded that the change of paradigms in the prescribed curriculum, the use of non-formal educational spaces (USF, community) as a field for the lived curriculum and the contribution of new partners (other health professionals, users) in the constitution of the hidden curriculum influence positively the professional identity construction already in progress.

Keywords: Preceptorship; Family Heath Unity; hidden curriculum; professional identity construction.

1 Introduction:

In the context of educational institutions the curriculum is commonly thought only in terms of its prescriptive aspect which, according to Sacristán (2013), means the demarcated and ruled territory of the knowledge and content that teachers and institutions should teach[1]. However, according to Perrenoud (1995), it is possible to consider it in three perspectives as offshoots of its own configuration: the formal or prescribed, the real or lived and the hidden or secret[2].

For Perrenoud (1995), the real or lived curriculum is how the prescribed curriculum is done on a daily basis[2] since the prescribed curriculum fails to "program" completely everything that will take place in the classroom. In this way, it is the teacher's role to interpret what is prescribed in the curriculum considering what the institution requires, as well as the preferences of their students, their own choices and also the limitations of the educational institution. In this sense, the lived curriculum is heavily influenced by the participants involved in the educational process, as well as the space used in this process.

The hidden curriculum indicates that rules and values, implicit and effectively transmitted by schools, generally, are not mentioned in the elaborate planning (with aims and objectives) by teachers[3]. On the other hand, it reflects the choices and attitudes of educators (conscious or not), conceptions and intrinsic beliefs to his/her way of thinking, which, in its turn, influences the student in the acquisition of values, attitudes, processes of socialization and moral formation[4]. Thus, rationalizing the hidden curriculum contributes fundamentally in building a citizen and professional identity.

It is important to note that the curriculums, in any perspective, have a changeable character, i.e. they go through historic moments assimilating social, economic, political and academics influences[5]. Thus, they express understandings and contexts that seek continued adjustments to the realities for which they are intended in local and global perspectives[6].

About this Sacristán claims that[1]:

The curriculum, in its content and in the ways it is presented to us and to also to teachers and students, is an historically configured option, that has been fixed within a given cultural, political, social and school plot; is loaded, therefore, of values and assumptions that it is necessary to decipher.

Sacristán also emphasizes as a result of the historical process of building the impossibility of a neutral and impartial curriculum[1]:

The scientific asepsis doesn't fit on this topic, because in the world of education, the socialization and cultural project that the school has for its students is not neutral.

The courses of medicine in Brazil have experienced these adjustments, a reflection of the social and political moment in the 90, with the Federal Constitution (CF) of 1988 and the publication of law 8080/90, which regulated the Sistema Único de Saúde (SUS), the discussions about the formation of health professionals have been intensified, for, since it was created, the SUS provoked deep changes in health practices, imposing significant alterations in the process of formation and development of professionals in the field. Considering that the SUS is the largest job market in health in Brazil, one must recognize that it is in the daily life of health services that knowledge takes materiality as an action of life[7] production, conception which is in line with the perspective of lived curriculum.

In this context the SUS has taken active role in refocusing of strategies of care, treatment and follow-up of individual and collective health, and it is in this sense that it is presented the need to revise the training modes to operate in this health system[7].

This discussion of training health professionals focused on the SUS is enhanced in 2001 with the approval of the National curriculum guidelines. Prior to this, health professionals in higher education institutions, had as learning field the hospitals. Their professional experience was centered in the hegemonic, biomedical, hospitalcentric model, which was focused on the disease and its treatment (minimum curriculum).

In Brazil, the former minimum curriculum was replaced by curriculum guidelines that, for the area of Medicine, were enacted in 2001 by the Ministry of education and culture. This is a text that establishes general guidelines for the formation of the doctor and allows a wide freedom of educational institutions for its implementation. The Curricular guidelines define that it must be formed in Brazil a doctor who has a "generalist, humanist, critical and reflective formation. Empowered to act, based on ethical principles, in the health-disease process in their different levels of attention, with actions of promotion, prevention, recovery and rehabilitation to health, from the perspective of integrality of care, with a sense of social responsibility and commitment to citizenship, as promoter of the integral health of human being"[8].

After SUS and the guidelines, there has been a change of paradigm of formation of these professionals, decentralizing from the hospital model, to an integral model: for the promotion, protection, prevention and rehabilitation of health. One of the key challenges in this context is to assume the medical training as an integrated whole and not as a mere sum of contents of various disciplines and medical specialties. The curriculum guidelines establish, correctly, that there are general

skills that must be acquired during undergraduate courses: health care, decision-making, communication, administration and management and permanent education [9]

Since then, medical education has suffered profound criticism regarding the need to diversify the teaching-learning scenarios in order to build new curricula and subject, allowing them to enter in a reflective and dynamic educational process. However to achieve this goal we must rethink the curriculum for the training of medical professional not only from the perspective of formal curriculum, but also in the perspective of the lived curriculum and the hidden curriculum.

In this sense it is necessary the insertion of future professionals in the various types of services provided by SUS, among them, the Family Health Program (PSF) [9]. This is a Brazilian strategy of primary health care, elected as model of attention towards basic health care, locating inside the communities in which they act (adscript territory). The program exists in Brazil since 1994 and is a space for teamwork, community/families oriented, their social, economic and housing context, as well as sanitation conditions[3]. Each family health Team (ESF) is composed by 1 doctor, 1 nurse, 1 nursing technician, from 4 to 6 family health agents (ACS), 1 dental surgeon and 1 Dental Office Assistant , and they are responsible for 800 to 1000 families. This learning field for the future professionals of the SUS is in line with the National curriculum guidelines for undergraduate in medicine (DCN) by bringing them the reality of life of the users (their biopsychosocial context).

According to Ferreira:

The diversification of the scenarios is understood as one of the strategies for curricular transformation. This strategy draws students closer from the daily life of the population and develop a critical eye, making it possible to take care of the real problems of society[10].

The Learning scenarios should not be restricted only to the preset places of professional practice development, but they should, instead, represent spaces in which subjects' relationships are effectively developed, opening paths to creativity and transformations; and enable the student to incorporate an enriching process of service production, favoring fruitful constructs in their professional training[11].

The Brazilian University hospitals, as they integrate increasingly to SUS, are becoming high complexity hospitals. Undergraduate education can no longer be based exclusively or mainly on the infirmary of those hospitals. The diversification of learning scenarios is urgent, including training in the community, in basic health units, clinics, emergency services and infirmary of communities' hospitals[9].

According to a document released recently by the Ministry of education in partnership with the Ministry of health (MECMS) (1), the medical courses with higher degree of adherence to the principles of the DCN, besides other features, show the family health Strategy as one of the strategies for training of a doctor able to respond to the social needs of Brazilian population[12].

Seeking to meet this reality in our Health Unit, we have divided the training of medical students in 2 different moments: first the knowledge of each service provided in the PSF, recognizing each one of their particularities (greeting, vaccine, prenatal care, Hypertensive care, diabetic care, health education group, among others), experiencing the teamworking. After this moment, it is built weekly schedules in which students will experience problem-situations and correlate them to family/community contexts, build solutions according to their own learning interests. The main adult learning theorists, such as Paulo Freire, have demonstrated that the practice is the great motivator of learning. The Learning of the so-called basic sciences is more interesting and more productive when the student has before him medical problems to solve. Teaching strategies that require the active participation of the student in the search for solutions to real problems or built with clear pedagogical objectives (learning based on problems) have contributed to the achievement of student intellectual autonomy. After all, in the tradition of medical schools, the period of the internship is precisely a search, by the internal, of the solutions to medical problems that their patients have[9].

1.1-Motivation:

According to Byrne and collaborators (2), there are seven main reasons to include family and community medicine (MFC) in universities, particularly in undergraduate education:

- Medical students must experience and understand the scenario and the ways in which the vast majority of the population is cared for by health services.
- Medical students must experience the medicine at its most integrated and inclusive, which is best evidenced in the scenario of practice of family and community doctor.
- Medical students must experience the person centred medicine (a pillar of family and community medicine), reversing the trend of focusing on sickness and hard technology.
- Medical students should have the chance to experience the practice of MFC, in order to include this specialty on the list of options for the future professional career. The medical students who have profile and may become future family and Community doctor need to have contact with this specialty, as example of what occurs in relation to other specialties in the undergraduate program.
- Medical students who will follow other specialties that are not MFC, should get to know the base of operation of this specialty. This is particularly important when you consider that most specialties will act in the health system as a reference for the referral of cases from the opinion and/or will use family and Community doctors as a reference for the General clinical follow-up of patients serviced by them.
- The participation of family and Community doctors as teachers in teaching undergraduate medical opens new possibilities of teaching, research and extension to the medical school, enlarging the involvement and responsibility of the school with the needs and demands of health of people and communities.
- MFC, as also the other specialties of the medical profession, requires experience in undergraduate education, enabling, thus, space and encouragement to its academic development on its wider sense[12].

Taking into consideration these seven reasons, the DCN and more the focus of teamwork, the preceptorship in team arose from the need to work in medical students and resident physicians the professional interaction as one of the instruments for performance in promotion, prevention, rehabilitation and restoration of individual or community health. The experience that this format of training brings is in line with the National curriculum guidelines of Medicine (DCN, 2001) as it offers students a unique opportunity to experience *in loco* the health-disease correlation with factors such as socioeconomic, sanitary and psychological conditions, and to work them in team (trainee, doctor, nurse, community health agent, nursing technician, dental surgeon). This Preceptorship model has been developed in family health unit of Jardim Teresópolis, in the city of Recife in the northeastern of Brazil, with the trainees of the course of medicine since July of 2011.

1.2 Objective:

The objective of this work is to investigate what contributions to the construction of the medical professional identity, in the perspective required by SUS, are reached from the changes in paradigms in the prescribed curriculum, the use of non-formal training spaces (PSF, community) as field to the lived curriculum and the contribution of new participants (other health professionals, users) in the Constitution of the hidden curriculum.

2 Methodology:

To investigate the effect of the training course in public health that utilizes the precentorship in team in training of those future professionals, it was held an exploratory qualitative research through the application of semi-structured questionnaires, taking as sample medical students who performed

supervised internship in Jardim Teresópolis unit in the period from July 2011 to April 2013, evaluating the precentorship and its impact on assistance received.

3 Results and Conclusion:

A Study by Moretti with nursing, dentistry and medicine students showed that in the focal group with scholars of medicine, the ideia of superiority of the doctor has prevailed, with teamwork having the doctor as Center-justified by these scholars due to the vastness of the theoretical contents in medical training when compared to other professionals, with great concern in relation to perfectionism in technical aspects-dressings, and biomedical vision based on the disease. This perspective will bump into the principles of ESF, and denounces reductionist and fragmentary vision with regard to teamwork[13].

The results obtained in this study indicate that the precentorship in team is crashing with this reality and contributes to build a differentiated view of user's health attention: integral, continuous and possible thanks to teamwork, as well as it contributes to building a professional identity longed by SUS and guided by the DCN 's.

We can also see that this form of organization enriches the hidden curriculum experienced by the students, as it provides a variety of collaborations and perceptions of public health practice. This conception is evidenced in reports of students (named in this work by Subject):

Very positive the precentorship in team, and to understand the work of each team member contributes to students to understand their limitations and know how it would be possible to obtain a more complete approach, more effective in attention/care with the patients' health". (Subject 1)

It improves student assistance. The experience of working as a team creates a climate of respect and appreciation of the work of other professionals working in the area of health. (Subject 4)

Subject 1 repot extols the benefits of a collective construction which enables a variety of perspectives in a research activity - what corroborates with the understanding of Alves e Oliveira (2012):

Many times by doing the necessary theoretical and methodological choices, we become blind to complexity and multidimensionality of what we are researching, what can induce us to misunderstandings in the comprehension of the processes that we follow and seek to study.[14]

The subject 4 perception references the understanding of value and indispensability of a symmetrical and equal treatment between people, knowledge, and professions. It is an attitude essential to work in a multidisciplinary team in the perspective required by SUS and one that can only be achieved through the participation of several employees in the formatting of the hidden curriculum.

Also it was possible to observe that this paradigm shift promotes expansion and differentiation of the lived curriculum by providing students an experience practical of how it works a multidisciplinary team from the point of view of the various participants involved in the process.

The subjects 2, 3 and 5 extol this contribution and reflect on the influence of this practice in their training:

Very enriching the preceptorship in teams, because that way we can join the theoretical and practical knowledge of more than one health care professional purchasing practices in a holistic family health. (subject 2)

Considering the student almost copy the methodology of professional preceptor, the possibility of having a Preceptorship in team facilitates the development of a own methodology of the student; for this reason, I consider it important to have an available team for the precentorship. (3)

It greatly improves the assistance of student, for it gives him/her a more comprehensive vision of health practices. (subject 5)

Generally, students reported that the experience made it possible to experience the interdisciplinary work, improving user assistance in their health needs, and the student in their pedagogical needs. Thus, they evaluated this Preceptorship model as very positive.

Understanding the curriculum involves three perspectives: the formal or prescribed, the real or lived and the hidden or secret (Perrenoud 1995) as offshoots of its own configuration[2], it is concluded that the change of paradigms in the prescribed curriculum, the use of non-formal educational spaces (USF, community) as field to the lived curriculum and the contribution of new participants (other health professionals, users) in the Constitution of hidden curriculum influence positively in the construction of professional identity, which is already in progress.

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Challenges to Curriculum Reformulation in the Teacher Education

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Abstract

The courses in teacher education are also laden with challenges in the Brazilian reality. One of the biggest is that your resume is still thought and lived in a piecemeal fashion, with a great tendency prescriptive (Lopes, 2007) where the curriculum components are aggregated to the course from different departments together professionals do not discuss the training of teachers and teachers as a curriculum project that seeks to establish a dialogue between the areas, and subject knowledge. Despite experiencing an experience unique and diverse in the Core Teacher Training (NFD), since it brings together all professionals who contribute to the training of teachers and teachers in a single administrative space, what is observed is that only the physical allocation of these professionals in the same space by itself does not generate a project that effective curricular unit. Understanding that curriculum construction arouses dissent and controversy since the curriculum is not neutral, universal, or property, but a territory controversial and even confrontational, a political arena in the words of Lopes (2007), about which it makes decisions and acts in accordance with guidelines that it is not only possible, it is necessary to the formation of reflective processes on Teacher Training with active contribution of different subjects, generating identification and adherence to the project and the establishment of a dialogue between the areas. Thus, in this paper we report the results of the first considerations made in NFD, where we perceive relevant and fomenting issues of this Training Project constitution. Among them, we enumerate the possibilities and limits of nuclear structure, the role of curriculum components that tickets graders attend the first half of the course, the expansion of space time training for extension activity, and the necessary paradigmatic shifts in training for university teaching of teachers who pervade any action curriculum for Teacher Training.

Keywords: Teacher Education; extension activities; curriculum components levels; paradigm shifts.

1 Introduction

In vocational training of teachers, the curriculum provides the action based on three pillars: teaching, research and extension. As these dimensions of educational work, articulated around the theory/practice curricular axis. Thus, in a curriculum of Teacher Education the knowledge necessary for teaching performance would need to be built into a movement that would occur throughout the course, an interaction between elaborated knowledge and that coming from practice, providing feedback, understanding and socio intervention.

Because of this curricular conception, it is necessary to provide methods of teaching that consider the learning (Pimenta; Anastasiou, 2005) to refer the student to a new model of teacher. And beyond the classroom, actions that allow the student to complement their knowledge for future teaching practice that require the knowledge to deal with the complexity of the issues and problems, favoring interaction, action and theoretically informed choices.

Understanding that curricular field studies imply to reflect on demands that generate meanings about the profession, the initial training, course projects, fights and articulations, *ie*, on the constructed discourses (Sacristan, 1998). And yet, understanding there is little production on the curriculum, focusing on teacher education of disciplinary fields and that add experiences who try to articulate teaching, research and extension, the Research Group on Education, History and Scientific Culture (GPEHCC) funded by the Foundation for Science and Technology of the State of Pernambuco (FACEPE) and by the Pro-rectorate of Extension of Federal University of Pernambuco (PROEXT-UFPE), held in 2013, the First Forum of University and Teacher Education in order to know challenges for structuring the desired Teacher Training curriculum.

In this sense, we use as theoretical-methodological support of analysis, discourse theory as Lopes (2007). Whereas speech is practice, practice discursive, field of meaning inherent in any social activity where the curriculum is understood as a place of power and culture, fighting arena, in search of the hegemony of a particular design, delimitation of seats, since the meaning something is always relational in relation to other elements. What allowed us to observe relevant and instigating issues of the constitution of a Teacher Education curriculum. Among them, we enumerate the possibilities and limits of nuclear structure, the role of curriculum components graders that students attend on the first semester of the course, the expansion of space time training for extension activity, and the necessary paradigmatic shifts in training for university teaching.

2   Scope

From the Law of Guidelines and Bases of Education from 1996, LDB 9394/96, based on the design of a basic education, which included since kindergarten to high school, as a universal right to education for all that is based on the republican principle of equality of educational opportunity, there is a succession of curricular reforms, described in detail by Ramos (2011). At first the reforms focused on the need to develop skills, in another moment the focus was over the formation of the subject in multiple dimensions. In search of integral education of quality, the challenge is in understanding the meaning of scientific knowledge, the criteria for their selection and how to organize and present them, which delivers to the interdisciplinary work the responsibility to respond to this demand.

The emphasis on practical and reflective teacher training, often justified in speaking teacher competence to face the challenges of the complexity of professional practice, will permeate the field of fighting over teacher education. Legal texts, understood as speech, representing the marks of the ambiguities and contradictions. Linked to the discourse of integral formation, we find the discourse of competence and interdisciplinary, the emphasis on professionalization, and overdetermination groups together various projects as if it were one. So the teacher training enters the arena, with different projects in dispute.

For the teacher in office, this demand constituted a process of continuing education with numerous courses and workshops. And for the initial formation was thought a new curriculum from the resolutions of the National Education Council (CNE), 2002, 2004 and 2005, which established and disciplined the National Curriculum Guidelines for Teacher Training of Basic Education in higher level courses. The curriculum of Teacher Training is then transformed and has as principles: the inseparability of theory and practice, the approach between the fields of teacher education and professional practice, the linkage between content and practical training and tasks of teacher, and interdisciplinary and problematization of experience and knowledge of teachers.

2.1   The nuclear structure

In a scenario of internal and external demands for the consolidation of a curriculum which brings not only an innovative but also direct responsibility for outcomes in basic education, in 2009, UFPE starts at three courses for Basic Education Teachers in the areas of Chemistry, Physics and Mathematics. These courses meet the guidelines demanded by the CNE, and makes it an new and until then never experienced in Brazilian higher education, in a Nucleus of Teacher Education (NFD), a physical and administrative space who brings together all professionals required for a formation as complex as the teacher.

The analysis of the reflections made in NFD indicates that the unit is not given by the physical and administrative space, before this is an arena space of conflict between areas and knowledges in the curricular proposition. However, the development of interdisciplinary projects becomes a real space of integration of the areas and curriculum construction on Teacher Education. In the interdisciplinary proposition the space of conflict is resolved by the development of activities that allow the teacher training in a reflexive process, and then it becomes possible to review the curriculum.

2.2   The curricular components graders

The poor academic performance of the student in basic education (Dickel, 2010) led to the inclusion of curriculum components graders in the first period of undergraduate courses in Physics, Chemistry and Mathematics of the NFD. It was hoped that they solve the conceptual deficiencies of the student. However, this still encountering serious difficulties for progress in higher education, especially in curricular components of specific training, and

present inability to reflect on the readings and build propositions or hypotheses. Thus, it appears that the deficiency is not only the conceptual content, but also in procedural and attitudinal (Zabala, 1998).

For Pozo and Gómez Crespo (2009), learning science as physics or chemistry student demand a change in the logic that organize their own theories, mainly so that they can ensure the overcoming restrictions imposed by preconceptions of students. Leitão (2007) considers that the negotiation process from different points of view gives to argumentation a potential epistemic that establishing it as a special resource for knowledge creation and development of reflective thinking. And for Moreira (2008), a strategy or a teaching resource that enables the negotiation of meanings contributes to meaningful learning. However, traditional practices, particularly of the scientific area educators, do not highlight the negotiation of meaning and end up promoting rote learning.

So, what is evident is that the effectiveness of the curriculum components graders necessarily passes through the commitment to provide a teaching methodology that involves the dialectic and problematization, and thus allow the discovery or construction of a relationships network, and the resulting reframing of concepts.

2.3 Expansion of space-time formation by extension

Considering the need of the relationship between higher education and society, university extension is one of the tools that academic institutions realize their social commitment. In the development of actions, outreach activities, in a perspective transformation / social action and initial and / or continued, some elements are important as the performance of the student, the quality and relevance of interdisciplinary research, its results and social impacts and the problems and issues originating in the social context of the higher education institution, which further developing their training and qualify the action of professional graduates in the construction of new knowledge that will contribute to building work in partnerships and respect other professionals and other knowledge.

We understand, therefore, that the university extension cannot be seen as another route, not only featuring as the result of parallel activities, rather as an inherent part of the curriculum and embedded in professional training, should generate knowledge, making it accessible to the student through teaching, deepening of themes and development of investigative activities in order to develop activities that can face the situations and problems they will encounter in society. In this perspective, the proposed development GPEHCC extension projects of an interdisciplinary nature by articulating teaching, research and extension within the Science Education with an emphasis in Teacher Education.

We believe that when an interdisciplinary experience and reflexive practice-theoretical are provide by the extinction action, many student teachers are constantly challenged to rethink and develop concepts build on their conceptual field at the interface with other fields. Between students and teachers of the courses offered by NFD, we have testimonials of the advance considered "miraculous", or questioning what we are doing to "recover" what was considered impossible. Not to mention the development of autonomy was already manifested in the production of methodologies, instruments for monitoring learning, scientific articles, research problem, we already have results in the field of professional activity where students are included in the development of teaching.

2.4 Paradigms changes in university teaching

Understanding that the curriculum can be understood as a continuum of learning situations, we propose to break with the paradigm of teaching knowledge as an activity merely instrumental, isolated, neutral as well as the perception of evaluation as a mechanism strictly aimed at diagnosis and effectiveness productivist (Hypolito; Vieira; Leite, 2012), which contributes to maintaining a reproduction practice and uncritical materializing interventions decontextualized. Thus students must have just in the initial training, experience different aspects of teaching and evaluation, and venturing into an innovative way to effective the curriculum.

With this objective the GPEHCC developed an action research and extension in the perspective of Science Education Project Based (ECBP), that we seek to combine the active participation of students with effective work of records of interventions that allowed them to analyze and reflect critically on their practice, creating the experience "understood" idealized by Schön (2000). Therefore as stated by Araújo (2005), experience pure and simple does not achieve a positive teaching practice, this occurs only when there is concomitant to the teaching practice, reflective practice. By assuming the role of the researcher of their own practice the teacher becomes autonomous, sensitive and attentive to the complexity of the space which is inserted enabling the permanent construction of teacher identity (Passos, 2010).

The problem-based approach has been incorporated in some components of the undergraduate curriculum of the NFD, encouraging interdisciplinary between areas that make up the teaching knowledge and allowing that the

concepts learned in other subjects are articulated by students and contribute directly to the construction of new knowledge. It has been observed from this practice a growing ability of students to refer and apply the knowledge learned in an articulated way, reflexively and autonomously.

3   Conclusion

The process of interiorization of the Public University in Pernambuco, Brazil, is anchored on the need for integration that could articulate areas, teachers, and university courses with civil and productive society of region. In this sense, the proposal of nucleation was elaborated, since 2006, which maintains a common infrastructure and management, and thinking the integration of teachers not in departments or courses, but in a nucleus that adds specificity, in the case of this article, the NFD , would constitute the space of Teacher Education. However, policies are re-signified by the subjects in the contexts of their practices, and the presence of the nucleus does not guarantee effectively the development of projects for the simple fact of geographical concentration.

On the other hand, the coexistence between professionals from different fields in the same space, presents itself as a facilitator of development of actions among those teachers who share Projects Formation beyond the "disciplinary walls". Within this scenario, it is observed that the space afforded by the proposed ECPB promotes confrontation between the model teacher who comes rooted in teacher on training with the model of teacher professional researcher and reflective. This space of confrontation affords, from reflection and research, construct and reconstruct professional knowledge. It is understandable, then, that the action on a proposal ECBP constitutes in a space with potential for the production of new teacher knowledge by reflexive praxis.

The actions of the GPEHCC have enabled further debate, research and study of issues about nucleation, the curriculum, the role of curriculum components graders, the role of teacher educators, intervention strategies, the training field, interdisciplinary, extension activities in areas of teaching, offer of electives curricular components, gender and identity. What has potentialized the "curricular arena" in searching agonistic of a Formation Project that articulates senses, meanings in social practice.

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Curriculum and Social Responsibility: a comparative study of perceptions of engineering students from four universities

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Abstract

In a time when concerns about sustainability are being discussed on a global scale, such as the Rio +20 last year, is important to discuss Social Responsibility (SR) in Higher Education, because Institutions of Higher Education train the coming generations of citizens and have the expertise in all fields of research (CRE-COPERNICUS, 1994 cited by Wright, 2004). We consider that Universities have responsibilities in contributing to incorporation of values related to Social Responsibility, in framing the curriculum and extra-curricular activities.

The field of engineering is a key field to creating a sustainable future, because it's graduated have a major impact in environmental, economic and social terms.

The World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD), since its beginning in 1995, faces the challenges of sustainable development based on three inseparable pillars: generation of economic wealth, environmental improvement and social responsibility, the third strongly present in the international political agenda (Holmes & Watts, 2000). Hence, the relevance of the present study.

The purpose of this study is to compare perceptions of engineering students from four universities - Minho (Portugal), Coruña (Spain) and Aguascalientes and Guanajuato (Mexico) about the presence of SR at the University and in the respective degree program. These institutions collaborate in an international research project on Social Responsibility in Higher Education that aims to contribute to a comparison of SR existing perspectives and curriculum innovation in various professional areas, along with contributing to the Ibero-American connections.

1   Introduction

This study is part of an international research project involving four universities and three countries, Minho (Portugal), Coruña (Spain) and Aguascalientes and Guanajuato (Mexico).

The research project focuses on representations of the three main actors in the university setting on the concept and practice of SR in University: (I) Students, (II) Professors, and (III) University Directors. In an attempt to have a broader picture of these representations, students and teachers from four different training areas were involved: (I) Arts, (II) Education, (III) Engineering and Technology; and, (IV) Economics and Management (van Hattum-Janssen, N.; Sánchez Fernández, M. D.; Caires, S.; Kahn, S., 2012). In this study, the emphasis is on students' perspectives of Engineering.

2   Curriculum and Social Responsibility

The interest in Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) appears associated with progressive changes in the socioeconomic panorama in the light of which companies begin to redeem the human values and start to take on the challenges of the internationalization of capital, labor and processes of trade liberalization (Sánchez-Fernández, 2011).

In 2001, the *Green Paper of the European Union* referred to the concept of CSR in its broadest sense, highlighting the need for companies to contribute to the improvement of society and of the environment. The concept of CSR is to be interpreted more broadly, an orientation that appears reflected in the works of authors such as Martin at al. (2008), which identify CSR as a phenomenon of business management, showing, however, concerns about all corporate actions that might affect third parties, due to the factored approach to economic interests. In the same line of thought, Gessa et al (2008) argue that the company should take an active, participatory and proactive attitude in the development of society and to meet the expectations of stakeholders (as cited in Sánchez-Fernández, 2012).

CSR refers to relational aspects between a company or organization and the social environment in which it operates (Sánchez-Fernández, 2011). However, if the ideas and definitions presented by various authors allow us to realize the importance and scope of this concept, the fact that we are in presence of a relational concept prevents the creation of a single definition since there is no consensus to support it (Sánchez-Fernández, 2011). It is therefore necessary to clarify what we mean when we use this concept.

In the current study we stand on the view that corporate sustainability and CSR refer to corporate activities - voluntary by definition - demonstrating the inclusion of social and environmental concerns in business operations and in interactions with stakeholders. This is a broad definition of corporate sustainability and CSR (van Marrewijn, 2003), identical to the one recommended by the *World Business Council for Sustainable Development* (WBCSD), since its foundation in 1995. According to this definition, the answers to the challenges of sustainable development are based on three fundamental and interrelated pillars: the generation of economic wealth, environmental improvement and social responsibility, being the third pillar firmly present in the international political agenda (Holmes & Watts, 2000).

Another aspect worth noting is that sustainability, for a long time considered a concern associated to the business sphere, has being, lately, the focus of attention inside Higher Education institutions and giving place to the concept of Higher Education Social Responsibility (HESR) and/or Sustainability in Higher Education (SHE). It is now widely accepted the idea that all HE students have to be trained according to sustainability criteria and values, so that, in their future citizenship and professional activities, they can carry out socially responsible practices (Geli, Junyent & Sanches, 2003; Tilbury, 2004 cited in Junient & Ciurana, 2008).

Many key issues were highlighted and emerged in statements of SHE, since the 90s, including the ethical and moral responsibility of the HE institutions to contribute to local, regional and global levels of sustainability.

Multiple declarations of international organizations call attention to the need for HE institutions to promote research that lead to sustainability. For example, Principle 4 of the Kyoto Agreement argues that HE institutions should promote research and action for sustainable development (Wright, 2004), i.e. HE institutions must become models of sustainability in their own communities, encouraging the adoption of sustainable practices, ecological literacy and the development of interdisciplinary *curricula* and research endeavors on sustainability, creating partnerships and cooperation with governmental, non-governmental organizations and industry, as well as with other HE institutions (Wright, 2004). According to Junient and Ciurana (2008), only then HE will play a significant role in the backing up of the shift to a sustainable future.

However, if HE institutions "awareness of social, economical and ecological aspects of their contacts with students, parents, suppliers, companies and society in general is important" (van Hattum-Janssen, N.; Sánchez Fernández, M. D.; Caires, S.; Kahn, S., 2012, p. 330), this awareness requires the implementation of a curriculum concept substantially different from what has prevailed in the school systems and that educational practices assume a new meaning (Morgado, 2003). One change, according to Goodson (2007), involves abandoning the notions of *prescriptive curriculum* and *of learning content-based curriculum* in favor of a more open and flexible one - *the curriculum narrative* - which, without neglecting the value of knowledge, helps each individual to learn to be in the social context in which they live, a curriculum that allows us to understand that "the experiences of people are dialectically linked to the social relations of the society in which they are embedded" (Goodson, 2008, p. 25) and should, therefore, be an integral part of their learning.

Furthermore, to reorient education for sustainable development is needed "a new way of thinking" (Freire, 2007, p. 147). Education for sustainable development is a dynamic concept that seeks to integrate the whole society in order to get people to take responsibility for creating a sustainable future. To educate for sustainability and science is the essential vehicle to fulfill this purpose (Freire, 2007). But, for this new way of thinking to arise, it is important that the curriculum development projects are guaranteed by multidisciplinary research teams, similar to the ones found in the research group that prepared this text. In any educational project, the curriculum is a privilege instrument that, in articulation and completing of its core elements (objectives, contents, methods, resources and assessment components) constitutes itself as a guideline for conducting learning experiences resulting from

interaction between students and teachers in a particular context (Pacheco, 2005) and should, therefore, involve different areas of knowledge in an interdisciplinary logic.

It was based on the previous assumptions that the present group of researchers considered that Engineering Education is of extreme importance. The intrinsic corporate agendas addressing issues such as efficient land use and infrastructures, microclimates, health, transport and energy use (UNESCO, 2010) and the presence of engineers in various areas of activity, transversely to the whole society, make it inevitable. Therefore, we reiterate that the SR is critical to creating a sustainable future and engineers are privileged agents in economic, social and environmental concerns. However, there are still many steps to be taken at the level of educational improvements in the engineering curriculum in order to overcome some of the contemporary challenges that our society faces (Pritchard & Baillie, 2006, p. 556). It is important; therefore, to identify the point of view of the actors involved in the process of Engineering Education, namely the students, in order to, in a later stage, design more appropriate curriculum development proposals.

3   Methodology

Regarding the collection of data from students, we opted for the methodology of Focus Groups (FG) because it allows to collect information about the perceptions, attitudes, feelings and / or opinions and knowledge about a particular topic (Gibbs, 1997; Peterson & Barron, 2007; Peterson-Sweeney, 2005; Rodriguez, Schwartz, Lahman & Geist, 2011), revealing itself as a very useful methodology in the Social Sciences field.

Usually, research using FG is defined as a way to collect qualitative data that essentially involves a small number of people in focused informal discussions or a set of questions in a particular theme (Wilkinson, 2004; cited by Onwuegbuzie, Dickinson, Wendy Leech & Zoran, 2009). The FG are, in the opinion of the research team, the most appropriate methodology for promoting the sharing and viewing of information between participants, sharing that this is not possible in individual interviews.

3.1   Participants

This study includes a total of 28 Engineering students of the 4 Universities / 3 countries - University of Minho (UM), Portugal; University of Coruña (UC), Spain, and; Autonomous University of Aguascalientes (UA) and University of Guanajuato (UG), Mexico - integrated in 4 FG.

The division of the participants by university is: 7 students of UM; 10 students of UC; 7 students of UA and 4 students of UG. All these students attend higher education, and, in these cases, a Bachelor's Degree or Master.

3.2   Instruments

In order to identify the SR perspectives, views and experiences of students of Engineering, a FG interview guide was developed for students of Engineering of the four universities (n=4).

All FG were conducted by a team of two people: a moderator and an assistant moderator and were recorded on audio tape recorder. The FG script-based was adapted to the students' mother tongue (not changing in any way the content) and had fifteen basic questions: 5 on familiarization with the concept, 5 about the known practices of SR, 4 about the SR in the university context and 1 about the SR in the future professional context.

3.3   Procedure

For the realization of the FG, the moderator contacted the Degree Program Director in order to get contacts of students. In some cases send a general email to all students and in other cases spoke with the representative of the class or the core of students to see how many students agreed to participate.

Initially the moderator made up a contextualization of the study and a clarification of the goals of the study. The voluntary and confidential nature of the student participation was emphasized. Anonymity was guaranteed and was reinforced with the students.

During the FG, the moderator was responsible for facilitating the discussion, encouraging students to express their ideas and take notes of potential issues to become new questions. The assistant moderator was responsible for taking notes, recording audio and check later the data recordings (Kruger & Casei, 2000 cited in van Hattum-Janssen, N.; Sánchez Fernández, M. D.; Caires, S.; Kahn, S., 2012). In the end, the team proceeded to thank all the students for their participation in this study.

4   Results and discussion

In this paper, we will only focus on the contact that students had with SR and the presence of SR in university/degree program.

Before presenting the data, we consider important to explain how we did the categorization of data. We create a table organized by university and by questions and, according to the responses obtained; we create a categorization of responses by topic or number.

Table 1: Data collected from engineering students

University / Question	Corunã	Minho	Guanajuato	Aguascalientes
Have you ever had contact with the concept of social responsibility?	No students	3 students	No students	All students
Does it make sense to develop, a project that meets the social responsibility along your degree programme?	Yes – 1 student No – various students	Yes – all students	Yes – all students	Yes – all students
What is the perception that you have of the presence of social responsibility in your university?	Donations Volunteer department	Scholarships Collecting of goods for the underprivileged Separating of waste	Social service Professional service	Humanistic training program Social services Water treatment plan Activities with social causes Separation of garbage Workshops that inspire students to support
What do you consider your university could do more in this area (SR in the university)?	Question not included	More openness in political terms Spaces for debate and reflection to economics, sociology, etc. Development of students in motherhood questions	More environmental support programs (reforestation) Social programs (gathering food, clothes, etc.)	Scholarships Transportation Incentives Resources Fundraising projects

How important is to include in your training some content on social responsibility?	Important – 1 student	Important – all student	Important – all student	Important – all student

The data contained in Table 1 relate to the views expressed by students who participated in the FG, conducted in the four universities involved in the study. Since this is a first approach to this issue, the data collected show that, on one hand, this is a relatively recent issue and, given its relevance, must, on the other hand, become part of the discussions that take place within the institutions of higher education.

Asked if they had ever had contact with the RS concept, we found that the majority of students, have heard or haven't heard about SR, had not thought about it and hadn't participated in any debate on this topic. Exceptions to three UM students and all students who participated in the FG of UA, where everyone claims to know the concept. It should also be noted that one of UM students claimed to have been aware of this concept through a Political Party, specifically in the development of activities within a group Youth Caucus. In the case of UA students, it isn't surprising that the concept is approached in the university context, since it is a mandatory subject of curricula related to environmental issues, which has leveraged its knowledge.

On the second issue, related to the fact that students consider or not to make sense to develop a project that meets the SR along the degree programme, a significant majority of young people consider positive this hypothesis. In the opinion of these students, the university, as an entity of scientific and cultural training, should also pay attention to social issues, preparing individuals for sustainable and sustained future interventions.

There is curious that, although students from UM, UG and AU consider beneficial to include in their course a project to sensitize them to the importance of SR, there are 9 students from UC that affirm that doesn't make sense a SR project in their degree program, especially if we consider that, in the previous question, all students of the university had never claimed to have had contact with the subject.

Regarding the perception that students have of their university activities that enliven and that can contribute to improving knowledge and practices in this area, all gave valid examples, such as the existence of a kindergarten integrated into university, scholarships, the collection of goods for the underprivileged, the development of devices for the treatment of water, awareness of the need for waste separation, among others. It should be noted that, while students from UM, UC and UG gave only examples of the social and economic forum, the students of UA gave several examples of an environmental nature, which shows the scope of the topic.

For other types of SR practices that could be developed in their university, students came forward with several examples, highlighting the need for greater political openness on the part of the institution, creating spaces for debate on issues-oriented ethical, social and economic, the existence of a good transport network, scholarships and study materials, developing fundraising projects, i.e., a set of concerns that contribute to an effective SR structure.

Finally, in the stage of conclusion of the interviews, students were asked to comment on the importance of including in their degree program, content addressing the SR. All UM, UG and AU students considered this possibility very fruitful, except students of UC, where only one student refer that is important, which reinforces the position that these students had taken in the previous questions.

5 Conclusion

By way of final balance of this stage of the project, over which we conducted an exploratory study on the perceptions of students about SR and practices developed in universities, is important to emphasize four aspects that seem relevant.

Firstly, is the fact that the SR concept is relatively unknown in the four universities who participated in the study. In all cases, the students do not demonstrate that they have appropriate this concept. Only after a brief explanation from interviewers, they could give examples of RS at the university and / or the surrounding community.

Secondly, the practices that the university they attend develops, or could develop, within the SR. Students identified some practices that are develop in SR context and a number of conditions that, although they may

contribute to the development of RS in the institutions they attend, not directly depend on students, but the ministries that oversee, such as network transport or the granting of scholarships.

Thirdly, the fact that a significant majority of students believe that it makes sense to incorporate thematic and / or procedures of RS in the degree program.

Finally, it appears that, in relation to the importance of SR, there are no significant differences regarding the country or the specific context where each university is inserted. We believe that the case of UC is not a position of disagreement; it is a punctual case that reveals the ignorance of students about the benefits that can result from an effective commitment of universities in strengthening and / or development of these themes. This is an issue to be clarified in future studies.

What does not raise controversy is the role that universities can play in educating interventional citizens with sense of responsibility, whether scientific or cultural, whether in economic terms, and also in social terms. For this to happen, it is necessary that Universities contribute to the promotion of values and the development of skills and competencies that deepen the social commitment of students with a more solidarity, more just, i.e., more democratic future.

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Higher Education in Portugal and Cape Verde: curricular challenges

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Introduction

We are currently facing a turning period, living a visible transformation in society in general, and in the education in particular, due to the globalization policies, which impose new forms of regulation of society.

During the last decades, Portugal and Cape Verde, experienced a significant evolution in higher education (CNE, 2013; Varela, 2013; 2012), reflecting the commitment of the public authorities, academic institutions and other agents in promoting quality of academic projects and products, seeking thereby meet the aspirations of their societies.

Not ignoring national realities, but under the influence of transnational and supranational entities, more evident in Portugal, were introduced reforms in the education system, mainly in higher education, emerging new curricular proposals and new methods for the promotion and quality assessment according to the patterns shaped by the European Union (EU), the World Bank (WB) and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD).

With the implementation of the Bologna process in the Portuguese higher education, was created the Agency for Assessment and Accreditation (A3ES)[1], in order to guarantee the quality required by the European standards and guidelines.

Regarding Cape Verde, in 2012, the legal system's reform in the higher education, gave rise the process of accreditation, in new ways, of the institutions and higher education courses, including the public university (Varela & Pacheco, 2013).

In this text, we briefly analyse the implementation framework, of the policy options of the higher education in Portugal and Cape Verde. Therefore, we refer the policies of globalization prevailing in Europe, mainly the process of Bologna, which ensure the quality of courses and a greater mobility within Europe, although leads to the curriculum's recentralization and of the outcomes, as well as to the standardization of knowledge and to the accreditation processes, phenomena which also strongly influence the higher education in Cape Verde, due to the close relations between this small country in the Middle Atlantic, the former colonial metropolis (Portugal) and the European Union, connected by a special Partnership Agreement, which are reflected in particular by the approximation of forms of legal regulation, curriculum and academic praxis, as well as the models of accreditation and evaluation, enhanced by the significant mobility of teachers of both countries.

The text also provides a brief reflective approach of curricular challenges to higher education in both countries, which are expressed on the basis of two dichotomous trends, but complementary and part of the institutions' everyday: the alignment with universal standards of regulation and assessment of higher education' quality; concerning the curriculum options, the affirmation of the purpose of higher education institutions reflect the specificities of the respective countries, namely culture, identity, traditions and national development aspirations.

Globalization policies

Currently, Cape Verde and Portugal meet new forms of regulation emerging from globalization policies which defend the standardization and homogenization of processes and practices imposed or induced by transnational and supranational organizations, including the EU, the World Bank and the OECD, promoting, thereby, the cognitive regulation through a conceptual change (Pacheco, 2011), sustained by the legitimacy and by knowledge sharing (Steiner-Khamsi, 2012), as well as by the imposition of standards for measuring academic results (Maroy, 2012).

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[1] Decree-Law n. 369/2007, of november 5.

The harmonization and standardization of policies are in the basis for national proposals with identical reforms, which intersect with the travelling policies, which according to Steiner-Khamsi (2012, p. 11), "one does not know where they come from, or go to; they are at the same time nobodoy's and everybody's reform ". Respectively, Maroy (2012) says that this reform is impregnated of logics of legitimation of valid knowledge and by the ideology of "accountability", *i.e.*, the standardization of processes is replaced by standardization of academic results.

Therefore, in this recent reforms' context occurred in the higher education, we face doubts and uncertainties. However, we also face certainties, namely, that globalization is, in general, connected to a technical unicity (Santos, 2011) and, in particular, to a centrality of results and standardization of knowledge, rather than national differences indeed relevant. However, contrary to these global trends, there are practices promoting the increment of the autonomy of teachers and students, concerning the accomplishment of the curriculum, in environments conducive to reflection, recreation and appropriation innovative of the submitted curriculum in order to get the deepest meaning of the education, not aiming to educate automata, but to education of autonomous individuals, aware of their social role and able to integrate themselves the active life, envisaging their personal, professional and social fulfilment (Varela, 2011).

Educational Policies in Cape Verde

In an international context, Cape Verde is not immune to the pressures related to the imposition of standards of the educational policies, aiming the standardization of both education and curriculum. As such, reforms were introduced in higher education, under the influence of globalization policies and the European agenda, through the strong relationships it has with Portugal. Consequently, Cape Verde has as reference the Portuguese education system.

In the first decade of this century, Cape Verde faced a rapid expansion of the education offer, with a renewed framework, diverse and open. Consequently, in 2002/2003, Cape Verde had a greater number of students inside the country than abroad (Bartolomeu & Pacheco, 2013).

However the public university continued with autonomy to create, in the light of its statutes, the courses, without any requirement to bind to a legal obligation to previous accreditation, which only occurred in 2012, not following, however, "the institutionalization of a regulation system, and evaluation of its performance" (Varela, 2013, p. 1).

Assessment practices became regulated by Decree-Laws No. 20/2012, of 19 July, and 22/2012, of 17 August. However, in higher education, internal evaluation continued to occupy a more prominent status, focused on the measurement of academic knowledge, under the supervision of the Quality Council (Varela & Pacheco, 2013). The external evaluation continues to be carried out by Portuguese academics, through occasional invitations by the competent government department.

Given such scenario, it is urgent to establish, in the coming years, a system of consolidated evaluation practices that ensure the quality of higher education.

Educational Policies in Portugal

Portugal, like other EU Member States, besides confronting with a "globally structured agenda", grounded in the OECD (Dale, 2004; Teodoro, 2003), is also confronted with the supranational agenda based in EU discursive practices imposed on "lifelong learning", "expertise", "skill", "quality" and other training standards, grounded in professional skills (Pacheco, 2009).

Facing such educational scenario, Dale (2008) supports that there is a "European education", subdivided into other common spaces, "European higher education", "European Research" among others, which support the "Europeanization of curriculum". Therefore, in Lisbon's Agenda's perspective, the reform of the universities is based on the European university of the Bologna Process, in order to converge the higher education systems (Pacheco, 2009), inviting to such Portuguese reality's approach, the higher education reform resulting from the "European higher Education Area" which has resulted in the implementation of such process.

Bologna imposes supported pedagogical practices in three areas: didactic (formal classes); tutorial (dialogues between teachers and students) and investigative (studies and research conducted by the students). This philosophy leads us to Papert's pedagogical constructionism's concept (2008, p.134), when he says that "the goal is to teach in order to produce the greatest learning from the minimum of teaching." However, it is constituted by curricular units that follow a logic of credits and learning outcomes common to all EU countries. Despite allowing greater mobility of

students in the EU Member States, is anchored to a pedagogy of goals, not as a point starting, but as a point of arrival, i.e., focused on academic results, that fits into Tylor's practice.

In addition to the Bologna process and to increase the quality of higher education and the effectiveness of education systems in the EU countries, came up in 2009, the A3ES, an agency of public utility, in order to create procedures and external structures assessment associated to the existing internal structures assessment. Therefore, as from that date, A3ES became responsible, *a priori*, for the validation of new courses, no longer possible to open its courses without accreditation, and *a posteriori* for the validation of the courses already running in the institutions, i.e., is then responsible for approving, or not, of the courses and programs (Bartolomeu & Pacheco, 2013).

Curricular challenges

To better respond to the level of higher education in modern and democratic society, OECD, the European Commission, UNESCO and CNE, defend that higher education still needs greater attention and appreciation of extracurricular activities. According to the CNE (2013), these activities, also contributes to a differentiation and enrichment of personal journey in higher education, contributing to the mainstreaming of knowledge increasingly valued, required in the labour market also more demanding, being peremptory that graduates possess characteristics to distinguish them from the others, in order to easily framed them in the labour market. Therefore, the higher education institutions should give priority to the conditions for students to actively participate in these activities.

Bearing in mind the above said and according to the studies of the CNE (2013), the mobility of students, through programs which enable them the frequency of one or more semesters during their course of study at another institution of higher education, is an added value in academic and cultural terms. As such, education carried out at these institutions is complemented by extracurricular cultural systems, which provide an enriching and meaningful learning, assuming also that the field of knowledge is not restricted to formal learning environments, also covering informal environments of social interaction and cultural institutions.

Given the above, we find that, in the context of the internationalization of higher education, there are also possibilities for the development of processes and practices for translating national and local specificities in the global context, promoting areas for mutually supportive cooperation, by exploiting approach opportunities of higher education institutions, thus contributing to the development of the curriculum, from a perspective of collaborative network, in an emancipatory bases and with respect for reality, culture, and national idiosyncrasies.

Conclusion

Regarding the above mentioned, we conclude that the globalization policies intersect homogeneously the higher education, even though the procedures of standardization are more explicit in Portugal, through the Bologna process, than in Cape Verde.

Cape Verde and Portugal have been adopted in the reform of higher education, educational policies to create and implement a development process to ensure the quality, organizing activities with international rules. However, despite this renewed framework for higher education, open for a greater number of students, both countries must continue to focus on increasing higher qualifications, in order to achieve this Knowledge New Age's specific demands, and market increasingly competitive.

To this end, both countries should continue to make efforts to improve the conditions of access and frequency to higher education and, consequently, achieve the academic success.

Consequently, it is necessary to reflect, to innovate the educational practices, and adapt educational outcomes, enriching the experience of attendance in higher education, easing the curricula and methods assessment, not disregarding the requirement.

In this context, CNE (2013) suggest that students should be able to choose part of their curricular units that set their study cycle. These curricular units may be within their area of study or in a broader range of other areas of knowledge.

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Homework Interests of Primary School Education Department Students and Identification of the Predictor Variables

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to identify 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th year Primary School Education Department students' homework interest scores and to explore the affecting variables regarding homework interest. In line with this main objective, the study aims to explore the extent to which homework purpose, homework management, homework attitude, homework timing, coming to class without homework scores can explain academic achievement, gender, and grade level variables. The present study is based on a relational survey design. Target population is all 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th year students enrolled in the Primary School Education Department at the University of Çukurova in the 2010-2011 academic year. The participants are 443 students who volunteered to participate in the study: 90 first year students, 103 second year students, 140 third year students, and 110 fourth year students. The data were collected through a) Homework Attitude Scale developed by Gündüz (2005), b) Homework Interest Scale developed by Xu (2009) and adapted by the researcher herself, and c) Homework Management Scale. No instruments were used in determining the students' academic achievement level, but their actual scores in their courses were taken as a base for their general average scores. Analysis of the data was performed using stepwise linear regression analysis. Findings show that the students' homework interest scores can be explained by the "attitudes towards the importance and benefit of homework", "homework-related affective attitudes" sub-scales of Homework Attitude Scale; "controlling emotion" sub-scale of Homework Management Scale; and "the status of doing homework on time", "gender", and "grade level" variables. Female students' homework interest scores were found to be higher than those of male students.

Key words: Homework interest, homework purpose, homework management, homework attitude, primary school education department students

1. Introduction

Showing little interest in homework, students often view it as routine and mundane; and their attitudes toward homework become more negative throughout the school years (Bryan & Nelson, 1994; Chen & Stevenson, 1989; Cooper, Lindsay, Nye, & Greathouse, 1998; Warton, 2001; Xu, 2004). Homework involves teachers, students, and parents in the contexts of school and home, which makes it a multidimensional process (Cooper, 1989, 2001, 2004; Corno, 1996; Epstein & Pinkow, 1988; Epstein & Van Voorhis, 2001; Warton, 2001). As stated by Corno and Mandinach (2004), the guidance, feedback, and support offered by the important people in students' life (e.g., teachers and parents) promote engagement, interest, and expertise. As students having various different characteristics (e.g., grade level and ability) are engaged in social and academic contexts where homework is completed, they begin to combine their own thinking and behavior as well as their beliefs, attitudes, and interests.

Interest is typically defined as "a motivational variable [which] refers to the psychological state of engaging or the predisposition to reengage with particular classes of objects, events, or ideas over time" (Hidi & Renninger, 2006, p.112).

Educators have been striving with challenges of working with academically unmotivated students (Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000), research and theories aiming to understand them seem to focus on interest (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Hidi & Renninger, 2006; Krapp, 2007; Schiefele, 2001; Silvia, 2008), which promoted a variety of desirable outcomes (e.g., Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Hidi & Renninger, 2006). For instance, interest has proven to have positive effects on attention (e.g., Hidi, Renninger, & Krapp, 2004; Schiefele, 1998), persistence (e.g., Prenzel, 1992; Renninger & Hidi, 2002), and levels of learning (e.g., Alexander & Murphy, 1998; Renninger & Hidi, 2002; Schiefele, 1999; Schraw & Dennison, 1994).

The related literature suggests that interest is affected by various factors. For instance, the person-object theory of interest (Krapp, 2005, 2007) suggests that interest is developed and maintained by the influence of a dual regulation system, including a cognitive component (e.g., values and goals) and an affective component (e.g., emotion-related experiences). The theory also claims that the cognitive component includes self-regulatory strategies for monitoring the possible outcomes of an action. This view is parallel to the views of other theorists on the use of self-regulatory strategies pertaining to how to make tasks more interesting and develop interest in an activity which before was less interesting (e.g., Ainley, 2006; Renninger & Hidi, 2002; Sansone, 2000; Sansone, Wiebe, & Morgan, 1999; Wigfield & Eccles, 2002; Wolters, 1998). The person-object theory of interest further posits that social class,

gender, age, or other individual characteristics such as intelligence may also have influence on interest (Krapp, 2007). A number of theorists argue that important people in students' life (e.g., parents and teachers) may play an important role in enhancing interest through external support and continuous feedback (e.g., Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000; Hidi & Renninger, 2006; Reeve, 2006; Renninger & Hidi, 2002).

Considering this line of literature, interest is influenced by a number of variables, including an affective component, a cognitive component and background variables. Therefore, it is important that models of students' interests should include these variables. There has been an increasing call for reexamining the homework process in order to make homework tasks more engaging and interesting (Epstein & Van Voorhis, 2001; Leone & Richards, 1989; Warton, 2001; Xu, 2004). Several empirical studies demonstrate that students do not feel positive about homework and do not view their homework as interesting. On the other hand, a number of studies indicate several factors that may link to homework interest, including gender (e.g., Xu, 2004; 2008), grade level (e.g., Xu, 2004, 2006, 2008), adult monitoring (e.g., Leone & Richard, 1989; Trautwein et al., 2006), and student initiative and attitude (e.g., Cooper et al., 1998; Xu & Corno, 1998).

Homework is quite important as an out-of-class teaching activity in Turkish Education System; however, studies at national level are limited both in theme and number (Akın,1998; Babadoğan, 1990; Çetinkaya, 1992; Demirel, 1989; Gür, 2003; Hizmetçi, 2009; İflazoğlu Saban, in press; İflazoğlu and Hong, 2011, 2012; Yapıcı, 1995; Yücel, 2004). These studies have investigated such topics as the effect of homework on academic achievement, the relationship between the academic achievement and the time spent on homework, the problems encountered while doing homework, the link between the amount of homework and students' attitudes towards homework, homework purpose and homework-doing styles. Review of the related literature at national level has shown that there are no studies which aim to discover students' homework interest and the affecting variables regarding homework interest. However, homework-related problems can be decreased by investigating students-teachers' homework interest.

The purpose of this study is to identify 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th year Primary School Education Department students' homework interest scores and to explore the affecting variables regarding homework interest. In line with this main objective, the study aims to explore the extent to which homework purpose, homework management, homework attitude, homework timing, coming to class without homework scores can explain academic achievement, gender, and grade level variables

2. Method

2.1 Participants

The present study is based on a relational survey design. Target population is all 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th year students enrolled in the Primary School Education Department at the University of Çukurova in the 2010-2011 academic year. The participants are 443 students who volunteered to participate in the study: 90 first year students, 103 second year students, 140 third year students, and 110 fourth year students.

2.2. Instruments

The data were collected through a) Homework Attitude Scale developed by Gündüz (2005), b) Homework Interest Scale developed by Xu (2009) and adapted by the researcher herself, and c) Homework Management Scale. No instruments were used in determining the students' academic achievement level, but their actual scores in their courses were taken as a base for their general average scores.

Homework Interest Scale: Homework Interest Scale developed by Xu (2009) and adapted by the researcher herself was used in collecting data. Three items were used with a view to assessing the level of homework interest as perceived by students. These items measure the extent to which students consider homework interesting as well as the extent they like homework assignments. The items in the Homework Interest Scale are; "Overall, do you think the homework you get is _____ [Responses are 1 (*very boring*), 2 (*boring*), 3 (*neither boring nor interesting*), 4 (*interesting*), and 5 (*very interesting*)]"; "How do you feel about homework in general? [Responses are 1 (*don't like it at all*), 2 (*don't like it much*), 3 (*neither like it nor dislike it*), 4 (*like it a little*), and 5 (*like it very much*)]"; "How does your homework affect your interest in school? [Responses are 1 (*decreases it a lot*), 2 (*decreases it a little*), 3 (*does not make a difference*), 4 (*increases it a little*), and 5 (*increases it a lot*)]". Alpha reliability coefficient for the scores on this scale was found .82. The form also involves questions regarding the participants' demographical characteristics.

Homework Purpose Scale (HPS): The HPS developed and validated by Xu (Xu, 2010a, 2011) is composed of 15 items using a 4-point response format in which students are asked to select one option among 1 (*strongly disagree*), 2 (*disagree*), 3 (*agree*), or 4 (*strongly agree*). The has contains three sub-scales including (a) Learning-Oriented Reasons

(9-item sub-scale, e.g., "doing homework helps you understand what's going in class"), (b) Adult-Oriented Reasons (3-item sub-scale, e.g., "doing homework brings you family approval"), and (c) Peer-Oriented Reasons (3-item sub-scale, e.g., "doing homework gives you opportunities to learn from classmates"). Based on the results of the study with secondary school students (Xu, 2010b), alpha reliability coefficients for scores on these three sub-scales were found .90 for Learning-Oriented Reasons, .79 for Adult-Oriented Reasons, and .79 for Peer-Oriented Reasons. Following this, Xu (2011) tested the validity of scores on the HPS for eighth grade secondary school students. Alpha reliability coefficients for the scores on these three sub-scales were found .89, .79 and .76 respectively. Alpha reliability coefficients have been found .87, .74 and .77 (within an ideal range) in the present study.

Homework Management Scale (HMS; Xu, 2008b, 2008c): The HMS is composed of 22 items and uses a 5-point response format in which students are asked to choose an option among 1 (*never*), 2 (*rarely*), 3 (*sometimes*), 4 (*often*), or 5 (*routinely*). The scale has five sub-scales, including (a) arranging the environment (5-item sub-scale, e.g., "finding a quiet place"), (b) managing time (4-item sub-scale, e.g., "setting priority and planning ahead"), (c) handling distraction (5-item sub-scale, e.g., "stopping homework to send or receive instant messaging"), (d) monitoring motivation (4-item sub-scale, e.g., "finding ways to make homework more interesting"), (e) focusing attention (5-item sub-scale, e.g., "daydreaming during a homework session") and (f) controlling emotion (4-item sub-scale, e.g., "calming myself down"). Of the 27 items in the HMS, 5 items were reverse-scored. Alpha reliability coefficient for the scores on five sub-scales were .75, .74, .74, .83, .70 and .80 respectively. In this study, internal consistency estimates (Cronbach's alpha) for homework management strategy range from .70 to .83 (mdn = .76). Besides, the students were asked, "How much of your assigned homework do you usually complete?" for which they chose one option among 1 (*none*), 2 (*some*), 3 (*about half*), 4 (*most*), and 5 (*all*). The students were also asked "How often do you come to class without your homework?" Possible responses include 1 (*never*), 2 (*rarely*), 3 (*sometimes*), 4 (*often*), and 5 (*routinely*).

Homework Attitude Scale: The Homework Attitude Scale developed by Gündüz (Gündüz, 2005) is composed of 31 items and uses a 5-point response format in which students are asked to select an option among 1 (*strongly disagree*), 2 (somewhat *disagree*), 3 (moderately *disagree*), 4 (quite *agree*), or 5 (*strongly agree*). The scale has three sub-scales including (a) The Importance and Benefit of Homework (12-item sub-scale, e.g., "homework is not nothing more than copies of existing information"), (b) Homework-related Affective Attitudes (14-item sub-scale, e.g., "the idea of doing homework is troubling"), and (c) Homework Preparation Status (5-item sub-scale, e.g., "homework should be done no matter what the circumstances"). Based on the results of Gündüz's study, alpha reliability coefficients for the scores on these three sub-scales were found .94 for the "Importance and Benefit of Homework", .93 for "Homework-related Affective Attitudes", and .69 for "Homework Preparation Status". In the present study, alpha reliability coefficients for the scores on these three sub-scales are .92 for the "Importance and Benefit of Homework", .92 for "Homework-related Affective Attitudes", and .70 for "Homework Preparation Status". Internal consistency estimates (Cronbach's alpha) for Homework Attitude Scale range from .70 to .92 (mdn = .81) in this study.

2.3. Procedure

The data were gathered from a group of undergraduate students enrolled in Primary School Education Department at the University of Çukurova. The questionnaires were administered to the participants in different courses. The researcher herself administered the questionnaires, explained the purpose of the study, and assured the students of the confidentiality of their responses. The instructions were read aloud. Participation in the study was voluntary; and the participants were asked not to reveal their identity on any of the questionnaires with a view to ensuring anonymity. The participants completed a form regarding their demographic features as well as a set of questionnaires, which took approximately 30 minutes.

Gradual regression analysis, one of the multiple regression analysis methods, was performed for the scores obtained from the "Importance and Benefit of Homework", "Homework-related Affective Attitudes", "Homework Preparation status" sub-scales of Homework Attitude Scale; "Learning-oriented reasons", "Adult-oriented reasons", "Peer-oriented Reasons" sub-scales of the Homework Purpose Scale; "Arranging Environment", "Managing Time", "Handling Distraction" "Monitoring Motivation", "Focusing Attention" and "Controlling emotion" sub-scales of Homework Management Scale with a view to identifying the extent to which homework interest are predicted by the variables such as doing homework on time, coming to class without homework, academic achievement level, gender, and grade level. Entrance order of the independent variables in this analysis is determined according to statistical criteria. Each independent variable is determined according to what is being included in its entrance order (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). Statistical significance was taken .05 in interpreting the data.

In accordance with the 5-point likert scale used in the study, evaluation intervals were calculated with a view to explaining the mean scores. In this regard, for Homework Attitude Scale, Homework Management Scale, and "how often do you come to class without homework?", "How much of your assigned homework do you complete?": 1.00-

1.80 interval corresponds to "I totally disagree, none, never", 1.81-2.60 interval to "I partly agree, rarely, a little", 2.61-3.40 interval to "I moderately agree, a little, about half", 3.41-4.20 interval to "I strongly agree, often, mostly", and 4.21-5.00 interval to "I totally agree, always, all of them" options.

Homework Purpose Scale has a four (4) point likert type ranging from "I totally disagree", to "I totally agree". In accordance with four-point likert scales, evaluation intervals were determined with a view to explaining the arithmetic mean scores. In this regard, 1.00-1.75 interval corresponds to "I totally disagree", 1.76-2.50 interval to "I disagree", 2.51-3.25 interval to "I agree", and 3.26-4.00 interval to "I totally agree" options.

3. Findings

Independent groups t-test analysis was performed with a view to identifying whether the scores the students got from the scales differentiate according to gender. Table 1 presents the analysis results.

Table 1. T-test results for the Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of the Variables According to Gender

Variables		Female (N=275)		Male (N=168)		
		$\overline{X}$	SD	$\overline{X}$	SD	t
Homework interest		2.69	.85	2.65	.87	.465
Homework Attitude Scale	The importance and benefit of homework	3.32	.86	3.21	.83	1.406
	Homework-related affective attitudes	3.43	.90	3.15	.91	3.107*
	Homework preparation status	2.79	.74	2.68	.75	1.391
Homework Purpose Scale	Learning-oriented reasons sub-scale	3.17	.47	3.05	.50	2.393*
	Adult-oriented reasons sub-scale	2.71	.67	2.74	.71	-.396
	Peer-oriented reasons sub-scale	2.74	.61	2.80	.60	-1.029
Homework Management Scale	Arranging the environment	3.92	.64	3.74	.85	2.604**
	Managing time	3.66	.69	3.51	.74	2.072*
	Handling distraction	3.61	.75	3.45	.85	2.042*
	Monitoring motivation	3.29	.69	3.12	.73	2.506*
	Focusing attention	3.83	.75	3.64	.94	2.374*
	Controlling emotion	3.55	.65	3.48	.66	1.169
The status of doing homework on time		3.91	.88	3.61	1.07	3.205**
The frequency of coming to class without homework		2.07	.83	2.37	.98	-3.397**
Academic achievement		2.80	.53	2.58	.53	4.240**

*p<.05, **p<.01

Table 1 shows that female and male students' mean scores in relation to homework interest, importance and benefit of homework, doing homework status, adult and peer-focused reasons, and controlling emotions are found to be close to each other. However, mean scores in relation to "homework interest", "homework-related affective attitudes", "learning-oriented reasons", "arranging the environment", "managing time," "handling distractions", "monitoring motivation", "focusing attention", "doing homework on time", and "academic achievement" scales were found to be higher in females than males. It was found that male students' scores in relation to coming to class without homework were higher than those of females. Independent groups t-test results show that there is a significant difference between male and female students in terms of homework-related affective attitudes[$t(441)$= 3.107, p<.05], learning-oriented reasons, [$t(441)$= 2.393, p<.05], arranging environment [$t(441)$= 2.604, p<.01], managing time [$t(441)$= 2.072, p<.05], handling distractions [$t(441)$= 2.042, p<.05], monitoring motivation[$t(441)$= 2.506, p<.05], focusing attention [$t(441)$= 2.374, p<.05] sub-scales scores and doing homework on time [$t(441)$= 3.205, p<.01], coming to class without homework [$t(441)$= -3.397, p<.01], and academic achievement [$t(441)$= 4.240,

$p<.01$] scores. Analysis of the mean scores regarding this difference indicates that homework-related affective attitudes, learning-oriented reasons, arranging environment, managing time, handling distractions, monitoring motivation, focusing attention sub-scale mean scores and doing homework on time and academic achievement are in favor of female students while coming to class without homework score is in favor of male students.

Gradual regression analysis was performed with a view to identifying the variables predicting students' homework interest scores. Table 2 demonstrates arithmetic means, standard deviation values of the variables and correlation values between homework interest scores and the variables examined.

Table 2. Arithmetic Means, Standard Deviations and Correlation Values in relation to the Homework Interest Scores and other Variables examined

		$\overline{X}$	SD	Homework Interest
1. Homework interest		2.68	.85	-
Homework Purpose Scale	2. Learning-oriented reasons sub-scale	3.12	.49	.431**
	3. Adult-oriented reasons sub-scale	2.72	.68	.235**
	4. Peer-oriented reasons sub-scale	2.76	.61	.154**
Homework Attitude Scale	5. The importance and benefit of homework	3.28	.85	.530**
	6. Homework-related affective attitudes	3.32	.91	.638**
	7. Homework preparation status	2.75	.74	.357**
Homework Management Scale	8. Arranging the environment	3.85	.73	.281**
	9. Managing time	3.60	.71	.176**
	10. Handling distraction	3.55	.80	.337**
	11. Monitoring motivation	3.23	.71	.162**
	12. Focusing attention	3.76	.83	-.320**
	13. Controlling emotion	3.52	.66	.296**
14. The status of doing homework on time		3.80	.97	.265**
15. The frequency of coming to class without homework		2.19	.90	-.195**
16. Academic achievement		2.54	.41	.155**

* $p<.05$, **$p<.01$

As seen in Table 2, the relationship between Homework Interest scores and Homework Management Scale, "focusing attention" sub-scale scores is negative and significant at $p<.01$ level. Similarly, the relationship between coming to class without homework and homework interest scores is negative and significant at $p<.01$ level. The relationship between homework interest scores and all of the other independent variables examined in the study is positive and significant at $p<.01$ level.

Gradual regression analysis performed with a view to identifying the variables which predict homework interest scores of students involved "Attitudes towards the importance and benefit of homework", "homework-related affective attitudes" and "doing homework status" sub-scales of the Homework Attitude Scale; "learning-oriented reasons", "adult-oriented reasons", "peer-oriented reasons" sub-scales of the Homework Purpose Scale; "arranging environment" "managing time", handling distractions", "monitoring motivation", "focusing attention", "controlling emotions sub-scale scores and "doing homework on time", "coming to class without homework", "academic achievement" and non-continuous variables such as gender, academic achievement level and grade level. Table 3 demonstrates gradual regression analysis results in relation to predicting homework interest scores.

As seen in Table 3, according to gradual regression analysis results, significant predictors of the homework interest scores are "Homework-related Affective Attitudes", "Attitudes towards the importance and benefit of homework", "controlling emotion", "being a third year student", "gender", and "doing homework on time" variables. Contribution of the other variables included in the analysis was not found to be significant.

Table 3. Gradual Regression Analysis in relation to the Prediction of Homework Interest Scores

Analysis Phase	Variables	Beta	F Change	F regression	R2	R2 Change
1	Homework-related affective attitudes	.496***	301.473***	301.473***	.407	.407
2	The importance and benefit of homework	.207***	30.992***	176.507***	.446	.039
3	Controlling emotion	.106**	12.371***	124.843***	.461	.015
4	3rd Year	-.099**	7.378**	96.840***	.470	.009
5	Gender	-.089*	4.955*	79.165***	.476	.006
6	The status of doing homework on time	.093*	6.178*	67.784***	.483	.007

* p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

According to gradual regression analysis results, the most important predictor of homework interest scores is the "homework-related affective attitudes" variable; and it explains 40.7% of the total variance observed in homework interest scores [F reg (1, 441) = 301.473, p <.001]. The total variance ratio explained by "attitudes towards the importance and benefit of homework", the second predictor variable, increased to 44.6 %. The increase in the total variance explained is 3.9%. This contribution of attitudes towards importance and benefit of homework on the total variance [F reg (2, 441) = 176.507, p <.001] and the increase in R2 were found to be significant [F change (1, 439) = 30.992, p <.001]. With the inclusion of "controlling emotion" variable in the prediction, the ratio of the total variance explained was found to increase to 46.1%. The contribution of this variable on the variance [F reg (3, 441) = 124.843, p <.001] and the increase it made in R2were found to be significant [F change (1, 438) =12.371, p <.001]. With the inclusion of the "being a third year student" variable on the prediction, the total variance ratio explained increased to 47.0%. The contribution of this variable on the variance [F reg (4, 441) = 96.840, p <.001] and the increase it made in R2 were found to be significant [F change (1, 437) =7.378, p <.01]. With the gender variable included in prediction fifthly, the ratio of total variance explained increased to 47.6%. The contribution of this variable on the variance [F reg (5, 441) = 79.165, p <.001] and the increase it made in R2 were found to be significant [F change (1, 436) = 4.955, p<.05]. The sixth and the last variable included in the prediction is "focusing attention", which increased the total variance ratio to 22.8%. The contribution of "doing homework on time" variable on variance [F reg (6, 441) = 67.784, p <.001] and the increase it made in R2 were found to be significant [F change (1, 435) = 6.178, p<.05].

To summarize the findings in Table 3, the highest prediction contribution regarding students' homework interest scores belong to "Homework-related Affective Attitudes" variable. It was found that the six predictor variables explain 48.2% of the total variance observed in the homework interest scores of first, second, third, and fourth year students enrolled in Primary School Education Department at the University of Çukurova.

4. Discussion

Analysis of the mean scores regarding this difference indicates that homework-related affective attitudes, learning-oriented reasons, arranging environment, managing time, handling distractions, monitoring motivation, focusing attention sub-scale mean scores and doing homework on time and academic achievement are in favor of female students while coming to class without homework score is in favor of male students. This finding might result from the assumption that due to affective attitudes and learning-oriented reasons, female students are usually more willing to use management strategies such as managing time and handling distractions, and thus give more importance to homework. Findings from an earlier study suggest that girls, as compared with boys, considered homework more interesting (Xu, 2006). This finding is also in line with theoretical claims (e.g., Covington, 1992, 1998; Jackson, 2002, 2003) and related empirical studies (e.g., Harris, Nixon, & Rudduck, 1993; Hong & Milgram, 1999; Honigsfeld & Dunn, 2003; Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992; Vallerand, Fortier, & Guay, 1997), which suggests that girls tend to hold more positive attitudes towards homework and exhibit higher levels of intrinsic motivation, persistence, and responsibility than boys of the same age do.

Analysis results have demonstrated that all dimensions of Homework Purpose, Homework Attitude, Homework Management scales and doing homework on time, coming to class without homework, and academic achievement and homework interest scores display a significant relationship.

Gradual regression analysis results conducted with a view to identifying the variables to predict students' homework interest scores shows that "homework-related affective attitudes", "attitudes towards importance and benefit of homework", "controlling emotion", "being a third year student", "gender", and "doing homework on time" variables are the significant predictors of homework interest scores. The contribution of other variables in the analysis

was not found to be significant. These six variables were found to explain 48.2% of the total variance in the homework interest of the Primary School Education Department students. The finding suggesting that the most important predictor of homework interest scores is the "homework-related affective attitudes" (which explains 40.7% of the total variance observed in homework interest scores) is parallel to the findings in the related literature. Cooper et al. (1998) report that students'own attitudes about homework play an increasingly popular role in their homework behaviors. McEwan (1998) points out that students who develop a system and positive attitudes towards homework are candidates for "being productive and successful adults" in the future. Positive attitudes towards homework will enable to further motivate individuals for learning, which will trigger reaching the goals faster. Ulutas and Dinçer (2004) state that when the homework is given according to students' interests and abilities, students will do it without getting bored or having difficulties, and thus develop positive attitudes and self-esteem when they notice that they can do.

Shubert (2004) claims that teachers can help students to develop positive attitudes towards homework by discussing the value of homework and its effects on their knowledge base as well as marks. Besides, Shubert states that teachers should be able to impose the idea that homework is a positive strategy for improving learning. Therefore, it is important to reveal prospective classroom teachers' status regarding this issue. A teacher who himself does not believe in the importance of homework will neither be able to motivate students about it nor increase their homework interests, longitudinal studies investigating how students-teachers rate homework interest over time and how their ratings may be influenced by a range of variables such as those examined in the present study would probably shed more light on the issue.

Finally, in line with findings which indicate that students' views about homework play an important role in their homework behaviors (Bryan, Nelson, & Mathur, 1995; Cooper et al., 1998; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2001; Warton, 2001), the present study further suggests that elementary education students need to take a more active role in homework engagement and interest. Therefore, it is recommended that more effort should be made to help students explore ways to make homework a more positive, engaging, and interesting learning experience for themselves. This way, homework can and should serve a variety of important purposes in the educational process, especially when it is thoughtfully designed and implemented.

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Teaching Profession Anxiety Levels of Preservice Teachers

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Abstract

The aim of the present study is to examine the teaching profession anxiety levels of preservice teachers. The fourth year preservice teachers (n=638) of Abant İzzet Baysal University, Faculty of Education, Bolu – Turkey in the spring semester of 2012 -2013 academic year formed the study group. In the study, the quantitative data were collected through Teacher Candidate Anxiety Scale developed by Saban, Korkmaz and Akbaşlı (2004) by the researchers. In order to analyze the quantitative data, the frequency, the percentage values and the mean, standard deviation scores were calculated, t- test and One-Way ANOVA were used. The findings of the study indicated that the fourth year preservice teachers in the study have low levels of professional anxiety when the Teacher Candidate Anxiety Scale and its sub-dimensions are concerned. The findings of the study, also, revealed that even though a significant difference is found when the genders and the departments of preservice teachers are concerned, no significant difference is observed when whether there is a teacher in their families or not is concerned.

Keywords: anxiety, preservice teachers, teaching profession anxiety, preservice teachers' teaching profession anxiety,

1 Introduction

There are some emotional states (happiness, sorrow, sadness, etc.) which affect people's personal and professional lives and unless these emotional states are expressed, some physical or psychological symptoms arise. One of these symptoms is anxiety. According to Trudel (2009), anxiety is a response from the central nervous system to dangers which enables someone to escape from a source of danger or help someone deal with it. Moreover, anxiety is a state which affects someone's success positively, protects them from imminent dangers, and helps them be careful and aware of these dangers.

When preservice teachers start their training in the faculties, they bring their personal differences and characteristics about teaching profession in terms of their knowledge, skills, attitudes, self-efficacy beliefs and other personal characteristics. One of these personal differences is the preservice teachers' anxieties about their professions since even if they acquire necessary knowledge and skills about teaching profession during their four year education, they have high levels of anxieties due to [PPSE (Public Personnel Selection Examination) (anxiety of being appointed with an exam , not to get into a job) limited and insufficient job opportunities, not to be appointed (rareness of personnel cadre), not to perform teaching adequately, etc.] (Kutucu and Ekiz, 2011;Taşğın,2006). Therefore, it can be asserted that prospective teachers' anxiety levels are one of the most important factors that can affect their successes or failures in their jobs, them not only physically but also mentally and emotionally in a negative way and prevent them from transferring their professional knowledge and potential to their professions.

Within this framework, the aim of the present study is to examine the teaching profession anxiety levels of preservice teachers. In line with the aim of the study, the following four questions below were formulated :

1.What are the teaching profession anxiety levels of preservice teachers?

2a.Do teaching profession anxiety levels of preservice teachers differ in terms of their genders?

2b.Do teaching profession anxiety levels of preservice teachers differ in terms of their departments?

2c.Do teaching profession anxiety levels of preservice teachers differ whether there is a teacher in their families or not?

2 Method

2.1 The Research Model

In the study survey method is used as the aim of the study is to examine the teaching profession anxiety levels of preservice teachers and to see whether their teaching profession anxiety levels differs in terms of certain variables or not.

a. The Study Group

The preservice teachers (n=638) who were in their fourth year training at different departments of Abant İzzet Baysal University, Faculty of Education, Bolu – Turkey in the spring semester of 2012 -2013 academic year formed the study group of the present study. Even though the total number of fourth year preservice teachers in the spring semester of 2012 -2013 academic year at Abant İzzet Baysal University, Faculty of Education was 1046, in the study (n=638) preservice teachers answered the scale and they formed the study group of the study.

When they are examined in terms of their genders, it is seen that 65.8 % (n=420) of them were female candidate teachers. When candidate teachers are examined from the view point of whether there is a teacher in their families or not, it is seen that 32.8% (n=209) of them stated there is a teacher in their family. Meanwhile when their distributions are examined in terms of their departments and their fields of study ,it is observed that 43.9 % (n=280) of them were the students of primary school education department and in terms of field of study, it is seen that 16.0% (n=102) of them were the students of classroom teaching.

b. Data Collection Instrument

In the study the quantitative data were collected through Teacher Candidate Anxiety Scale developed by Saban, Korkmaz and Akbaşlı (2004) which was adopted from Borich (1996) by the researchers. The Teacher Candidate Anxiety Scale is a 5-point Likert - type scale ranging from (1) " I am not anxious " to (5) " I am very anxious "(Saban et al.,2004) . There are 45 items in the scale and the scale has three dimensions namely; self - centered anxiety, task-centered anxiety and student-centered anxiety and there are 15 items in each dimension. The highest point in each of these sub-scales is 75 and the point is 15.In this respect, the highest points indicate the higher anxiety levesl of the preservice teacher.

In their study, Saban et al., (2004) found the following Cronbach alpha reliability values, as; for self-centered anxiety .76, for task-centered anxiety .73 and .76 for student – centered anxiety dimensions. When the present study is concerned, the following Cronbach alpha reliability values were found, as; for self-centered anxiety .86, for task-centered anxiety . 87 and for student – centered anxiety .87 and for the whole scale .85 the Cronbach alpha reliability value was found.

C. Data Analysis

In order to analyze the quantitative data collected,, the frequency, the percentage values and the mean standard deviation scores were calculated, t- test and One-Way (ANOVA) were used. In the analysis of the data, the following interval rates were considered as, "4.20-5.00" very high, "3.40-4.19"high, "2.60-3.39"moderate, "1.81-2.59" low and "1.00-1.80" very low.

3 Findings and Discussion

The findings about preservice teachers' anxiety levels are presented in Tables 1,2,3 and 4.

1. What are the teaching profession anxiety levels of preservice teachers?

As Table 1 indicates, the teaching profession anxiety levels of pre-service teachers in all fields of studies were generally low when the scale is examined as a whole **($\overline{X}$ =2.53, sd=.76)**. When the field of study is concerned, it is seen that even though pre-service mathematics teachers ($\overline{X}$ =2.86, sd=.73), arts and crafts teachers ($\overline{X}$ =2.79, sd=.93) English language teachers ($\overline{X}$ =2.72, sd=.63),Turkish language teachers ($\overline{X}$ =2.66, sd=.60), social studies teachers ($\overline{X}$ =2.64, sd=.64),pre-school teachers ($\overline{X}$ =2.61, sd=.77) had high level of anxiety, pre-service teachers of classroom teaching ($\overline{X}$ =2.33, sd=.74) and pre-service teachers of teaching intellectual disabilities ($\overline{X}$ =2.33, sd=.74) had low level of anxiety.

Table 1 : The mean and standard deviation scores about preservice teachers' professional anxiety levels

Field of Study	Preservice Teacher Anxiety Level							
	Self Centered Anxiety		Task Centered Anxiety		Student Centered Anxiety		The scale	
	$\overline{X}$	sd	$\overline{X}$	sd	$\overline{X}$	sd	$\overline{X}$	sd
Classroom Teaching	2.17	.78	2.34	.70	2.28	.85	2.27	.73
Science Teaching	2.50	.84	2.48	.70	2.58	.85	2.52	.77
Mathematics Teaching	2.84	.82	2.73	.66	2.99	.94	2.86	.73
Social Studies Teaching	2.63	.75	2.56	.52	2.73	.79	2.64	.64
Pre-school Teaching	2.62	.76	2.58	.56	2.61	.77	2.61	.77
Arts and Craft Teaching	2.74	.86	2.72	.84	2.92	.96	2.79	.93
Music Teaching	2.14	.89	2.35	.62	2.46	.88	2.41	.77
English Language Teaching	2.74	.82	2.65	.52	2.76	.82	2.72	.63
Turkish Language Teaching	2.66	.72	2.62	.55	2.70	.63	2.66	.60
Teaching Intellectual Disabilities	2.44	.79	2.42	.78	2.49	.98	2.45	.82
Guidance and Psychological Counseling	2.37	.73	2.27	.69	2.34	.82	2.33	.74
Computer and Instructional Technologies Teaching	2.53	.74	2.42	.60	2.59	.83	2.51	.68
All Fields	2.51	.85	2.49	.68	2.59	.88	2.53	.76

When the literature (Doğan and Çoban,2009; Dilmaç,2010; Köse,2006; Yıldırım,2011) in relation to professional anxiety levels of preservice teachers is examined, it is seen that preservice teachers' professional anxiety levels are low. In this regard, Köse (2006) reported that the music teacher candidates have low levels of professional anxiety in all three domains(i.e.self-centered,task-centered,student-centered anxiety domains). Meanwhile, Dilmaç (2010) pointed out that the visual art teacher candidates have low levels of professional anxiety. Yıldırım (2011) stated that primary school teacher candidates have low level of professional anxiety as one of the findings of her study. Moreover, Doğan and Çoban (2009) reported the fact that even though pre-service teachers' attitude toward teaching profession was positive, their anxiety level was low**.** Based on these, it can be said that there is a similarity between the findings of the present study and the literature.

2a. Do teaching profession anxiety levels of preservice teachers differ in terms of their genders?

The findings revealed significant gender differences in all dimensions of the scale in favour of male pre-service teachers (t= -1.992; p < .05) (see Table 2). In other words, the mean scores of male pre-service teachers ($\overline{X}$ =2.61; sd=.77) is higher than the female pre-service teachers ($\overline{X}$ =2.49; sd=.76) as seen in Table 2. When the sub-dimensions of Teacher Candidate Anxiety Scale is concerned, significant differences were found in favour of male pre-service teachers in all dimensions of the scale. That is to say, the mean scores of male pre-service teachers were higher than female pre-service teachers in self-centred anxiety (t= -2.594; p < .05), task-centred anxiety (t= -1.437; p < .05) and student-centred anxiety (t= -1.569; p < .05) dimensions (see Table 2) .

Table 2 : T-test results about professional anxiety levels of preservice teachers and their genders

	Gender	N	$\overline{X}$	s	t	sd	p
Self-centered anxiety	Female	420	2.45	.83	-2.594	636	.010*
	Male	218	2.64	.87			
Task-cenetered anxiety	Female	420	2.46	.68	-1.437	636	.151
	Male	218	2.54	.68			
Student-centered anxiety	Female	420	2.56	.88	-1.569	636	.117
	Male	218	2.67	.87			
The scale	Female	420	2.49	.76	-1.992	636	.047*
	Male	218	2.61	.77			

When the literature is examined it is observed that the literature presents various studies that have different findings. In this regard while the following literature (Bozdam and Taşğın, 2011; Dilmaç,2010; Dursun and Karagün,2012; Kafkas, Açak, Çoban and Karademir,2010) presents no significant gender differences in the professional anxiety levels of preservice teachers, Taşğın (2006) reports significant gender differences in favor of female preservice teachers as they have higher professional anxiety levels than male preservice teachers in task-centered and and self-centered anxiety domains. Therefore,it can be said that there is a similarity between the findings of the present study.and the literature .

2b. Do teaching profession anxiety levels of preservice teachers differ in terms of their departments?

There were significant differences between pre-service teachers' perceptions about their professional anxiety levels and their departments in all dimensions ($F_{(6-631)}$= 2.648, p<.05) (Table 3). The sources of these differences were between pre-service teachers of primary school ($\overline{X}$ =2.49), and foreign languages education ($\overline{X}$ =2.74), between pre-service teachers of primary school ($\overline{X}$ =2.49) and Turkish language education ($\overline{X}$ =2.73), between pre-service teachers of fine arts ($\overline{X}$ =2.58) and of foreign languages education ($\overline{X}$ =2.74), between pre-service teachers of fine arts ($\overline{X}$ =2.58) and Turkish language education ($\overline{X}$ =2.73), between pre-service teachers of educational sciences ($\overline{X}$ =2.40) and of foreign languages education ($\overline{X}$ =2.74), between pre-service teachers of educational sciences ($\overline{X}$ =2.40) and Turkish language education ($\overline{X}$ =2.73), between pre-service teachers of educational sciences ($\overline{X}$ =2.40) and computer and instructional technologies ($\overline{X}$ =2,51), between pre-service teachers of special education ($\overline{X}$ =2.33) and foreign languages education ($\overline{X}$ =2.74), between pre-service teachers of special education ($\overline{X}$ =2.33) and of Turkish language education ($\overline{X}$ =2.73), between pre-service teachers of special education ($\overline{X}$ =2.33) and of pre-service teachers of computer and instructional technologies ($\overline{X}$ =2.51), between pre-service teachers of computer and instructional technologies ($\overline{X}$ =2.51) and foreign languages education ($\overline{X}$ =2.74) and between pre-service teachers of computer and instructional technologies ($\overline{X}$ =2.51) and Turkish language education ($\overline{X}$ =2.73) departments.

Table 3 : One-way ANOVA results about preservice teachers' professional anxiety levels and their departments

	Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	P	Source of difference
Self-centered anxiety	BetweenGroups	11.080	6	1.847	2.580	.018*	1-3, 1-4, 2-3, 2-4,
	Within Groups	451.678	631	.716			5-3, 5-4, 5-7, 6-3,
	Total	462.758	637				6-4, 6-7, 7-3, 7-4
Task- centered anxiety	BetweenGroups	7.225	6	1.204	2.615	.016*	1-3, 1-4, 2-3, 2-4,
	Within Groups	290.547	631	.460			5-3, 5-4, 6-1, 6-2,
	Total	297.771	637				6-3, 6-4, 7-3, 7-4
Student-centered anxiety	BetweenGroups	10.489	6	1.748	2.295	.034*	1-3, 1-4, 2-3, 2-4,
	Within Groups	480.630	631	.762			5-3, 5-4, 6-1, 6-2,
	Total	491.119	637				6-3, 6-4, 7-3, 7-4
The scale	BetweenGroups	9.146	6	1.524	2.648	.015*	1-3, 1-4, 2-3, 2-4,
	Within Groups	363.242	631	.576			5-3, 5-4, 5-7, 6-2,
	Total	372.388	637				6-3, 6-4, 7-3, 7-4

*$p<.05$ Categories: 1= Primary school; 2= Fine arts; 3=Foreign languages; 4= Turkish language; 5=Educational sciences; 6=Special education; 7= Computer and instructional technologies

When the literature (Bozdam,2008; Bozdam and Taşğın,2011) is examined, it is seen that differences are reported with respect to preservice teachers' teaching profession anxiety levels and their departments. Bozdam and Taşğın (2011) pointed out preservice teachers' professional anxiety levels show differences with respect to their ages and departments. Meanwhile, Bozdam (2008) pointed out that preservice teachers' mean scores in self-centered,task-centered and students centered anxiety levels indicate significant differences when their departments are concerned.Keeping these in mind, it can be said that there is a similarity between the findings of the present study and the literature.

2c. Do teaching profession anxiety levels of preservice teachers differ whether there is a teacher in their families or not?

As table 4 presents when the Teacher Candidate Anxiety Scale is concerned, no significant difference was observed between the professional anxiety levels of pre-service teachers and whether there is a teacher in their families or not. Even though there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of pre-service teachers who do not have a teacher in their families and pre-service teachers who have a teacher in their families, pre-service teachers who do not have a teacher in their families had higher mean scores than those who do not have when the self-centred anxiety (t= 1.083; p < .05) task-centred anxiety (t= -1.175; p < .05) student-centred anxiety (t= -.299; p < .05) sub-dimensions of the scale is concerned (Table 4).

Tablo 4: T- test results about professional anxiety levels of preservice teachers and whether there is a teacher in their families or not

	A teacher in the family	N	$\overline{X}$	s	t	sd	p
Self-centered anxiety	Yes	209	2.46	.88	1.083	636	.279
	No	429	2.54	.84			
Task-centered anxiety	Yes	209	2.44	.75	-1.175	636	.240
	No	429	2.51	.65			
Student-centered anxiety	Yes	209	2.58	.87	- .299	636	.765

	No	429	2.60	.88			
The scale	Yes	209	2.49	.80	-.867	636	.386
	No	429	2.54	.74			

While Saracaloğlu, Kumral, and Kanmaz (2009) stated that preservice teachers who have a teacher in their families have lower levels of professional anxiety levels than those who do not have, Çelenk, Yıldız and Baycan (2013) reported that preservice teachers who have a teacher in their families have higher levels of professional anxiety levels than those who do not have. Based on these, it can be said that there is no similarity between the findings of the present study and the literature.

4   Conclusion and Recommendations

The findings of the study revealed that the fourth year preservice teachers in the study have low levels of professional anxiety when the scale and its sub-dimensions are concerned. Preservice mathematics, arts and craft, English language, Turkish language, social studies, and pre-school teachers have high levels of anxiety. Meanwhile, preservice of classroom teaching and teaching intellectual disabilities teachers have the lowest levels of professional anxiety. In the meantime, a significant difference is observed between the genders and the departments of preservice teachers and their professional anxiety levels and no significant difference is observed between whether there is a teacher in their families or not and their their professional anxiety levels. Based on these findings, the followings can be recommended:

1.Further studies need to be made through using qualitative data collection instruments to examine the reasons of their professional anxieties in a detailed way.

2.Application of the theoretical knowledge need to be emphasized during their training at universities and for this purpose various opportunities need to be provided to them.

3.A special emphasis need to be given to courses,such as; teaching practice, school experience in which school experience of preservice teachers is provided.

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The Challenges of Medical Curricula in Turkey:
Taking Lesson from Past

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Abstract

The number of medical schools as well as number of students admitted to medical schools has doubled each decade since 1980 in Turkey. The increase of students admitted to medical schools raises difficulties and challenges for the medical schools in constructing their curriculum. Even if there were some improvements, political decisions within last decade caused challenge for achieving the aim of medical education in Turkey. In this descriptive study, we used narrative review to define medical education in Turkey. We aim to describe the scene of medical education in Turkey and discuss the recommendations in light of the Flexner Report.

Keywords: medical education; medical students; medical schools; educational policy; Turkey.

1   Introduction

In 1910, Abraham Flexner wrote the famous report on medical education in the United States and Canada. After assessment of medical education, Flexner (1910) described the scene of medical schools in United States as "Medical schools were more numerous, lacked curricular uniformity, and did not adhere to any common standards of quality. Consequently, schools varied widely in form and quality, and many were established as commercial entities driven by profit motives". Flexner's report put in front the problems of medical education in United States and reshaped physicians training system. After publication of the report, Flexner became the unchallenged arbiter of educational reform in America (Ludmerer, 2010).

There were 155 medical schools in the United States and Canada in 1909. Although many of them were poor-quality for-profit medical schools several of them were excellent university based programs (Irby, Cooke, O'Brien, 2010). The publication of the report resulted in the closure of many schools in the United States and the number of medical schools decreased to 80 (Skochelak, 2010). Flexner, who had studied philosophy and psychology, familiar with the work of John Dewey, realized that progressive education involved concepts that were generalizable to all educational levels and demonstrated the unity in viewpoint between medical educators and John Dewey (Ludmerer, 2010).

Indeed, scientific and social conditions have drastically changed after Flexner. Today, physicians face a long and challenging process in their training and professional life. Qualifications required of physicians have also changed. Parallel to this the medical education has undergone significant changes in the last two decades in Turkey. However some of Flexner's observations in United States can assert for medical schools in Turkey today. In the article, we aim to describe the scene of medical education in Turkey and discuss the recommendations. In this descriptive study, we used narrative review to define medical education in Turkey.

2   Historical Perspective of Medical Schools in Turkey

First medical school in Turkey was opened in 1827. At the first half of 20th century the young Republic of Turkey, tried to increase number of physicians across the country (Durak, ?). Ankara (Ankara 1945), Ege (İzmir

1955), Atatürk (Erzurum 1962), Hacettepe (Ankara 1963), Dicle (Diyarbakır 1966), Cerrahpaşa (İstanbul 1967), Erciyes (Kayseri 1968) medical schools have founded (NUMER, 2010). Curricula and educational strategies of medical schools in Turkey were mainly influenced by German and French higher education systems initially. In 1963 Hacettepe Medical School were founded that would use an innovative curriculum called integrated system based curriculum adapted from curriculum model of Case Western Reserve University in United States (Durak, ?). After that many medical school in Turkey have adapted a similar model as their curriculum.

3   Current Status of Medical Schools in Turkey

In 2002 The National Core Curriculum for Medical Schools that recommend minimum standards for competencies was accepted in Turkey. Since then medical schools added more student-centered learning methods in their curriculum. As stated in National Undergraduate Medical Education Report (NUMER, 2010) 47 out of 56 medical schools have implemented integrated curriculum model. It was reported that 38 of medical schools allocated student-centered strategies in their curriculum (NUMER, 2010).

Even if there were some improvements, political decisions within last decade caused challenge for achieving the aim of medical education in Turkey: "to train a good physician". The number of medical schools in Turkey has doubled each decade since 1980 and number of students admitted to these schools also increased (MoH, HCE, SPO, 2010). While there were 50 medical schools in 2006, the number of medical school were increased in 86 in 2013 (Figure 1). It is remarkable that 36 new medical schools opened last seven years.
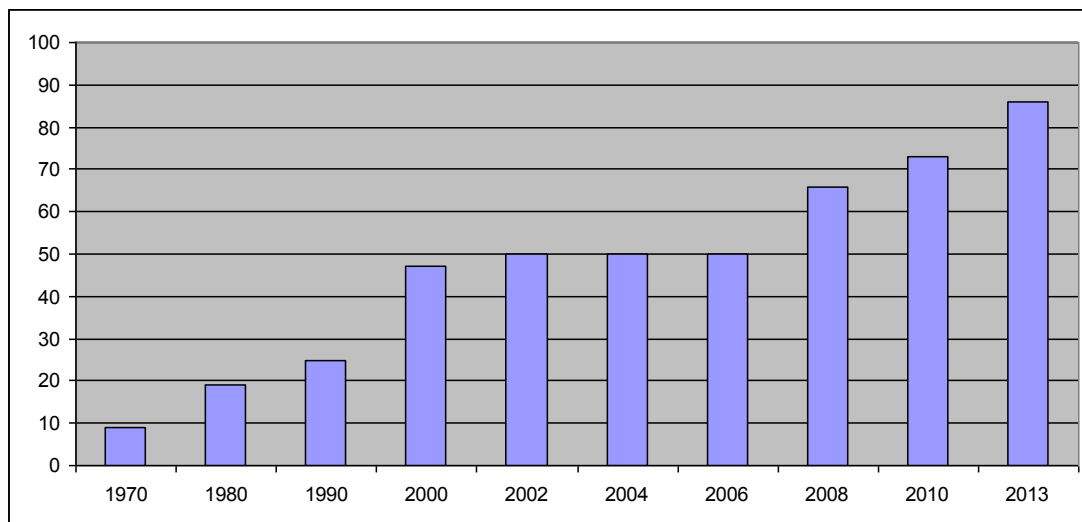
Figure 1: Numbers of medical schools by the years in Turkey

In line with the increasing number of medical schools the number of enrolled medical students increased too. There were approximately 5 000 medical students in 1990, 8 000 in 2010 and 12 000 in 2013 (MoH, HCE, SPO, 2010). The number of students increased more than two-fold in the last seven years (Figure 2). The increase of the number of medical student not only because of the newly opened medical schools, the student quota of former medical schools was compelled to increase too. Numbers of students at the medical schools opened before 2006 were increased 1.5-fold in six years (Figure 2).
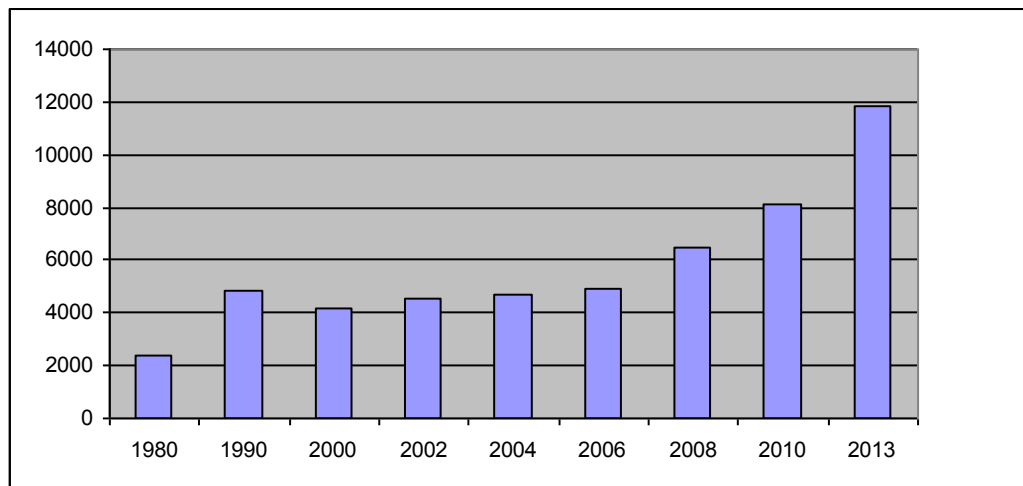
Figure 2: Numbers of medical students by the years in Turkey

The quantitative improvements in medical education in Turkey have not effected in qualitative values. To describe the scene of basic medical education in Turkey we might take an example of existence of anatomy and clinical skills laboratory in medical schools. It was reported that four medical schools did not have anatomy laboratory and 11 medical schools did not have cadaver in their laboratory in 2010. There was 1 cadaver per 100 students in six schools who have cadaver. The average number of cadaver per 100 students ranged from 0.5 to 16. Clinical skills laboratories have been used in an increase trend in Turkey to practice clinical competencies especially in the preclinical years. But, as reported in NUMER (2010) there were no clinical skills laboratory in 12 medical schools.

One of the important development in terms of improving the quality of medical education was the establishment of the Turkish Accreditation Council of Medical Education (TACME) in 2003. The TACME described national standards for undergraduate medical education and had initiated of accreditation of medical schools. Although it is voluntary 23 medical schools applied and 16 medical schools were accredited until now. Medical schools have to prepare a self-assessment report in accordance with national standards of medical education in accreditation process. This report is evaluated by a commission and if the report is accepted adequate in terms of the standards, site visit is co and inducted by visiting teams. This process makes a significant contribution to improve the quality of medical schools and quality assurance. Because after evaluation process TACME prepares a detailed report for the medical school to describe their status in accordance with national standards and make recommendations for improvement. TACME in 2010 established an independent association for accreditation and was recognised recently by the World Federation of Medical Education.

4   Impact of Medical Curriculum

Flexner, who was a follower of Dewey's the philosophy of progressive education, contended that passive form of learning was ineffective if it was not connected to practice and argued that knowledge needed to be applied through more active forms of laboratory and clinical experience (Irby, Cooke, O'Brien, 2010). It is commonly accepted that acquisition of knowledge alone is no longer sufficient; students must be able to apply that knowledge to daily clinical situations. At the same time, students must be able to effectively interact with patients and other health care professionals, and respond to the complex organizational demands of the health care system (Kirch, 2010).

Today, there is a wide range of curricular models that medical schools apply world-wide; including problem-based, system-based and discipline-based curricula. In the discipline-based curriculum, often called conventional or traditional curriculum, there is well-defined, distinct subjects from the basis of the curriculum. The second model is system-based curriculum which is based on body and organ systems in an integrated program. In this model, basic science is taught as it relates directly to clinical medicine. The third one is problem-based curriculum which is identified by tutorials in which students are presented with a specific

practical, real problem or set of problems to solve (Wood, 2003). In medicine problem-based learning is centered around the discussion and learning that emanates from a clinically-based problem and scenario. Student involvement is essential to provide integration in an integrated and problem-based curriculum model. It was reported that most of the schools used integrated curriculum model in Turkey (NUMER, 2010). However the increase of medical students raises difficulties for medical schools in constructing their curriculum especially in problem based, student centered curricula.

Providing quality of medical education is possible for former medical schools in Turkey if infrastructure of laboratory, clinical and educational environment will be developed. As in case of Turkey, implementing active student-centered learning strategies is difficult and challenging, as only number of medical students increased but staff policy and educational facilities does not meet the needs and requirements. Along with, the quality of medical education will be affected as new medical schools are founded without a proper planning. The standards for founding a new medical school should be described and implemented.

Educational rigor and high-quality standards were fundamental qualities of Flexner's recommendations for the new generation of medical schools and education. In the report higher standards in student admissions, reduced numbers of enrolled students, and a decreased number of medical schools were recommended. Flexner also recommended that schools aim to achieve a higher-quality faculty, better learning environments (facilities), and more structured and meaningful clinical training (Finnerty et. al., 2010). It can be claimed that this recommendation are still valid in Turkey even after a century have elapsed since the Flexner's report.

5 Conclusion

It is clear that, despite the high number of medical schools in Turkey some of these do have not enough resources and lack adequate or ideal clinical training environment. Even though there are many important developments in medical education in Turkey, a reform is still needed to nurture new generation of physicians. Therefore health manpower plan and educational policy for medical education should be reconsidered to increase the quality of the medical education.

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Science Perception by Means of Metaphors and Views about the Nature of Science

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Abstract

The purpose of the present study was to reveal the 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th year primary school education department students' science perception by means of metaphors and views about the nature of science. In line with this, the students' profiles regarding the sub-dimensions of the nature of science with respect to certain variables (sex, age and grade level…) were investigated. The research was both a quantitative and qualitative study. The sample of the study consisted of 492 students from Çukurova and Mustafa Kemal Universities. The data in the study were collected through "The Inventory of Science Metaphors" which was developed by the investigators themselves and "Views about the Nature of Science Inventory" which was developed by Mick Nott and Jerry Wellington (1993) and adopted into Turkish by Toz (2012). The quantitative data were analyzed by descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, and also t-test and one-way variance analysis were calculated. The qualitative data were analyzed by content analysis as well. As a result; it was seen that the students perceived science as a synonym with water, human-being, life, universe, plants and they developed 107 types of metaphors in regard to their thoughts. As for the sub-titles of the nature of the science, the students were observed to develop a positivist, a deductivist, a decontextualist and content-based and realistic profiles. It was also observed that the students have had difference in their perception about the sub-dimensions of nature of science with respect to their sex and grade-level. As a result, the investigation has showed that the students of Primary School Education Department have had a meaningful agreement with the positivist aspect of the nature of science. Thus, students' reflection of positivist views about the nature of science in the current century, in which positivist science beliefs have been questioned, deserves more investigations.

Key Words: Nature of science, primary school education department students, science metaphors

1. Introduction

Metaphor is a sign, meaning or conceptual expression to have formed at individuals. It is a viewing and an understanding process. It is more significant and strong mental production than finding the meaning of a concept through another concept elementarily for individuals. Because it expresses the depth and experiments concerning the related concept. Studies about metaphors go back to Aristo and it had been handled and evaluated as a problem in language and opinion fields in the 18th century (Maccormac, 1990; McGlone, 2007). In recent years, the influence of metaphor on the link between cognitivism and communication has been investigated. Modell (2009: 6-11) on the one hand, mentions the connection between metaphor and opinion, on the other hand, highlights that metaphor establishes a bridge between feelings and knowledge.

Modern cognitive science has shown that metaphor is not simply a poetic device useful only as an "affair of style" or "an ornament of discourse" but rather the primary construct on which not only language but thought itself is based (Franke, 2000). Conceptual blending theory also referred to as embodied metaphor theory has challenged traditional Western philosophical notions of reason as disembodied and based on a literal "autonomous faculty" applied to objectively knowable objects in the world (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003; 2005). It follows that conceptual metaphor needs to be accounted for in any discussion of how meaning is achieved and how knowledge is transmitted, as well as how physical experience and conceptual processes coalesce to shape human ontology and epistemology. A central thrust of modern cognitive linguistics is to examine topics such as the relationship between universal symbolism and person meaning, literal and abstract thought, and conscious and unconscious processes, themes long critical to psychoanalysis and clinical social work.

Lately, metaphorical studies have been conducted in the various branches of social sciences in our country. These studies are mostly articles and BA or Ph.D thesis. Some of these studies are as in the following: Tamimi (2005), Çelikten (2006), Nalbant (2006), Saban (2004, 2008, 2009), Saban, Koçbeker and Saban (2006), Semerci (2007), Girmen (2007), Tunç (2008), Aydoğdu (2008), Cerit (2008), Arslan and Bayrakçı (2006), Öztürk (2007),

Cerit (2008), Arslan (2008), Töremen and Döş (2009), Oğuz (2009), Döş (2009), Güven and Güven (2009), Aydın and Ünaldı (2010), Coşkun (2010), Yaşar and Bayır (2010) and İbret and Aydınözü (2011), Güzel Yüce and Demir (2011), Sadık and Sarı (2012). In general, these studies have been carried out in social sciences and they have been mostly about language, culture, democracy, education, organization, administrative sciences, teaching, teahcer, school, geography and folklore. As a result of the revision of the related field, different from these studies, this specific research concentrates on the concept of science. However; this study does not define science, methodology and characteristics. Instead; it aims to contribute to the related literature by focusing on what science means for students in terms of metaphors and by describing students' point of views

Science does not only consist of facts, theories and laws. As a social activity, it is composed of other factors such as scientists doing research, these researchers' attitudes and understandings, their methods and processes, and the society in which they live. In other words; science is often more than it has been told so. By means of using scientific knowledge and scientific thinking ways, a person has to know the methods of how to reach scientific knowledge in order to make reasonable personal and social decisions. In such a situation, we come across this question: What are the methods of reaching scientific knowledge? The nature of science has five sub-dimensions and each of them is based on two opposite opinions in itself (1. sub-dimension: relativism-positivism, 2. sub-dimension: inductivism-deductivism, 3. sub-dimension: contextualism-decontextualism, 4. sub-dimension: process-content, 5. Sub-dimension: instrumentalism-realism). This research deals with participants' profiles about the sub-dimensions of the nature of the science.

In the related literature, there are some studies about the nature of science with primary and secondary students, teachers and teacher candidates (Gücüm, 2000; Yakmacı-Güzel, 2000; 2003; Muğaloğlu, Küçük,2006; Çelik, 2006; Gültekin, 2009; Canpolat, 2010). The results of these studies show that primary and secondary school science teachers', teacher candidates' and primary and secondary school students' concepts about the nature of science are "low" (Eve Dunn, 1990; Johnson and Peeples, 1987; King, 1991; Zimmerman, 1991; in Küçük, 2006). This implies the necessity of taking more serious precautions about this issue.

Science has great impact on cultural, economic, social and education life. So many studies have been carried out to investigate science perception of citizens, teachers and research assistants etc. The present study focuses on science perception of the student-teachers' who are actually in the pre-service teacher training programs. Results indicated that public, teachers and students did not have adequate science and nature of science conception. This study is to explore the effectiveness of pre-service teacher training programs in terms of improvement science perception. By the present study, how to improve quality of undergraduate pre-service teacher training programs will be explored and the results will help to make new policies.

1.1. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study was to reveal the 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th year primary school education department students' science perception by means of metaphors and views about the nature of science. In line with this, the students' profiles regarding the sub-dimensions of the nature of science with respect to certain variables (sex, age and grade level...) were investigated.

2. Method

2.1. Research Model

The research was both a quantitative and qualitative study. The qualitative research method was preferred as it provided a deep analysis opportunity and a platform in which perceptions and events could be presented in a realistic and holistic manner in order to determine metaphors that the students used as a way of representing their opinions related to "the science". The design of the study was phenomenology, aiming to investigate an individual's life experiences, perceptions and the meaning that is loaded on that. "In phenomenology studies, the data analysis intends to find out lives and meanings, so content analysis addressing this objective is focused on conceptualizing data and defining themes. The results are presented in a descriptive manner and direct quotations are often given. Then, themes emerged and patterns are explained in line with the findings" (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2006).

2.2. Population and Sample

The population of the research consisted of the 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th grade students at the Primary School Education Departments of Çukurova University and Mustafa Kemal University during 2012-2013 academic year. The sample of the research consisted of 492 students, 112 of which were at the 1st grade, 158 of which were at the 2nd grade, 124 of which were at the 3rd grade and 98 of which were at the 4th grade, who were attending to the classes in which the implementation was carried out during the data collection process of the research and

who accepted to answer the data collection tool. 368 of the students in the sample were female (74.8 %) and 124 of them were male (25.2 %). 104 students were in the age-group of "18-19", 216 students were in the age –group of "20-21" and 172 students were in the age-group of "22 or above".

2.3. Data Collection Tools

The data collection tools which were used in the research were "the Inventory of Science Metaphors" developed by the researcher, "Views of the Nature of Science Inventory" which was developed by Mick Nott and Jerry Wellington (1993) and adopted into Turkish by Toz (2012) and personal information forms.

2.4. The Inventory of Science Metaphors

While the Inventory of Science Metaphors were being developed, national and international researches in which metaphors were used as a tool in determining individual perceptions were taken into account. After this analysis, it was seen that the general tendency was to was make the participants complete open-ended sentences. In line with the purpose of the research, the pilot implementation of the form was done with 24 students at the universities which constituted the population of the study. The form was reformed according to the results of the pilot implementation and it was finalized for the major implementation. A form on which the sentence "Science is like ....; because ...." was written was given to the students at Primary School Education Department who participated in the research in order to reveal their perceptions. After the form was given to the students, the "metaphor" phenomenon was explained, a few examples were given to activate their minds and they were wanted to get focused and express their perceptions with the sentence written on the form. 20 minutes were given to the students for this activity. In this way, the metaphors in the data of the research and their explanations were obtained.

2.5. The Views of the Nature of Science Inventory

This inventory was developed by Mick Nott and Jerry Wellington (1993) to obtain the individuals' views about the nature of science and to determine the profiles in the nature of science and it was adapted into Turkish in the scope of master's thesis of Toz (2012) titled "The Evaluation of the Views of Physics Teachers About The Nature of Science According to Some Variables". The validity-reliability studies were also realized in scope of the research carried out by Toz. The reliability coefficient of the inventory was calculated as .684. The inventory consisted of 24 items. These items were scored with from -5 to +5 (-5, -4 I strongly disagree, -3, -2 I disagree, -1, 0, -+1 I don't know, +2, +3 I agree, +4, +5 I strongly agree) and the scores that the physics teachers who participated in the study were calculated.

The inventory consisted of five sub-dimensions which were among the views about the nature of science and considered as opposite poles of a straight line; (1) Inductivism – Deductivism- the items in this dimension were 11, 19, 23 5), (2) Relativism – Positivism- the items in this dimension were 1, 3, 21, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20), (3) Contextualism - Decontextualism- the items in this dimension were 2, 3, 6, 8, 13, 16, 18), (4) (Process – Content- the items in this dimension were 7, 9, 17, 24, 15), (5) Instrumentalism – Realism- the items in this dimension were 10, 21, 4, 12, 14). Particular items correspond to each dimension (the items were given in parenthesis next to the names of the sub-dimensions). It was seen that some items were commonly used in different sub-dimensions. The reliability co-efficient of the inventory in this research was calculated as .654.

2.6. Analysis

The quantitative data were analyzed by descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, and also, t-test and one-way variance analysis were calculated. The qualitative data were analyzed by content analysis as well. Content analysis is one of the important techniques used frequently in social sciences and it can be described as a systematic application in which some words of a text are summarized with smaller content categories by some codification based on specific rules (Büyüköztürk, 2010). Content analysis is the classification of verbal and written data in line with a specific problem or purpose, summarizing, the measurement of specific variables and concepts and categorizing by scanning in order to make inferences from these (Tavşancıl, Aslan, 2001). Basically, content analysis is the quantization of qualitative data. This technique can be used in summarizing, standardizing, comparing or conversing into another form of the existing data (Öğülmüş, 1991). Firstly, the inventories were reviewed; 86 inventories which were left blank or did not include valid metaphors were excluded. After that, the justifications on 346 inventories on which valid metaphors were presented and the explanations on 60 inventories on which there were opinions about science despite not having metaphors were transferred into the computer and raw data texts were obtained. In the third stage, these texts were read by the researchers several times separately and then codified. The harmony between the codes were tested by using Miles and Huberman's formula (Reliability= consensus/consensus+dissidence X

100) (1994, p. 64). As a result of these studies, the harmony rate between the two codifiers was calculated as .88. In the final stage, the metaphors with similar characteristics were brought together and the themes were formed by taking the related literature into consideration. The findings obtained were expressed as frequency and percentage.

3. Findings

3.1. Findings about the related metaphors that the students developed

It was found according to the results of 346 inventories in which a valid metaphor was indicated out that the students developed 107 different metaphors intended for the concept of science. With reference to this, a "table of metaphors" consisting of 107 metaphors was formed. Of these 107 metaphors, six metaphors the frequencies of which were the highest were presented below.

Table 1. Metaphors with the highest frequency

Metaphor	f
Water	46
Life	35
Human Being	22
Universe	21
Tree	19
Technology	12

When Table 1 was considered, it was seen that the students tried to explain the concept of science with the water metaphor which has a vital value (f:46), life, human being, universe, tree and technology metaphors, respectively. Following this stage, the metaphors developed by the students were analyzed in the context of having certain common characteristics. During this process, it has been noted that how science was conceptualized with those 107 metaphors obtained by making use of the table of metaphors and science. As a result, the metaphors were classified categorically and 8 different conceptual themes were formed (biological, objective-reality, the world of objects, research-inquiry, experimental-observational, instrumental, socio-cultural context, relative). The categorical classification of the metaphors under six themes was given in Table 2.

Table 2. The Distribution of the Metaphors which the students developed about "Science" according to the categories

Themes	Metaphors	Frequency of the metaphor	The number of the metaphor	%
Research-Inquiry	the research process (f:7), baby (f:4), a small child (f:4), a journey (f:4), change (f:2), a bottomless pit (f:2), curiosity (f:3), a detective (f:1), philosophy (f:1), philosophy of life (f:1), a deep box (f:1), an unopened box (f:1), zygote (f:1), development (f:1), human growth (f:1), a horse running at full gallop (f:1), mind (f:1), milk's white colour (f:1), a bird which wants to have freedom (f:1), a vehicle that is never out of fuel (f:1), the key of obscurity (f:1), the willingness to know (f:1), answered questions (f:1), skeleton (f:1)	43	23	21.50
Instrumental	Technology (f:12), a need to learn (f:8), seed (f:2), tool (f:1), a tool which facilitates life (f:1), medication (f:1), computer (f:1), toaster (f:1), lie detector (f:1), robot (f:1), money box (f:1), making the unknown known (f:1), salad (f:1), reading a gripping novel (f:1), a part of a machine (f:1), dam (f:1), massage chair (f:1), washing-machine (f:1), an orange (f:1), a compass (f:1), a functioning iron (f:1), mother (f:1), language (f:1), a human being and his/her foot (f:1), mechanization (f:1)	41	23	21.50
The World of Objects	Human being (f:22), the universe (f:21), tree (f:19), light (f:15), the ocean (f:8), the sun (f:8), the nature (f:4), space (f:2), river (f:2), the world (f:2), fruit (f:2), bee (f:1), the sea (f:1), snowball (f:1), stream (f:1), avalanche (f:1), the sky (f:1), the ore (f:1), the	110	20	18.69

Themes	Metaphors	Frequency of the metaphor	The number of the metaphor	%
	production (f:1), the bird (f:1)			

Table 2 (Continued). The Distribution of the Metaphors which the students developed about "Science" according to the categories

Themes	Metaphors	Frequency of the metaphor	The number of the metaphor	%
Objective Reality	Life (f:35), proven facts (f:10), infinity (f:4), family (f:4), father who you always recline upon (f:1), idea which is believed to be true for everybody (f:1), finite knowledge (f:1), true friend (f:1), a working memory (f:1), a magic stick which reveals the reality (f:1), a big shopping mall (f:1), the wall (f:1), a slope (f:1), undiscovered sea (f:1), life (f:1), secret (f:1), our truths (f:1), an ant's finding its path (f:1)	66	17	15.89
Experimental and Observational	Steps (f:8), short-cut (f:3), unarmed warrior (f:1), cooking (f:1), puzzle (f:1), turtle (f:1), a train that moves on space (f:1), milk's white colour (f:1), the future (f:1)	17	8	7.48
Socio-Cultural Context	Friendship (f:1), Civilization and knowledge (f:1), Hope (f:1),	4	4	3.74
Biological	Water (f:46), Breathing (f:5), Bread (f:2), Food (f:2), Human being and his/her foot (f:1)	56	5	4.67
Relative	Mirror (f:3), Mirror of our minds (f:1), The future (f:1), Chameleon (f:1), Our thoughts' product (f:1), An adventure (f:1) Intelligence (f:1),	9	7	6.53
	Total	346	107	100.0

As it is seen in Table 2, the metaphors were mostly developed for the themes of "research-inquiry and instrumental" (43.0 %). These are followed by the themes of the world of objects, objective-reality, experimental-observational, relative, biological and socio-cultural context, respectively. The metaphors developed by the students and their rationales to use those metaphors were explained below on the basis of themes.

Theme 1: The World of Objects

The rationale of using the metaphor "human being" (f:22) which comes into prominence in this category was explained by the students as "science has a complex, excellent and changing structure" while the metaphor "universe" was explained as unlimited and infinite. As the science is beyond us and will continue to exist, it was also associated with "tree" (f:19) which has a root and grows up, "light" (f:15) which illuminates us, the vast "ocean" (f:8), "the sun", which we cannot be without, "the nature" (f:4) which develops and grows continuously, the infinite "space" (f:2), "river" (f:2) which flows and never stops, "the world" (f:2) which is complex but organized, "fruit" (f:2), the flavour of which increases as it gets ripe, "bee" (f:1) which has a system that works very well, "the sea" (f:1) which does not have borders, "snowball" (f:1) which has a progressive roll-up, "stream" (f:1) which always moves and renews itself, "avalanche" (f:1) which slides and becomes bigger, "the sky" (f:1) which needs to be investigated, "the ore" (f:1) which uncovers the truth, "the production" (f:1) which is a production process and helps us understand the nature and "the bird" (f:1) which always flies up and forward. Here are some samples of the metaphors that the students developed:

Science is like a human being. It has a complex structure which teaches new things even they are very small. There is not an only reality; there is a research about the realities. They embody the abstract things with experiments and observations and prove them. (Female)

Science is like the universe because science is as real and realistic as the universe. (Male)

Science is like a light which is seen at the end of a dark road. It illuminates the future, the past and today (Female)

Science means understanding the nature and producing new information while understanding the nature and nature is always in a continuous change. These changes also result in a change in information. Therefore, there is always an information production (Female)

Theme 2: Objective Reality

The students associated the science with "life" (f:35) by saying "Science itself is life. We cannot be without science". In the scope of this theme, the following metaphors were developed by the students, respectively. "Proven facts" (f:10) as they reach the most accurate information and they try to reveal the facts, "infinity" (f:4)

as it will continue to exist as long as human beings exist and have willing to know and learn, "family" (f:4) as it always teaches the truth, "father" (f:1) who you always recline upon and serves the most reliable information, "idea which is believed to be true for everybody" (f:1) which is true and never in contradiction with others, "finite knowledge" (f:1) which is ultimate as it is convincing, "true friend" (f:1) as s/he is always on the side of facts and factuality, "a working memory" (f:1) as it works without stopping, "a magic stick" (f:1) as it reveals the truth objectively, "a big shopping mall" (f:1) in which you can find an answer to everything as it does not have a limited subject, "the wall" (f:1) as everybody sees the same thing like in science, "a slope" (f:1) as you need to overcome the obstacles in order to reach the purpose, "undiscovered sea" (f:1) as it is unknowable, "life" (f:1) as we cannot be without it, "secret" (f:1) as it always includes an obscurity, "our truths" (f:1) as they are because of science, "an ant's finding its path" (f:1) as it oversees what was done before. When these metaphors developed by the students are analyzed in general, the fact which shows that science was conceptualized with the only, true and objective reality draws attention.

Science is an endeavour which is required to learn the universe, the realities and entities. Actually, it is not an endeavour; it is life itself (Male)

Science is a finite knowledge as it is the last phase which can decipher the secrets around us and which is convincing (Female)

Science is like an undiscovered sea as it cannot be known and defined completely no matter how much it develops and makes progress. To me, science cannot be known but it always makes progress (Male)

In order to find a path for itself, an ant sometimes follows the seesaws, turns back or goes after the ant in the front. Science is also like this. It follows the previous scientists and its real aim is to find the realities belonging to us and which already exist but are unknown (Female)

Theme 3: Research-Inquiry

In this category, the students associated the science as human beings' not being indifferent to things happening around them, trying to understand and solve the mysteries with the metaphors of "the research process" (f:7) which depends on the research and inquiry caused by curiosity, "baby" (f:4), "a small child" (f:4), "a journey" (f:4), "change" (f:2), "bottomless pit" (f:2), "curiosity" (f:3), "a detective" (f:1), "philosophy" (f:1), "philosophy of life" (f:1), "a deep box" (f:1), "an unopened box" (f:1), "zygote" (f:1), "development" (f:1), "human growth" (f:1), "a horse running at full gallop" (f:1), "a bird which wants to have freedom" (f:1), "a vehicle that is never out of fuel" (f:1), "the key of obscurity" (f:1), "the willingness to know" (f:1), "answered questions" (f:1), "skeleton" (f:1)

Science tries to find the secret, interesting and amazing sides of the world, life and the universe. It works like a detective and tries to put forward everything that exists with proofs. (Male).

Science is curiosity since human beings always want to know. They make use of science in order to find the most accurate and reliable answers to the questions in their minds and they make research continuously. (Female)

Science lives on curiosity and grows. The more we wonder and find new things about it, the faster it grows and develops. Science is revived and shaped in our hands. (Male)

Science is like a baby. A baby is not aware of anything when it is born. It starts to notice the things and learn new things everyday and becomes oriented with life like science. (Female)

Science is like a journey as there are no stops in science. It is a branch which always renews itself and in which new things are discovered. New things come out in each research and trip. (Male)

Science is like a zygote. Science develops grows and varies by means of researches every minute as how a zygote is divided every second and reaches to millions of cells by means of mitotic division. (Male)

Theme 4: Instrumental

In this theme, science which is beneficial for us and perceived as set of ideas, objects, tools and processes that can be used was associated with the metaphors of "technology" (f:12), "a need to learn" (f:8), "seed" (f:2), "tool" (f:1), "a tool which facilitates life" (f:1), "medication" (f:1), "computer" (f:1), "toaster" (f:1), "lie detector" (f:1), "robot" (f:1), "money box" (f:1), "making the unknown known" (f:1), "salad" (f:1), "reading a gripping novel" (f:1), "a part of a machine" (f:1), "dam" (f:1), "massage chair" (f:1), "washing-machine" (f:1), "an orange" (f:1), "a compass" (f:1), "a functioning iron" (f:1), "mother" (f:1), "language" (f:1), "a human being and his/her foot" (f:1) and "mechanization" (f:1). The positive contributions of all metaphors but "mechanization" were emphasized in all reasons for metaphors. On the other hand, it was stated that the human beings are enslaved by mechanization and they became dependent on the machines.

It always facilitates our job. (Female)

It helps people to learn and understand the realities. (Female)

It is the first address which is applied in case of a problem. A question like "What does science say about this issue?" is the best guide for people to reach the conclusion. (Female)

It is accumulated as long as human beings produce and it includes the potential within itself as long as it is made use of. (Male)

The beautiful part of an orange comes out when you peel it. Science is also like this. When you make researches on science, new and beneficial things come out. (Male)

It is a mixture of delicious and beneficial information. It is like a salad. (Female)

It grows up gradually, becomes a tree and starts to be useful. (Male)

Any kind of bread gets baked and more delicious when it is put into a toaster. Science is also like this. It brings the pure knowledge out as more versatile and varied. (Male)

Somebody without a foot cannot walk. In an environment without any technological developments, human beings become indistinguishable from the other living beings. (Male)

Science, on one hand, facilitates the human life, it also enslaves the human beings, on the other hand. It makes use of human power less and turns human beings dependent to machines. (Male)

Theme 5: Experimental and Observational

There are things that exceed our knowledge limits as individuals and we set hypotheses and make inferences from those hypotheses. This is realized step by step. In this category, science was associated with some metaphors supporting the view of "not any knowledge is valid unless it is based on experiments and observations". These metaphors are; "steps" (f:8) which is taken incrementally so as to be able to reach the absolute results, "short-cut" (f:3) which allows us to reach the result with less effort, "unarmed warrior" (f:1) which defends the human beings with experiments and observations, "cooking" (f:1) which is realized step by step as a process which gives the product although its shape is different, "puzzle" (f:1) which becomes meaningful when the pieces come together, "turtle" (f:1) which moves slowly but strongly to its objective, "a train that moves on space" (f:1) which affects all the wagons upon its movement, "milk's white colour" (f:1) which gets its colour through experiments and observations and "future" (f:1) as it investigates the events in terms of cause-result relationship.

Science is realized incrementally and it is a system which tries to reach the absolute results. It increases when new knowledge is put on existing knowledge. (Female)

As we need to make experiments and observations to find a colour. (Female)

Turtle moves to its objective slowly but strongly. (Male),

Science does not have a weapon. It defends people with experiments, observations and researches. It fights for the future of human beings. (Male)

When the pieces come together, it becomes meaningful like a puzzle. A result comes out. When only a small piece is missing, everything becomes spoilt. (Female)

It is like the future as it carries importance to transfer the reasons and results of tangible things which will probably be experienced.(Female)

Theme 6: Socio-Cultural Context

The students developed the metaphors of "friendship" (f:1), "civilization and knowledge" (f:1) and "a hope developing the world" (f:1) in parallel with the idea which says "science cannot be isolated from socio-cultural context and it is structured socially". Some excerpts about the justification of these metaphors are given below.

Knowledge or science alone does not mean a lot. Some values such as civilization (humanity) and science mean something if they are dealt with together. (Female)

Friendship arises from struggles and it needs to spend some time on it. It requires some specific opinions and social interaction is important. (Female)

Theme 7: Biological

In this category, the students gave the meaning to science by associating it with concepts such as "water" (f:46), "breathing" (f:5), "bread" (f:2) and "food" (f:2).

We cannot have a life without water like science. It is one of the major needs in order to make life liveable and comprehensible. (Female)

Science is necessary. It helps people get rid of mental hunger. (Female)

A life without science cannot be thought like human beings cannot live without breathing. Existing without it is a real extinction. (Male)

Food helps us survive. Science helps us in our lives, too. It is the source of life. (Female)

Theme 8: Relative

In this theme, science is associated with the metaphors of "mirror" (f:3), "the mirror of our minds" (f:1), "chameleon" (f:1), "the product of our thoughts" (f:1), "an adventure" (f:1) and "intelligence" (f:1), which can be evaluated in the context of views which claim that science changes according to individuals, ages and societies and it does not have absolute or universal criteria. Some excerpts about the justification of these metaphors are given below.

You receive at the same rate with what you do. The things you receive are shaped according to the environment in which you are. (Male)

In order for science to form, first, we need to design it with our thoughts. Then, we need to embody it. (Female)

It is an adventure. There are some impressions from people's lives in the stages of science. People guide the science with their lives. (Male)

Human beings produce thoughts and ideas on the results which they will do or find before they make scientific research. (Female)

It can be shaped according to the place and situation in which they are. (Female)

3.2. Findings obtained from The Inventory of Views of the Nature of Science

In this part, the results of the analysis of the data based on "the Inventory Of Views of The Nature Of Science" given to the students of Primary School Education Department were evaluated according to the profiles of the students in the nature of science sub-dimensions and some variables (gender and grade level).

It was found out that 96.3 % of the students of Primary School Education Department have the view of positivism, 89.8 % of them have the view of realism, 95.7 % of them have the view of content-based, 78 % of them have the view of deductivism and 68.9 % of them have the view of decontextualism.

When the average scores in terms of the gender variable were analyzed in general, it was seen that the average scores of male students were higher than of female students in all sub-dimensions [Relativism-Positivism ($\overline{X}$ Female= 15.37, $\overline{X}$ Male= 16.71), Deductivism-Inductivism ($\overline{X}$ Female = 5.43, $\overline{X}$ Male = 6.77), Contextualism- Decontextualism ($\overline{X}$ Female= 5.96, $\overline{X}$ Male= 8.40) and Instrumentalism-Realism ($\overline{X}$ Female= 9.98, $\overline{X}$ Male= 10.27)] except from process-content-based ($\overline{X}$ Male=11.18, $\overline{X}$ Female=10.63). It was remarkable that the difference between the sub-dimensions of Inductivism-Deductivism- and Contextualism-Decontextualism was in favour of the views of deductivism and decontextualism according to the gender variable. When the average scores of both female and male students in the sub-dimensions of Inductivism-Deductivism- and Contextualism-Decontextualism were analyzed, it was observed that the average scores of female students in both sub-dimensions were lower than of male students. The results of independent groups t-test which was carried out in order to find if the difference between these average scores were significant or not showed that there was a significant difference in favour of male students in terms of the sub-dimensions of "Inductivism-Deductivism" [t(490)=-2.359, p<05)], "Contextualism-Decontextualism" [t(490)=-2.669, p<05)]

When the grade levels of the students were analyzed, it was observed that the average scores of the students at fourth grade in all sub-dimensions were lower than of the students at the other levels. When the average scores of the sub-dimensions of the nature of science were analyzed, it was revealed that the average scores of all grade levels were close to each other in terms of the sub-dimension of Instrumentalism-Realism ($\overline{X}$ 1st grade= 15.70, $\overline{X}$ 2nd grade=10.13, $\overline{X}$ 3rd grade=9.90, $\overline{X}$ 4th grade=9.14), the difference between the groups according to grade level was in the sub-dimensions of Relativism-Positivism($\overline{X}$ 1st grade= 10.92, $\overline{X}$ 2nd grade=16.42, $\overline{X}$ 3rd grade=16.49, $\overline{X}$ 4th grade=13.55), Process-Content-based ($\overline{X}$ 1st grade = 11.04, $\overline{X}$ 2nd grade =11.22, $\overline{X}$ 3rd grade =11.91, $\overline{X}$ 4th grade =9.67), Inductivism-Deductivism ($\overline{X}$ 1st grade = 6.67, $\overline{X}$ 2nd grade =6.34, $\overline{X}$ 3rd grade =5.54, $\overline{X}$ 4th grade =4.14) and Contextualism-Decontextualism ($\overline{X}$ 1st grade =6.61, $\overline{X}$ 2nd grade =8.61, $\overline{X}$ 3rd grade =6.16, $\overline{X}$ 4th grade =3.81) and it was also seen that the average scores of the students at the 1st, 2nd and 3rd grade in the sub-dimensions of Positivism, Content-based, Inductivism and Decontextualism were positively higher than of the students at the 4th grade. One-way variance analysis was used to find out if the average scores in the sub-dimension of the nature of science differed statistically and significantly or not according to grade level. The results of the LSD test pointed out that there were statistically significant differences in favour of the students at the 4th grade [F(3,488)=2.790, p<.05; F(3,488)=2.926, p<.05] between the average scores of the students at the 2nd, 3rd and 4th grades in terms of the sub-dimension scores of "Relativism-Positivism", "Process-Content-based", in favour of the students at the 4th grade in terms of the average scores of the

students at the 1st, 2nd and 3rd grade levels in the sub-dimensions of "Inductivism-Deductivism", in favour of the students at the 4th grade in terms of the average scores of the students at the 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th grade levels in the sub-dimensions of "Contextualism-Decontextualism".

4. Conclusion, Discussion and Suggestion

According to the findings obtained from the content analysis in this research, 107 metaphors developed by the students of Primary School Education Department were classified under 8 different conceptual themes. These are "instrumental", "research-inquiry", "objective-reality", "the world of objects", "experimental-observational", "biological", "relative" and "socio-cultural context". When the findings were investigated, it was seen that the themes under which the students developed metaphors the most were "research-inquiry" which was based on research and inquiry resulting from curiosity (21.50 %) and "instrumental" in which science was considered as the set of ideas, objects, tools and processes that are useful and usable (21.50 %) while the themes under which the least amount of metaphors were developed were "biological" in which science was considered as necessary and obligatory for the continuity of life (4.67 %) and "socio-cultural context" which was structured socially (3.74 %).

When the metaphors which were developed and the themes which were formed in this context were analyzed, it was seen that the students explained the science with the metaphors in the themes of "the world of objects", "subjective reality" and "experimental and observational" which were mainly based on positivism-realism, observation and supported by experiments, which were real and literal and out of us and which will continue to exist. It can be interpreted that almost half of the students have a strict positivist manner as the 42.06 % of the metaphors were developed under these three themes. It was found in the inventory of the nature of science out that 96.3 % of the students had the view of positivism and 89.8 % of them had the view of realism and this must be considered as a significant and remarkable situation.

When the other themes and the metaphors were investigated, it can be said that 21.50 % of the students focused on the process by moving away from the contentualism with explanations that predict the human being's not being indifferent to what was happening around them, trying to understand these, querying, trying to solve the mysteries and guiding to think about it. It can be considered as positive that 21.50 % of the students who had the view that claimed the scientific theories and ideas are true and valid as long as they could be used developed metaphors which were classified under the theme of "instrumental" since the contribution of science to the problem-solving process and its beneficialness was important. This can also be considered as positive although only a small amount of the students shared this view. However, it is challenging that the beneficialness here is only in the form of associating the science with technology. As a matter of fact that, one of the students tried to explain the essential place of science and technology in our life by saying *"Somebody without a foot cannot walk. In an environment without any technological developments, human beings become indistinguishable from the other living beings".* It can be said that the students who developed metaphors emphasizing that science had a biological value combined necessity and beneficialness similarly. On the other hand, when the metaphors especially under the theme of biological and explanations were analyzed; *"We cannot have a life without water like science. It is one of the major needs in order to make life liveable and comprehensible. A life without science cannot be thought like human beings cannot live without breathing. Existing without it is a real extinction."* As it can be understood from the sample excerpts, it can be said that both instrumentalism and realism are emphasized in the theme of "biological". This can be interpreted that the views of the students about science are not totally clear.

Very few students developed metaphors which claimed that science cannot be isolated from social and cultural context, it can change according to individuals, ages and societies and it does not have absolute and universal criteria. This represents that some of the students are aware of post-positivist paradigm.

According to the findings obtained from the inventory of the nature of science, there was no significant difference between female and male students in the sub-dimensions of relativism-positivism, process-content-based and beneficialness-realism in terms of gender. It was seen that the difference was in favour of male students in the sub-dimensions of Inductivism-Deductivism and Contextualism-Decontextualism. It can be interpreted that the male students have high average scores in these sub-dimensions as they have the views of strict Inductivism and Decontextualism. In this context, it can be suggested that the female students have more balanced views in these dimensions than the male students and gender is an effective variable on the views about the nature of science. In his study, Arı (2010) stated that there was a significant difference between the views of the students at Primary School Education Department on the nature of science according to the gender. On the other hand, there was no difference between the views of students at Science Teaching Department on the nature of science according to gender. Çelikdemir (2006) found a significant difference

between the views of the students at primary schools on many concepts of the nature of science according to gender in his study. Moreover, Çelikdemir (2006) expressed that the female students had more modern views on the subjectivity and creativity concepts of the nature of science. In addition to these, Oyman (2002) could not find a difference between the views of students at Science Teaching Department about the nature of science according to gender.

When the grade levels were analyzed, it was observed that the average scores of the students at the 4th grade in all sub-dimensions were lower than of the students at the other grades. This can be considered as a partly withdrawal from the positivist view when the students came to the 4th grade level. Kenar (2008) found out that the pre-service teachers at Science Teaching Department believed that science was not affected by social and cultural values. Besides, Macaroğlu, Tasar and Çataloğlu (1998) carried out a study which aimed to investigate the beliefs of pre-service teachers at Primary School Education Department about the nature of science and revealed that the pre-service teachers believed science was not affected by social, cultural approaches and environments. This study provided us a similar result since few metaphors were developed in the themes of "socio-cultural context" (3.74 %) and "subjective" (6.53 %).

Consequently, it was approved that the positivist view was dominant in the views of students at Primary School Education Department about the nature of science when both the themes which the students formed within the scope of the metaphors they developed and the average scores they got from the inventory of the nature of science were analyzed. It was observed that the views of the students in the sub-dimensions of the nature of science differed with respect to gender and grade level. The contributions of this difference to the process may be investigated by longitudinal researches. When these results of the research were considered, the reasons of the students' positivist views need to be searched by thorough inquiries and the teacher training programs must be reviewed in this respect. Further studies can be conducted so as to find out the profiles of university lecturers who are important in affecting the views of the students at Primary School Education Department about the nature of science. Thus, some contributions could be made about revealing the training requirements of the partners who are affected by the process and who have power to affect the process.

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The Views of Senior Students at the Department of Elementary Education on Program Development Competencies

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to determine the views of senior class students studying at Faculty of Education, Department of Primary School Teaching Education on their curriculum development proficiency. The study group consists of 179 senior students studying at Abant İzzet Baysal University, Faculty of Education, Department of Primary School Teaching Education during 2012-2013 educational year. Data were collected through "Prospective Teacher Curriculum Development Proficiency Scale", developed by Duman (2006) and reorganized by the researchers. The data were analyzed on SPSS 16.0 software employing descriptive statistical techniques such as frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation and t-test. According to the findings, it was observed that curriculum development proficiency of senior Primary School Teaching Education students was of high level, and there was no difference between their views on gender variable.

Key Words: Curriculum Development Proficiency, Department of Primary School Teaching Education, Aim, Content, Educational Background, Assessment and Evaluation.

1   Introduction

Consistent development in various grounds as in social, political, financial, scientific and technological areas of society is interrelated with the quality of education system, which is particularly related to the quality of teachers. Within this context, the quality of the teachers is dependent on the education they receive. As a specialization, teaching requires teacher candidates to be an expert in this field. One of the important conditions of education in order to reach its predetermined goals is that teachers need to be substantially educated primarily about planned and programmed studies. Among the elements constituting sufficient and successful education, proficiencies that prospective teachers acquire during undergraduate education play a leading role.

Curriculum development specialists and teachers' nation-level duties and responsibilities in this process are as follows:

1. Attempting extensive data collection from practices at schools as well as benefiting from institutional resources,
2. Making corresponding channels between central office and schools uninterruptedly accessible,
3. Promoting ideas about bringing together the views and thoughts of schools with regard to curriculum development,
4. Assigning voluntary teachers to curriculum development studies at the central office,
5. Sustaining developing model studies that reflect diversity while avoiding single curriculum development approach in the central office (Demirel, 2012:190).

It is necessary to take advantage of teachers' views, thoughts and experiences for curriculum development studies at every level. Being directly accountable for the curriculum, teachers represent a vast amount of data resource thanks to their knowledge and experience in this field. No matter how satisfactory the current curriculum is, teachers can easily identify the best learning experiences for the learners better than the curriculum itself (Doll, 1970, p.285). Thus, Clark, Klein and Burks (1972, p.573) defined the teacher as: "the one who is at the center of curriculum development, finds curriculum materials and develops them, ascertains the methods to reach curriculum goals, initiates differences and samples them in the classroom". As the definition suggests, being personally in the heart of implementation of curriculum, the teacher can detect faulty, defective and deficient ways of the current curriculum and carry out compensable works (Yüksel, 1998:1).

The teachers' school-level duties and responsibilities during curriculum development process are below:
1. Having comprehensive subject matter knowledge which is adequate to meet the requirements of a professional teacher during curriculum development process,
2. Informing curriculum development specialist while being conscious of students' level of development,
3. Actively involving in and having positive attitude towards curriculum development process,
4. Performing works to determine specific goals for each course with group leaders and curriculum development specialists, to enable them to be behavioral changes that students need to have and to prepare assessment instruments in order to measure the behaviors as well as arranging content.
5. Collaborating with the curriculum development specialists in producing or supplying every kind of educational materials to be used for class tasks,
6. Continuously monitoring curricula, thus detecting essential differences while cooperating with other teachers at school, working together with the curriculum development specialist to attempt a new curriculum preparation,
7. Actively participating congresses, seminars and the like so as to be informed about innovations and developments in education and instruction,
8. Working with the curriculum development specialist to be enthusiastic about modifying or altering instruction in view of the needs and means,
9. Keeping the curriculum development specialist constantly updated for standards and conditions nearby to be improved (Demirel, 2012:192).

Until 1998-1999 educational year, 2 hours weekly; 2 credits "Curriculum Development" course and 3 hours weekly; 3 credits "General Teaching Methods" course had been taught at the fourth semester during undergraduate programme to the prospective teachers studying at all the other departments of Faculties of Education apart from the Department of Educational Sciences in order them to increase their proficiencies in curriculum development and implementation. 3 hours weekly; 3 credits "Measurement and Assessment" course had been taught to the students at 5th year of all undergraduate programmes for them to be proficient in measurement and assessment (Sözer, 1991, 30, 118-164). After the reorganization of faculties of education, "Curriculum Development", "General Teaching Methods", "Measurement and Assessment" courses were removed from undergraduate programmes, and it was intended that the skills and knowledge taught in this course regarding curriculum development, implementation and evaluation would only be delivered through "Planning and Evaluation in Teaching" course. For this reason, in contemplation of planned execution of instruction and relating curriculum development tasks at various levels with in-class instruction and evaluation, "Planning and Evaluation in Teaching" course was included in all undergraduate programmes except for Teacher Training of the Hearing Impaired, Teacher Training for the Mentally Impaired, Teacher Training for the Visually Impaired programmes. It was determined that the course was to be taught at 4th semester for all programmes, weekly 3 theoretical, 2 practical hours (YÖK, 1998, 6-16; cit. Karaca, 2004:2).

According to a new regulation by Council of Higher Education General Assembly on 21.07.2006 about professional teaching courses are grouped as: "Standardized professional teaching courses for all programmes", "Professional teaching courses for other programmes except certain programmes", "Professional teaching courses for specifically designed purposes of certain programmes" (YÖK, 2007). Standardized professional teaching courses for all programmes are: Introduction to Educational Science, Instructional Principals and Methods, Classroom Management (Karaca, 2008:74).

Even though they have indirectly participated in curriculum development studies, implementing the curriculum in their courses, teachers may directly make positive or negative contributions on curriculum development process. Whether this contribution can be positive and sufficient depends on the qualifications that teachers acquire and develop during pre-service and in-service performance. Particularly, Primary School Teaching Education may be one of the most important areas of our education system. Generally, students meet all educational units first at

primary school. Therefore, it is highly essential that primary school teachers, who lay foundation of educational experience, are trained well in terms of pedagogical formation, content knowledge and general knowledge.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to determine the views of senior class students studying at Faculty of Education, Department of Primary School Teaching Education on their curriculum development proficiency. In order to achieve this aim, the study sought answers to the following research questions.

1. Which level do the views of senior class students studying at Faculty of Education, Department of Primary School Teaching Education on curriculum development proficiency and its subcategories stand at?

2. Do the views of senior class students studying at Faculty of Education, Department of Primary School Teaching Education on curriculum development proficiency and its subcategories vary depending on gender?

2 Method

2.1 The Research Model

The method of this study is descriptive survey aimed to determine the views of senior class students studying at Faculty of Education, Department of Primary School Teaching Education on their curriculum development proficiency.

2.2 The Study Group

The study group included senior students studying at Abant İzzet Baysal University, Faculty of Education, Department of Primary School Teaching Education. Total number of students studying at Abant İzzet Baysal University, Faculty of Education, Department of Primary School Teaching Education during 2012-2013 educational year was 188. All the participants were given scales; however 179 of them returned and then were analyzed. The scales were administered to all the students by the researchers. 179 participants formed the study group (152 female, 27 male).

2.3 Data Collection Instrument

The data were collected through "Prospective Teacher Curriculum Development Proficiency Scale" by Duman (2006), which was a revision of "Primary School Teacher Proficiency Scale" published by Ministry of National Education in 2004 and "Primary School Teachers' Proficiencies Scale" by Gökçe (1999).

"Prospective Teacher Curriculum Development Proficiency Scale" developed by Duman (2006) is a 6 dimensional scale with 33 items. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses are completed and its validity and reliability are assessed. The scale is a revised form of Prospective Teacher Curriculum Development Proficiency Scale developed by Duman (2006). In Prospective Teacher Curriculum Development Proficiency Scale; there are 6 items (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6) in Curriculum Development Concept Knowledge category, 3 items (7,8,9) in Purpose category, 6 items (10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15) in Content category, 8 items (16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23) in Learning Situation, 3 items (24, 25, 26) in Plan Preparation category, 7 items (27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32 ,33) in Measurement and Assessment category. Factor loads of items belonging to each category were calculated by the researchers. Factor loads of items in Curriculum Development Concept Knowledge category: between 0,63 and 0,81; Purpose category: between 0,75 and 0,80; Content category: between 0,64 and 0,80; in Learning Situation category: between 0,69 and 0,79; Plan Preparation category: between 0,70 and 0,82; in Measurement and Assessment category: between 0,65 and 0,79. Item-total correlation differentiations of each category are; Curriculum Development Concept Knowledge category: between 0,64 and 0,78; Purpose category: between 0,77 and 0,90; Content category: between 0,70 and 0,81; Learning Situation category: between 0,65 and 0,70; Plan Preparation category: between 0,75 and 0,85; Measurement and Assessment category: between 0,60 and 0,69. Exploratory factor analysis was administered in order to determine the factor structure of Prospective Teacher Curriculum Development Proficiency Scale. Cronbach's alpha for the scale overall was 0,73. It was found 0,83 for Curriculum Development Concept Knowledge category; 0,75 for Purpose category; 0,65 for Purpose category; 0,70 for Learning Situation category; 0,76 for Plan Preparation category; 0,72 for Measurement and Assessment category.

The instrument has two parts: There are personal information items in the first part and 33 proficiency items in the second part. Five-rating scale is assigned. The scale ranges increasingly from the most positive to negative as "Very Good, Good, Moderate, Weak, Very Weak". The most positive item is interpreted as "5", and the most negative item is interpreted as "1".

2.4 Data Analysis

Frequency and percentage distribution related to participants' demographic information were observed. In order to measure their level of perception of Curriculum Development Proficiency and its subcategories, frequency, percentage and standard deviation dispersion were studied. While the findings with relation to the solution of sub-problems were being interpreted, ranges were valued as: between "4,20-5,00" very high; "3,40-4,19" high, "2,60-3,39" moderate, "1,80-2,59" low and "1,00-1,80" very low.

3   Findings and Discussion

Findings with relation to the solution of sub-problems are in this section.

3.1. Findings of the first sub-problem

The findings of curriculum development proficiencies and sub-problems of senior class students' studying at Faculty of Education, Department of Primary School Teaching Education are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Mean and Standard Deviation Rates of Students' Curriculum Development Proficiencies and Their Perception of its Subcategories.

	N	$\overline{X}$	SS
Curriculum Development Concept Knowledge	179	3,52	,63
Purpose	179	3,58	,55
Content	179	3,62	,45
Learning Situation	179	3,71	,50
Plan Preparation	179	3,68	,56
Measurement and Assessment	179	3,53	,52
All Category	179	3,60	,44

Mean and Standard Deviation Rates of Students' Curriculum Development Proficiencies and Their Perception of its Subcategories were presented in Table 1. In general, students' level of perception of Curriculum Development Proficiencies was found "high" ($\overline{X}$ =3,60,   S=,44). Participants' levels of perception about the categories of "Prospective Teacher Curriculum Development Proficiency Scale" are interpreted as "high" with the rates as follows: "Curriculum Development Concept Knowledge": ($\overline{X}$ =3,52, S= ,63); "Purpose": ($\overline{X}$ =3,58, S= ,55); "Content": ($\overline{X}$ =3,62, S= ,45); "Learning Situation": ($\overline{X}$ =3,71, S= ,50); "Plan Preparation": ($\overline{X}$ =3,68, S= ,56); "Measurement and Assessment": ($\overline{X}$ =3,53, S= ,22).

3.2. Findings of the second sub-problem

It can be seen in table 2 that there is no difference with all aspects in gender variable for curriculum development proficiency level of perception of senior class students' studying at Faculty of Education, Department of Primary School Teaching Education (t=,180;   p<,05). Additionally, no difference can be seen in subcategories: "Curriculum Development Concept Knowledge": (t=-,850; p<,05); "Purpose": (t=-,823; p<,05); "Content": (t=1,020; p<,05); "Learning Situation": (t=1,073; p<,05); "Plan Preparation": (t=,259; p<,05); "Measurement and Assessment": (t=-1,127; p<,05). Examining the students' grade point averages, which is statistically insignificant, it was found that male students' grade point averages ($\overline{X}$ =3,62; S=,36) are higher than female students' grade point averages ($\overline{X}$ =3,60; S=,45) (see Table 2).

Table 2. T-test Results for Gender Variable of Students' Curriculum Development Proficiencies and Their Perception of its Subcategories

	Gender	N	$\overline{X}$	S	t	sd	p
Curriculum Development Concept Knowledge	Male	27	3,42	,79	-,850	177	,397
	Female	152	3,53	,60			
Purpose	Male	27	3,66	,47	,823	177	,411
	Female	152	3,56	,57			
Content	Male	27	3,70	,37	1,020	177	,309
	Female	152	3,60	,47			
Learning Situation	Male	27	3,80	,41	1,073	177	,285
	Female	152	3,69	,52			
Plan Preparation	Male	27	3,70	,57	,259	177	,796
	Female	152	3,67	,56			
Measurement and Assessment	Male	27	3,43	,47	-1,127	177	,261
	Female	152	3,55	,53			
All Category	Male	27	3,62	,36	,180	177	,857
	Female	152	3,60	,45			

4   Conclusion and Recommendations

Results, discussion and suggestions of the study are in this section.
The most crucial goal of faculties of education is to train qualified teachers considering the fact that the better the teacher is trained, the better the sub education systems become competent. In this study, it was found that curriculum development proficiencies of senior class students' studying at Faculty of Education, Department of Primary School Teaching Education were at high level. While this result is in parallel with the findings of the study that Duman (2006) conducted, it contradicts with the result "prospective teachers see themselves "partly" proficient" which Erişen and Çeliköz (2003) found. In addition, in their study about curriculum development proficiencies of primary teaching education students, Yıldız and Baycan (2012) found that teachers in profession demonstrated low level in terms of curriculum development proficiency and in particular, they regarded themselves insufficient in measurement and assessment with its all aspects.

Furthermore, it was found that there is no difference in gender variable depending on their views. It was also concluded that there is no difference in subcategories of their curriculum development proficiencies. In other words, it meant that prospective teachers performed high level in subcategories. Examining students grade point averages, statistically insignificant though, male students' grade point averages were higher than female students'. Within this context, it is suggested that curriculum development knowledge, which is integrated into "Instructional Principals and Methods" course, can be instructed in a separate and applied course; applied curriculum development works can be practiced in "School Practice" course; research can be done about how the observed proficiencies are available during in-service based on the prospective students' views; and considerably extensive research studies can be conducted about other main proficiency aspects apart from curriculum development proficiency.

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THE ANALYSIS FOR THE EFFECT OF CLASSROOM CLIMATE ON THE STUDENTS OF PRIMARY TEACHING

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to investigate the effect of classroom climate on students' success. Teacher support, involment, affiliation, order&organisation, competition, rule clarity in the classroom affect the success of students in accordance with this main aim. This research has analyzed the effect of classroom climate on success in terms of secondary school they graduated from. This study has been realized on scanning way via quantitative method. The fourth grade students of primary education department from faculties of education at fourteen universities constitute the total field of survey. 788 students have taken place in the survey. The data collection of survey is "the Scale of the Effect of Classroom climate on Success". This data collection tool has been developed by Moss and Trickett (1974) and adapted to Turkish by Kısakürek (1985). The researcher has rearranged it by scanning the field. In the survey the secondary schools they graduated from have been studied with t-test. In accordance with the findings, Graduates of Anatolian Teachers High School, compared to graduates of other schools, consider "teacher support", "involvement", "affiliation", "order & organization" as more significant. Students' views about "competition" and "rule clarity" have no significant differences in accordance with school types they graduated. Consequently, classroom climate is affected by many variants, so in education programmes the effect of every variant (sex, demographic specifications of students, the attitude of academics, formal and informal demands of students, the location of the institution) should be considered in the applications concerning classroom climate. In addition, the importance of subdimensions of classroom climate especially affiliation and rules should be asserted. While designing and developing educational programmes, learning-teaching atmosphere, relations in the classroom ambient, task oriantation, innovation and rules briefly, the quality of atmosphere should be heeded as much as content and method.

Keywords: Classroom Climate, Success, Learning Enviroment, Hidden Curriculum, Primary Teachers

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Problem

The climate in a classroom is an important clue of the relationships, the learning-teaching process and the learning level in that classroom (Selçuk, 2000, p. 66). It is known that student involvement, task orientation, teacher support, rules, course layout, competition, affiliation, innovation, lecturer directing the student to the course and similar factors are influential in creating the classroom climate and the effects of students' learning life on their achievements (Moos, 1978; DeYoung, 1977; Kısakürek, 1985; Fraser and Fisher, 1982; Baek and Choi, 2002; Dorman, 2003; Mucherah, 2003; Alver and Küçükoğlu, 2004). DeYoung (1977) defends that as the classroom climate approaches the ideal state, involvement and regular attendance can be assured and the class will achieve a more functional image. According to Fraser (2002:4), the classroom climate influences the student attitudes, learning motive and speed. In this regard, it is important to evaluate the quality of the classroom climate, where the cognitive and affective (attitude, self-sufficiency, motivation, anxiety) gains are formed, in line with the students' perceptions (Fraser, 2001).

The experimental results attained from research dealing with the relation between classroom climate and success reveal that a classroom climate perceived as positive by the students will increase success. Dorman and Adams (2004) investigated the relation between learning mathematics and academic efficiency in Australia and Britain, whereby their research found a high level relation between classroom climate and academic efficiency. Another finding of the same study is that the teacher support, task orientation, cooperation and equality are related to the level of academic efficiency. Academic efficiency is only possible if the classroom climate is functional and provides task orientation and equal responsibility. The student's perception of their own academic level in school and particularly in classroom is of significance in terms of classroom climate. Therefore, the lecturer needs to establish quality learning-teaching environments providing task orientation and involvement to help student succeed. Consequently the cooperation, harmony, teacher support, students' coalescence with each other, task orientation and equality are notable in the development of student self-confidence.

Another study on the issue was conducted by Dorman (2008, p. 429-444). It consists of more than 2.211 students in Queensland Catholic schools and state schools. The study assesses the effects of factors such as class level, subject and type of school on the classroom climate. According to the findings of this study, the subject and type of school are not relevant to the classroom climate. Another finding of the study is that the class level of students positively influences the affiliation, cooperation, prominence of class rules and individualism, but has a negative effect on task orientation and lecturer's control. As the students' class level rises, affiliation, cooperation, prominence of rules and individualism increase, although task orientation and lecturer's control decline.

According to Moos (1979), the environment has a character of its own and bears traits as an individual does. We can mention the supportive, strict or restrictive features of the environment, similar to personality traits of individuals. Moos (1979) suggests that affiliation in the social environment take place in three fundamental levels, which are individual development, continuity of the system and change. The atmosphere of the environment forms in conjunction with these three levels. This feature of social environment also applies to teaching and learning environment (cited by Baek and Choi, 2002:126). With respect to Moos' classification (1979), the classroom climate includes qualities such as teacher support, students' communication and interaction with each other in terms of affiliation; competition, individual interest and skill and similar traits in terms of individual development; environment's openness to innovation, rules etc. in terms of continuity and change (cited by Baek and Choi, 2002; Dowdel, 2007). In a positive classroom climate, students' perception towards the aforementioned aspects is expected to be positive (Fraser and Fisher, 1990, p. 9).

Demirel (2003, p. 113-114) expresses that in-classroom interaction is among the significant factors of the process of attaining learning experience. He indicates, therefore, that further studies are necessary on the effects of student-lecturer interactions on school achievement in the learning and teaching process. Furthermore, the author underlines hints, reinforcer, feedback, correction and student involvement as the features boosting the quality of teaching service; while pointing to the importance of student-lecturer relationship in the in-classroom interaction process for establishing the atmosphere having a positive or negative effect on learning. The classroom climate can be established through the teaching approach, method and technique utilized by the teacher as well as the tools-equipment and art of communicating. This constitutes the aspect of the learning-teaching program that is not in written form, but can be relayed and can even be more effective than the written teaching program. Thus, the

program development experts must consider the tacit program as a functional elements of teaching program in their work to develop teaching program development (Portelli, 1993; Demirel, 2007; Yüksel, 2002; Tuncel 2007). Hidden curriculum should evaluate the "organizational", "relation-based" and "institutional" aspects. The classroom climate is present in the hidden curriculum as a significant factor. Time, means, materials, effective realization of gains are related to the classroom climate and therefore to the hidden curriculum. Hence, it is important to take the hidden program as the basis for the implementation of the teaching program.

According to Fraser (2001, p. 8), a student spends approximately 20.000 hours in the classroom from elementary school till the end of higher education. It is clear that the students and teachers share an important amount of time in the classroom. During the course of this shared time, the lecturer's behavior, in addition to several factors, has a strong influence on the learning-teaching atmosphere (Fisher, Fraser and Cressweel, 1995). On the other hand, Getzel and Thelen (1960, cited by,Koul and Fisher, 2004) indicate that student-lecturer interaction in the classroom also plays an important role in the cognitive and affective development of learners. Similarly, Wubbels and Levy (1993, cited by, Koul and Fisher, 2004) also cited that lecturer's behavior in the classroom, adequacy and role are influential on the student motivation and play an important role in defining the lecturer and student perceptions and the quality of the classroom climate. Kısakürek (1978, p. 60; 1983, p. 221) suggests that student traits, motivation, skills and requirements constitute the fundamental criterion for developing teaching programs in higher education. In line with the authors' views, the students' perception of learning-teaching environment is believed to be highly significant in bolstering the student's success.

In higher education level, while ensuring the student's individual and social development is among the objectives, academic achievement is usually a prioritized objective. Therefore, it seems important to determine and positively develop the views on classroom climate of prospective teachers preparing to be primary teachers responsible for elementary education during the education process prior to service. In this respect, this study finds it substantial to determine the classroom climates that include the teacher candidates receiving education in the education faculties of various universities as well as their opinion on the effects of relevant variables on the student achievement. Kısakürek (1985) argues that most of these studies focus on answering the question, "how can we teach better?" This study aims to determine the quality of learning-teaching environment, in addition to helping to answer this question. For this purpose, the problem in this study is to determine the effect of classroom climates on the success of candidate primary teachers (primary teaching senior year students) receiving education in the education faculties of various universities. By extension, this study investigates whether the effects of learning-teaching environment on the achievement of primary teacher candidates vary according to the secondary education institution the candidate graduated from.

1.2. Sub-Problems of the Study

The aim of this study is to determine the opinions of students on the effects of classroom climate on achievement. In line with this general aim, the answers to the following sub-problems were sought:

The perception of senior primary teaching students of the effects of classroom climate on success,

Teacher support, Involvement, Affiliation, Course Order, Competition, The clarity of rules in effect in the classroom,

1.Does it show variation according to the type of secondary education institution the candidate graduated from?

1.3. Definitions

Classroom climate: The impression, feeling, appearance and ambiance felt in the classroom. How the students feel in the learning environment with regard to class dynamics and arrangements for the living quality in the classroom and learning-teaching environment in relation to the students' experiences of their learning lives.

Success: Evaluation according to a number of independent variable(s) influencing the learning environment. Achieving the desired outcome, reaching the objective, attaining the desired result.

Environment: Education faculties that students were placed after choosing a higher education institution for the purpose of becoming classroom teachers.

Learning-Teaching Environment: All of the natural, physical, social and cultural conditions in the accommodating the elements of communication in the classroom.

Hidden Curriculum: The entirety of the program beyond the official education program, created through the information, skills, attitudes and experience, without specific rules.

Primary Teacher: The expert that develops the cognitive, affective and psychomotor learning areas of students during the course of the learning process comprising the first five years of elementary education.

2.METHOD

2.1. Research Model

This research adopts the descriptive model. The aim of this study is to investigate the effect of classroom climate on the students' success. In line with this purpose, the study aims to determine whether there is significance difference among the opinions of candidate teachers graduating from Anatolian teacher high school or other secondary education (general high schools, vocational high schools) in primary teaching senior year with respect to "Teacher support", "Involvement", "Affiliation", "Course Order", "Competition" and "Clarity of Rules".

2.2. Population and Sample

The population of this research consists of primary teaching senior year students in the education faculties of state universities located in 14 provinces in seven geographic regions of Turkey during the 2009-2010 academic year. In this study, the sample was taken in a size believed to represent the population, due to the difficulty of reaching the entire population, time limitations and economic reasons. The multi-stage sampling method was applied in the study to represent the population. The following steps were followed in sample selection: All provinces of Turkey were divided into analogous sub-populations and included in the sample on the rate they are represented in the population. For this purpose, the population Turkey was categorized into seven layers, based on the seven geographic regions consisting of provinces with similar geographic features. For the selection of provinces to be included in the sample from each geographic regions, the existence of two universities in the concerned region was essential.

Table 1.Provinces and Universities Selected as Sample According to Regions

Universities	Region	City	Date of Foundation
Dokuz Eylül University, Buca Education Faculty	Aegean Region	İzmir	1982
Adnan Menderes University, Education Faculty		Aydın	1992
Marmara University, Atatürk Education Faculty	Marmara Region	İstanbul	1982
Kocaeli University, Education Faculty		Kocaeli	2000
Çukurova University, Education Faculty	Mediterranean Region	Adana	1982
Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Education Faculty		Burdur	2006
Karadeniz Technical University, Fatih Education Faculty	Black Sea Region	Trabzon	1982
Rize University, Education Faculty,		Rize	1998
Ankara University, Education Science Faculty	Central Anatolia Region	Ankara	1964
Niğde University, Education Faculty		Niğde	2006
Yüzüncü Yıl University, Education Faculty	Eastern Anatolia Region	Van	1982
Kafkas University, Education Faculty		Kars	1998
Dicle University, Education Faculty	South East Anatolian Region	Diyarbakır	1982
Adıyaman University, Education Faculty		Adıyaman	1997

Table 2.Total Student Numbers, Collected Data and Response Rates of Primary teaching Senior Year Students in Education Faculties

Universities	Count of students	Number of participating students	Percentage of participation (%)
Dokuz Eylül University, Buca Education Faculty	153	55	36

Adnan Menderes University, Education Faculty	83	55	66
Marmara University, Atatürk Education Faculty	155	46	46
Kocaeli University, Education Faculty	82	70	85
Çukurova University, Education Faculty	180	41	23
Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Education Faculty	160	60	38
Karadeniz Technical University, Fatih Education Faculty	175	50	29
Rize University, Education Faculty,	105	64	61
Ankara University, Education Science Faculty	60	50	83
Niğde University, Education Faculty	90	65	72
Yüzüncü Yıl University, Education Faculty	124	61	49
Kafkas University, Education Faculty	90	54	60
Dicle University, Ziya Gökalp Education Faculty	102	52	51
Adıyaman University, Education Faculty	106	65	61

In the fourth phase, the size of the sample to represent the population was determined. The aim was to reach all of the primary teaching senior year students in the sampled faculties. Therefore, no additional sample was selected. Table 2 shows the total number of primary teaching senior year students in education faculties, as well as the collected data and response rates. A total of 788 students participated in the study. The rate of response in the study is 47%.

Table 3.The Frequency and Percentage of the Personal Information of Primary teaching Senior Year Students in Education Faculties

Variable	Level	N	%
Gender	Woman	443	56.2
	Man	345	43.8
Type of schools	Anatolian High Schools	91	11.5
	Others(General highschools,Vocational high schools, etc.)	697	88.5
Universities	Ankara University Education Science Faculty	55	7.0
	Adıyaman University, Education Faculty	55	7.0
	Adnan Menderes University, Education Faculty	46	5.8
	Çukurova University, Education Faculty	70	8.9
	Dicle University, Ziya Gökalp Education Faculty	41	5.2
	Dokuz Eylül University, Buca Education Faculty	60	7.6
	Kafkas University, Education Faculty	50	6.3
	Karadeniz Technical University, Fatih Education Faculty	64	8.1
	Kocaeli University, Education Faculty	50	6.3
	Marmara University, Atatürk Education Faculty	65	8.2
	Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Education Faculty	61	7.7
	Niğde University, Education Faculty	54	6.9
	Rize University, Education Faculty,	52	6.6
	Yüzüncü Yıl University, Education Faculty	65	8.2
Regions	Aegean Region	106	13.5
	Marmara Region	115	14.6
	Mediterranean Region	131	16.6
	Black Sea Region	116	14.7
	Central Anatolia Region	109	13.8

Eastern Anatolia Region	115	14.6
Southeastern Anatolian Region	96	12.2
Total	**788**	**100**

As is seen in Table 3, the distribution of senior year students taking part in the study according to the respective geographic region is as follows; 106 (13,5%) in Aegean Region, 115 (14,6%) in Marmara Region, 131 (16,6%) in Mediterranean Region, 116 (14,7%) in Black Sea Region, 109 (13,8%) in Central Anatolian Region, 115 (14,6%) in Eastern Anatolian Region, 96 (12,2%) in Southeastern Anatolian Region.

2.3. Effects of Classroom Climate on Success Data Collection Tool and Development

Based on the general categories utilized in the Classroom Climate Tool developed by Kısakürek (1985), Moos, Trickett (1974, 1987), a data collection tool was developed. With this data collection tool, the effects of classroom conditions on the students' success are assessed by the students themselves (Kısakürek, 1985). The Classroom Climate Data Collection Tool comprises eight sub-dimensions (Involvement, Relationships, Teacher support, Direction to Course, Competition, Course Order, Clarity of Rules, Innovation) and thirty four items. The Classroom Climate Scale developed by Moos and Trickett (1974, 1987) contains nine dimensions: Involvement, Feelings of Enjoyment, Teacher's Support, Task Orientation, Competition, Order and Organization, Clarity of Rules, Teacher's Control and Innovation. Each dimension contains ten items (Chavez, 1984, p. 10).

Since the Classroom Climate data collection tool was developed in 1985, the existing dimensions and items were revised by the researcher in consideration of the literature, creating an item pool comprising 55 items. All dimensions comprising the "Effect of Classroom Climate on Success" data collection tool and the internal consistency of the data collection tool were calculated using the Cronbach Alfa coefficient. The tool's Cronbach Alfa internal consistency reliability coefficient was 0.795 for teacher support, 0.722 for involvement, 0.770 for relationships, 0.751 course order, 0.706 for competition, 0.713 for clarity of rules 0.853 for the entire scale (Table 5). Factor analysis was used to determine the structure validity of the Effect of Classroom Climate on Success Data Collection Tool. Kline (2005) indicates that the sample size must be at least 10 folds of the number of items. Considering these criteria, since the number of items is 55, the number of samples must be at least 550. This criterion is observed in the study.

Table 4.Total Variance Rate of Data Collection Tool for the Effect of Classroom Climate on Success

Items	Total	Variation(%)	Cumulative (%)	Total	Variance (%)	Cumulative (%)
1	10,352	18,823	18,823	10,352	18,823	18,823
2	3,678	6,688	25,510	3,678	6,688	25,510
3	2,585	4,700	30,211	2,585	4,700	30,211
4	2,238	4,070	34,280	2,238	4,070	34,280
5	1,987	3,612	37,892	1,987	3,612	37,892
6	1,885	3,427	41,319	1,885	3,427	41,319
7	1,794	3,262	44,581	1,794	3,262	44,581
8	1,559	2,834	47,416	1,559	2,834	47,416
9	1,497	2,722	50,138	1,497	2,722	50,138
10	1,387	2,521	52,659	1,387	2,521	52,659
11	1,286	2,338	54,997	1,286	2,338	54,997
12	1,178	2,142	57,139	1,178	2,142	57,139
13	1,110	2,019	59,158	1,110	2,019	59,158
14	1,048	1,906	61,063	1,048	1,906	61,063
15	1,008	1,832	62,895	1,008	1,832	62,895

Assessment of Table 4 shows that there are 15 factors with an eigenvalue over 1. These fifteen factors account for 62.895% of the variance. It is seen that the contribution decreases and the curve chart straightens after the 7th factors in the Data Collection Tool for the Effect of Classroom Climate on Success. This shows that the scale's structure comprises six factors. Analyses were repeated using the rotation method with this six-factored structure. A variance rate of 40% to 60% in the multi-factored structures is considered sufficient (Büyüköztürk, 2007). After determining the factors in the structure, the items with a rotated factor load below .40 and the 23 cyclic/blur items

with a load value given in two or more factors were excluded from the scale, achieving the final form of the scale with 32 items (Table 5).

Assessing the entire scale consisting of 32 items in total, the scale demonstrates a six-factored structure. The first factor; "Teacher support" comprises 7 items, the second factor "Involvement" comprises 8 items, the third factor "Affiliation" comprises 5 items, the fourth factor "Course Order" comprises 5 items, the fifth factor "Competition" comprises 3 items and the sixth factor "Clarity of Rules" comprises 3 items. The load values in factors corresponding to the 32 items in the scale vary between 0.448 and 0.839. The six factors in the scale account for 49.381% of the total variance. These values clearly show that the scale explains the dimensions of classroom climate. The model conformance test and confirmative factor analysis of the resulting values and structure were investigated.Assessing the results of the KMO and Barlett's Test of Sphericity in Table 11, KMO value is .858 and Bartlett's Sphericity is found as (χ2 = 16367.121, p=.000). Achieving a KMO value over .60 and a meaningful Bartlett's Sphericity indicates the data can be analyzed (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001; Tavşancıl, 2005).The total explained variance rate is provided in Table 5.

Table 5.Factor Loads and Common Variance Value of Items in the Data Collection Tool for the Effect of Classroom Climate on Success

Items	Teachersupport	Involvement	Affilition	Order& Organization	Competition	Rules	Variance
M_{21}	0,717						,385
M_{23}	0,676						,589
M_{24}	0,661						,328
M_{22}	0,622						,473
M_{20}	0,593						,600
M_{25}	0,588						,506
M_{19}	0,511						,315
M_{8}		0,610					,357
M_{9}		0,567					,362
M_{6}		0,561					,378
M_{2}		0,553					,312
M_{7}		0,545					,360
M_{4}		0,531					,339
M_{3}		0,528					,430
M_{5}		0,471					,411
M_{1}		0,448					,448
M_{15}			0,760				,641
M_{16}			0,732				,554
M_{17}			0,724				,589
M_{14}			0,656				,428
M_{10}			0,631				,408
M_{40}				0,810			,317
M_{41}				0,734			,683
M_{39}				0,704			,597
M_{37}				0,514			,588
M_{46}				0,509			,720
M_{34}					0,817		,681
M_{35}					0,793		,559
M_{36}					0,604		,760
M_{48}						0,839	,727
M_{49}						0,819	,453
M_{50}						0,517	,503
Eigenvalue	6,077	2,618	2,156	1,799	1,601	1,550	
Cronbach Alfa	.795	.722	.770	.751	.706	.713	
Ratio of Explotory Variance%	18,991	8,182	6,738	5,621	5,004	4,845	
KMO: .858							
Bartlets Test of Spheridity: 16367.121							

2.4. Item Analysis Results

Two item analysis methods were utilized prior to determining the reliability of the data collection tool. These are: item analysis based on item-data collection tool total score correlation and item analysis based on sub-super group variation means. Table 6 shows the values attained on the basis of item-scale total correlation. Then, the values attained by adding the scores corresponding to the students' responses to the expressions in the data collection tool were listed as highest to lowest and the 87 persons with the lowest scores in the group of 788 persons were defined as the sub-group, while the 213 persons with the highest score were defined as the super-group. As a result of the definition, the variation of the average of scores attained for each item from the super-group and the sub-group was analyzed for independent groups using the t test and provided in Table 6.

Table 6.Item Scale Correlations, t values and Cronbach Alfa Values of Data Collection Tool for Class Climate

Dimensions	Item	r(jx)	T	Cronbach Alfa
Teachersupport	21	0,57*	-17,37	,795
	23	0,61*	-19,43	
	24	0,51*	-14,43	
	22	0,56*	-18,50	
	20	0,44*	-12,71	
	25	0,42*	-11,20	
	19	0,45*	-11,76	
Involvement	8	0,38*	-10,20	,722
	9	0,37*	-10,20	
	6	0,32*	-8,47	
	2	0,40*	-11,46	
	7	0,31*	-7,43	
	4	0,38*	-10,18	
	3	0,45*	-12,52	
	5	0,44*	-12,24	
	1	0,31*	-7,74	
Affilition	15	0,49*	-15,69	,770
	16	0,37*	-10,07	
	17	0,40*	-10,31	
	14	0,31*	-7,52	
	10	0,37	-9,86	
Order&Organization	40	0,48*	-13,71	,751
	41	0,44*	-12,39	
	39	0,51*	-15,82	
	37	0,49*	-15,14	
	46	0,43*	-11,41	
Competition	34	0,44*	-11,69	,706
	35	0,42*	-12,29	
	36	0,36*	-9,21	
	48	0,41*	-12,17	,713
Rules	49	0,44*	-12,82	
	50	0,39*	-11,01	

Looking at Table 6, the scale total score correlations for each item vary from 0.36 to 0.61 and all of the resulting coefficients are statistically meaningful at 0.01 level. The mean score for the responses of students in sub and super groups shows statistically meaningful variations for all items at 0,01level. The correlations between the dimensions of classroom climate's effect on success were examined using the Pearson Product-MomentCorrelation Coefficient.

Table 7.Correlations between the Dimensions of Effect of Classroom Climate on Success Data Collection Tool

Dimensisons

	Rules	Competition	Order&Organization	Affilition	Involvement	Teacher support
Rules						
Competition	0.24^*					
Order&Organization	0.50^*	0.52^*				
Affilition	0.29^*	-0.10^*	0.26^*			
Involvement	0.21^*	0.35^*	0.45^*	0.22^*		
Teachersupport	0.55^*	0.36^*	0.54^*	0.40^*	0.57^*	

$^*p<0.05$

As shown by Table 7, there are meaningful correlations between the dimensions of the Effect of Classroom Climate on Success. The strongest correlation is between teacher support and involvement at .05 relevance level as an average and positive correlation(r = .57). Accordingly, the students participate more in the course as the teacher support increases. Secondly, there is an average, positive correlation between the teacher support and in-class rules(r = .55). In this case, the increase in the teacher supportleads to students following in-class rules. There is an average, positive relation between the course order and in-class rules and competition respectively(r = . 50), (r =. 52). There is also an average, positive relation of involvement with competition and course order(r = . 35), (r =.45). While the Relations aspect has a low and positive correlation with the in-class rules and course order, it has a low, negative correlation with competition (r= .29), (r = .26), (r = -.10). In other words, whereas the students have positive relations with each others, the in-class rules and course order improve, while competition between the students declines. The Relations aspect is inversely correlated to the competition. Videlicet, the competition increases as the relations decline and decreases as the relations increase. In this scale, the lowest correlation between the dimensions is between the involvement and relations. This correlation is low level and positive(r =. 22) (Table 7).

For the purpose of confirming the factors in the measuring tool for the effect of classroom climate on success, confirmative factor analysis was applied to the resulting data using Lisrel 8.54 package program. During the analysis, the modification recommendations were taken into consideration and the researcher decided to make modifications between the items 2. and1., 3. and2., 8. and 6., 17. and16., 20. and19., 21. and19., 21. and20., 23. and21., 35. and34., 39. and40., 41. and48., 99. and48. Table 8 provides the statistics relating to the conformance of confirmative analysis results for the class climate data collection tool as a result of all the analyses.

Table 8.The Values Relating to Goodness of Fit Tests for the Effect of Classroom Climate on Success Data Collection Tool

X^2	Df	X^2/df	p	NFI	NNFI	CFI	GFI	AGFI	IFI	RFI	SRMR	RMSEA	90%CI RMSEA
1506.79	437	3.45	0.000	0.89	0.91	0.92	0.89	0.87	0.92	0.88	0.055	0.056	0.053–0.059

* p<0.01

It is observed that the chi-square value (X^2=1506.79, sd=437, X^2/df=3.45, p=.000) Table 8 is meaningful. GFI and AGFI over .90 in goodness of fit indexes shows the existence of good conformance (Marsh and Hocevar, 1988), while 0.85-0.90 range for GFI and an AGFI value over 0.80 shows that an acceptable conformance is present (Cole, 1987; Mars, Balla and McDonald, 1988). The study found the calculated values as GFI=0.89 and AGFI=0.87. The resulting values show an acceptable conformance. Conformance indexes were found as CFI=0.92, NFI=0.89, SRMR=0.055, RMSEA=0.056 and IFI=0.92. Of these values, >0.90 for CFI and NFI values, <0.08 for RMSEA and SRMR (Anderson and Gerbing, 1984), >0.90 for RFI and IFI (Hair, Anderson, Tapham and Black, 1998) scales were broadly evaluated, showing conformance between the model and the observed data. As a result of the confirmative factor analysis, the item factor loads(λ) and explained variances (R^2) were investigated, in addition to the conformance indexes of the 32-item scale. The resulting data is shown in Table 15.

Table 9.Item Factor Loads, t Values, Error Variances and Variance Explanation Rates Attained Using DFA

Madde	λ	t	SE	R^2	Madde	λ	t	SE	R^2
M_{21}	0.65	17.82	0.58	0.42	M_6	0.41	10.21	0.83	0.17
M_{22}	0.65	18.51	0.58	0.42	M_5	0.52	13.37	0.73	0.27

	λ	t		R^2		λ	t		R^2
M_{23}	0.69	19.79	0.52	0.48	M_4	0.54	13.98	0.71	0.23
M_{24}	0.65	18.65	0.57	0.43	M_1	0.28	6.85	0.92	0.08
M_{20}	0.46	12.28	0.78	0.22	M_{15}	0.83	23.71	0.31	0.69
M_{19}	0.48	12.88	0.77	0.23	M_{16}	0.57	15.33	0.68	0.32
M_{40}	0.60	15.05	0.64	0.36	M_{17}	0.55	14.69	0.70	0.30
M_{39}	0.62	16.22	0.61	0.39	M_{14}	0.56	15.24	0.68	0.32
M_{41}	0.58	14.95	0.67	0.33	M_{10}	0.56	15.08	0.69	0.31
M_{46}	0.48	12.28	0.77	0.23	M_{34}	0.51	11.90	0.73	0.27
M_{37}	0.61	15.87	0.63	0.37	M_{35}	0.43	10.05	0.81	0.19
M_7	0.43	10.72	0.82	0.18	M_{36}	0.83	15.96	0.31	0.69
M_8	0.53	13.55	0.72	0.28	M_{48}	0.55	11.74	0.70	0.30
M_2	0.42	10.50	0.82	0.18	M_{49}	0.53	11.39	0.71	0.29
M_9	0.51	13.18	0.74	0.26	M_{50}	0.64	13.34	0.59	0.41
M_3	0.48	12.14	0.77	0.23	M_{25}	0.40	14.01	0.28	0.24

Table 9 shows the factor loads (λ) vary in 0.28- 0.83 range according to the confirmative factor analysis. The resulting values must be greater than 0.10, considering their absolute value. A value below 0,10 is defined as the "small effect" , a value around 0,30 is defined as "medium effect" and a value over 0.50 is defined as "large effect" (Kline, 2005). Accordingly, it is possible to suggest that the factor loads generally have large effects. Furthermore, if we look at the t values relating to the resulting factor loads, it is clear that the t values of all items are meaningful. As demonstrated in Table 9, the R^2 (explained variance) values of items in general appear to be in medium level. Through the confirmative factor analysis, the scale consisting of 32 items and six sub-dimensions that were analyzed were finalized. Assessing the attained results as a whole reveals that all items included in the model conform to the model. Based on these findings, it can be said that each factor correctly represents the expressions comprising it and the scale provides a valid structure.

2.5. Data Analysis

In the survey the primary teaching senior year students they graduated from Anatolian teacher high schools and other schools have been studied with t-test in order to determine whether there is significance difference among the opinions of candidate teachers graduating from Anatolian teacher high school or other secondary education institutions (general high schools, vocational high schools) in primary teaching senior year with respect to "Teacher support", "Involvement", "Affiliation", "Course Order", "Competition" and "Clarity of Rules".

2.6. List of Symbols

F	Frequency
$\overline{X}$	Arithmetic Mean Value
K.T.	Sum of Squares
K.O.	Mean of Squares
p	Level of Significance
ss	Standard Deviation Value
N	Number of Data in Distribution
t	T test value
r	Pearson Correlation Coefficient
KMO	Kaiser- Meyer-Olkin
DFA	Confirmative Factor Analysis
λ	Item Factor Loads
R^2	Explained Variance

3.FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION

3.1. Findings and Interpretation of Sub-Dimension "Teacher support" According to Secondary Education Institution Student Graduated From

Table 10 provides the mean values and t- test results for the sub-dimension "Teacher support" According to Secondary Education Institution Student Graduated From.

Table 10.Mean Values and t – test Results for Sub-Dimension "Teacher support" According to Secondary Education Institution Student Graduated From

Dimension	Type of schools	N	$\overline{X}$	ss	sd	t	p
Teacher support	AÖL	91	3,797	,575	786	3,512	,000*
	Other	697	3,585	,538			

As shown by Table 10, the students' views on the teacher support sub-dimension demonstrate a meaningful variation according to the secondary education institution they graduated from [t $_{(786)}$=3.512, p< 0.05]. It is noted that the students that graduated from Teacher High Schools considered the teacher support more significant in bolstering success compared to student that graduated from other secondary education institutions. Considering the mean values, it is evident that students who graduated from Anatolian Teacher High Schools (AÖL) have higher opinions about the teacher support sub-dimension [$\overline{X}$ $_{(AÖL)}$ = 3,797, $\overline{X}$ $_{(other)}$ = 3,585]. It can be suggested that this stems from the fact that the Anatolian Teacher High Schools provide education to prepare students to be teachers, which is why the graduates of these schools have higher expectations towards teacher support in the classroom climate. In his research titled "Anadolu Öğretmen Liseleri ve bu Liselerden Mezun Eğitim Fakültesi Öğrencileri Üzerine Bir İnceleme (An Assessment on the Anatolian Teacher High Schools and Education Faculty Students that Graduated from These Schools",Çetin (2006: 11) states that teachers assigned to Anatolian Teacher High Schools are effective in directing students of such schools to choose teaching as profession. It is therefore believed that the graduates of teacher high schools consider teacher support as significant.

3.2. Findings and Interpretation of the Sub-Dimension "Involvement" According to Secondary Education Institution Student Graduated From

Table 11 provides the mean values and t- test results for the sub-dimension "Involvement" According to Secondary Education Institution Student Graduated From.

Table 11.The mean values and t- test results for the sub-dimension "Involvement" According to Secondary Education Institution Student Graduated From

Dimension	Type of schools	N	$\overline{X}$	ss	sd	t	p
Involvement	AÖL	91	4,022	,410	786	6,872	,000*
	Other	697	3,698	,424			

Table 11 shows that students' opinions on the sub-dimension 'involvement' show a meaningful variation according to the type of school they graduated from [t $_{(786)}$=6.872, p< 0.05]. It is seen that the students who received education in Anatolian Teacher High Schools have higher opinions of the sub-dimension of involvement compared to students that graduated from other institutions [$\overline{X}$ $_{(AÖL)}$ = 4,022, $\overline{X}$ $_{(Other)}$ = 3,698]. Students in Anatolian Teacher High Schools are educated to become teachers, in line with the founding purpose of this school type (Regulation on Anatolian Teacher High Schools, 1998). The philosophy of becoming a teacher includes the notion of striving to instill the idea of democratic involvement to the students. According to Gülcan, Kuştepeli and Aldemir (2002: 106), knowledge and learning increase the students' satisfaction of the faculty and the courses they receive. Similarly, in this research, the students that graduated from teacher high schools indicate that involvement is important for success more often compared to the students that graduated from other types of schools. Another reason for this can be that they possess greater knowledge on the field and profession. In this regard, we can interpret that the graduates of

Anatolian Teacher High Schools perceive themselves more adequate and knowledgeable compared to the graduates of other high schools. Doğan (2002), in his study titled "Eğitim Fakültesi Sınıf Öğretmenliğinde Öğrenim Gören Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi Mezunu Öğrenciler ile Diğer Ortaöğretim Kurumu Öğrencilerin Çeşitli Derslere Göre Başarılarının Karşılaştırılması (A Comparison of the Achievement in Various Courses by Anatolian Teacher High School Graduates and Other Secondary Education Graduates Receiving Education in Education Faculty, Primary Teaching Department)", found a meaningful variation in favor of Anatolian Teacher High School graduates in the courses on professional knowledge. This study, in line with the findings attained in Gülcan et al. (2002) and Doğan's (2002) study, found that the graduates of Anatolian Teacher High Schools consider involvement as important for increasing success.

3.3. Findings and Interpretation of the Sub-Dimension "Affiliation" According to Secondary Education Institution Student Graduated From

Table 12 provides the mean values and t- test results for the sub-dimension "Affiliation" According to Secondary Education Institution Student Graduated From.

Table 12.The mean values and t- test results for the sub-dimension "Affiliation" According to Secondary Education Institution Student Graduated From

Dimension	Type of schools	N	$\overline{X}$	ss	sd	t	p
Affiliation	AÖL	91	3,226	,642	786	4,608	,000*
	Other	697	2,874	,691			

As is seen in Table 12, the students' opinions on affiliation sub-dimension shows a meaningful variation according to the secondary education institution they graduated from [t $_{(786)}$=4.608, p < 0.05]. Considering the averages, the students that received education in Anatolian teacher high schools have higher opinions of the affiliation compared to the students that graduated from other secondary education institutions [$\overline{X}$ $_{(AÖL)}$ = 3,226, $\overline{X}$ $_{(Other)}$ = 2,874]. In this case, we can interpret that the graduates of teacher high schools agree at a higher level that affiliation sub-dimension increases success.

It is understood that the graduates of Anatolian teacher high schools assign greater importance to informal relationships in the classroom; doing homework, listening to the course together, helping each other with assignment and project preparations etc., compared to the graduates of other secondary education institutions. With their education programmes, methods, applications and studies, Anatolian teacher high schools train their students to be more ready for the profession of teaching compared to other high schools. In the study titled "Öğretmen Liselerindeki Öğrencilerin Kişilik Özellikleri ve Öğretmenlik Mesleğine Yönelik Tutumları Arasındaki İlişkiler (The Correlations between the Personality Traits and Attitudes towards the Profession of Teaching of Students in Teacher High Schools)", Atalay (2005) concluded that the students receiving education in Anatolian teacher high schools have a high cooperative attitude towards the profession of teaching. Since the Anatolian teacher high schools also serve as boarding schools, it is believed that the students have more advanced social relations with other students and teachers compared to other high schools.

3.4. Findings and Interpretation of the Sub-Dimension "Course Order" According to Secondary Education Institution Student Graduated From

Table 13 provides the mean values and t- test results for the sub-dimension "Course Order" According to Secondary Education Institution Student Graduated From.

Table 13. The mean values and t- test results for the sub-dimension "Course Order" According to Secondary Education Institution Student Graduated From

Dimension	Type of schools	N	$\overline{X}$	ss	sd	t	p
Order& Organizat	AÖL	91	3,756	,661	786	1,354	,176

ion							
	Other	697	3,667	,577			

As is evident in Table 13, the students' opinion of course order sub-dimension do now show meaningful variations according to the school they graduated from [t $_{(786)}$=1.354, p> 0.05]. Evaluation of the mean values indicate that the graduates of Anatolian teacher high schools have relatively higher opinions of the course order sub-dimension [$\overline{X}$ $_{(AÖL)}$ = 3,756, $\overline{X}$ $_{(Other)}$ = 3,667]. It is possible to suggest that this variation is due to the fact that Anatolian teacher high school graduates have greater readiness towards the teaching profession knowledge education program.

3.5. Findings and Interpretation of the Sub-Dimension "Competition" According to Secondary Education Institution Student Graduated From

Table 14 provides the mean values and t – test results for the "competition" sub-dimension of primary teaching senior students' opinion on the effect of classroom climate on success according to the secondary education institution student graduated from.

Table 14.The mean values and t- test results for the sub-dimension "Competition" According to Secondary Education Institution Student Graduated From

Dimension	Type of schools	N	$\overline{X}$	ss	sd	t	p
Competitio n	AÖL	91	3,491	,963			
	Other	697	3,525	,767	786	-,383	2,70

Table 14 makes it clear that the students' opinion on the competition in the classroom do not show any meaningful variation according to the secondary education institution they graduated from [t $_{(786)}$=-0.383, p> 0.05]. Taking the mean values into consideration, it is clear that the graduates of Anatolian teacher high schools have relatively lower opinions on the competition in classroom [$\overline{X}$ $_{(AÖL)}$ = 3.491, $\overline{X}$ $_{(Other)}$ = 3.525]. It is evident that competition in the classroom is not a significant factor influencing the success.

3.6.Findings and Interpretation of the Sub-Dimension "Clarity of Rules" According to Secondary Education Institution Student Graduated From

Table 15 provides the mean values and t – test results for the "clarity of competition" sub-dimension of primary teaching senior students' opinion on the effect of classroom climate on success according to the secondary education institution student graduated from.

Table 15.The mean values and t- test results for the sub-dimension "Clarity of Rules" According to Secondary Education Institution Student Graduated From

Dimension	Type of schools	N	$\overline{X}$	ss	sd	t	p
Rules	AÖL	91	2,927	,720	786	-1,449	,148
	Other	697	3,039	,690			

Table 15 makes it clear that the students' opinion on the clarity of rules do not show any meaningful variation according to the secondary education institution they graduated from[t $_{(786)}$=1.449, p> 0.05]. Taking the mean values into consideration, it is clear that the graduates of Anatolian teacher high schools have relatively lower opinions on the clarity of rules [$\overline{X}$ $_{(AÖL)}$ = 2,927, $\overline{X}$ $_{(Other)}$ = 3,039].

4.CONCLUSION

Regarding the effect of class climate on student success, primary teaching senior students that graduated from Anatolian Teacher High Schools have more positive opinions compared to the graduates of other secondary education institutions. Students that graduated from Anatolian Teacher High Schools assign greater importance to teacher support, involvement, affiliation and course order dimensions with respect to the effect of classroom climate on success, compared to the graduates of other secondary education institutions. With respect to competition and clarity of rules, there is no meaningful variation in the student opinions according to the type of school they graduated from. It is obvious that institutional continuity has a positive effect on the transition from secondary education to higher education. Consequently, the environment can influence the individual, just as the individual can influence the environment. Thus, it is necessary to increase student awareness towards the classroom climate. There is no theory or practice available to create an ideal classroom climate. However, it is important for the individual to feel a sense of belonging to their environment and receive positive influences from the environment through such belonging, in order to experience quality learning life. The lecturer's adequacy, student's performance of the student role with social and normative characteristics, selection of content suitable for the nature of the information, synthesizing the current and scientific elements, healthy communication can render a quality classroom climate possible. What this thesis defends is that the awareness of lecturers and students must be increased towards "involvement, "teacher support", "affiliation", "course order", "competition" and "clarity of rules", which can boost success.

5.RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations, developed on the basis of the results of the study, are intended for program developers and education faculties and are provided below.

1. Program development experts should develop the hidden curriculum of universities, faculties and departments according to the official program.

2. The students that graduated from Anatolian teacher high schools consider the "teacher support", "involvement", "affiliation" and "course order" more significant with respect to the classroom climate increasing success, compared to the graduates of other secondary education institutions. The graduates of other secondary education institutions must be prevented from merely concerning themselves with having a job in the education faculties, reinforcing the sense of becoming a teacher throughout the learning life and opening optional courses that the students would be interested in, so as to introduce the scientific and artistic aspects of teaching as a profession.

3. Students can be given assessment forms relating to the quality of the classroom climate at the end of term in relation to all courses they take. Therefore, the students' feedback can be taken into consideration to provide contributions to the positive development of the classroom climate.

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THEME 4

CURRICULAR PRACTICES AND DISCOURSES

The Effects of Using Jigsaw Technique (Based On Cooperative Learning Model) in Information Technology Teaching

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Abstract

A teaching method may be easily considered as useless if it does not support students' thinking skills, increase their creativity and prevent them from rote learning. Thus, new methods have to be created and used to solve education-related problems. One leading method is cooperative teaching which enables students to achieve a common goal by helping each other in small groups for a better learning. Although many studies exist on the use of computers and technology as supportive materials in almost every field of education, little has been done to examine methods in learning of computers and technology. It has been observed that students fail in learning computers and technology due to teaching through presentation or demonstration which do not support students to think analytically. We think that new methods need to be used that would develop students' analytical thinking skills and increase their success in their learning of computers and technology. For this purpose, activities in cooperative and traditional learning methods have been compared to see if the former affect more than the latter students' academic achievement and their attitudes on computers and technology. For this study, two sample groups were created among university sophomore students. An eight-week computer course was designed for both groups. In one group (the control group), computer courses were taught traditionally while other group was taught using cooperative learning activities (the experimental group). Students were compared in term of their achievement scores and their attitudes toward computer by pre- and post-tests as well as attitude scales. While in pre-test there was no significant difference in academic achievement between groups, post-test showed a statistically significant difference regarding academic achievement and significant increase in attitude toward computers in favor of students in the experimental group.

Keywords: Jigsaw technique; cooperative learning; information technology teaching.

1   Introduction

Student-student interaction is as important as the one between teacher-student in an effective instruction (Ekinci, 2011).To the present, although many teaching approaches and models were applied, it seems that the model that has the most supported student-student interaction is cooperative learning model (Mills & Durden, 1992; Oral, 2000; Slavin, 1991). Originally very old, cooperative learning model can be defined as an active learning process in which students help each other for a common purpose (Ballantine & Larres, 2007; Eilks, 2005; Gillies, 2006; Hennessy & Evans, 2006; Levine, 2001; Lin, 2006). While in group work, individuals need to reconstruct problems and to internalize the subject studied in order to help each other and to transfer to others what they learnt. In this process, individuals gain new perspectives and thus develop themselves and also contribute to group members' development (Johnson & Johnson, 1990; Lee, Ng & Jacobs, 1997; Lejik, Wyvill &Farrow, 1996).

While looking closer at techniques of cooperative learning, we can observe many techniques of this model and many sub-dimensions of these techniques. However, in the nature of these techniques in general, students have to see each other as a competitor or team member. Research indicates both sociologically and psychologically negative effect in students when they see each other as competing (Açıkgöz, 2003; Ekinci, 2011; Slavin, 1995). To minimize these negative effects, researchers focused more on group work and studied on the sub-dimensions of these techniques. As a result, students working in groups had better academic achievements, their self-efficacy, attitudes and social skills being increased (Bandura, 1994; Johnson, Johnson & Holubec, 1993; Slavin, 1990; Ural, 2007).

One of the principal techniques that focus on group work is Jigsaw. In Jigsaw, developed by Aronson (1978), small groups of students are first formed, then, a specialty group is created according topics chosen by students in small groups (Aronson et al., 1978). Students learning in specialty group by discussing topics turn back to their own group to respectively describe their subjects (Demirel, 2012). Jigsaw technique is enriched after its first version by Aronson and many sub-dimensions of it have been created (Hedeen, 2003; Holliday, 1998; Slavin et al., 1985).

Nowadays, despite wide spread use of computers in education, there are few studies on teaching of computer. However, some studies indicate that constructivist approach in teaching computer was successful (Taxen, 2004). Since programming languages especially must be required to analytical thinking skill, and complex structures of algorithms, more successful results were obtained with social learning environments and theories (Alstete & Beutell, 2004; Hämäläinen & Häkkinen, 2010; Kordaki, 2010; McNamara & Brown, 2008; Shaw, 2012).Based on Pozzi's (2010) view indicating that Jigsaw is a very specific technique that supports social learning because its specialty group is homogenous and its principal groups are heterogeneous, the main purpose of the present study is to investigate the effects of Jigsaw technique on teaching of Internet-based programming languages. For this purpose, following research questions were stated:

- Is there a significant difference between students using Jigsaw technique and those using traditional method concerning their academic achievements in learning of Internet-based programming languages?

- What is students' view on the use of Jigsaw technique on teaching of Internet-based programming languages?

2   Method

Semi-experimental method which is defined as a method where previously created groups used in case of formation of control and experimental groups is difficult or impossible(Karasar, 1999); data were collected to answer research questions through pretest, posttest and opinion forms.

For the study, programming domain of teaching information technology is discussed. This field has been selected for covering all steps of knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. Because programming is not only to know the codes but also requires the ability to create algorithms to reach conclusions through the shortest path. For programming domain, sub-domain of internet-based programming was chosen to determine topics such as server management, Html language, ASP language, visual programming, database and web site management.

Before the training, two classes of similar characteristics were created. A pretest was used to test prior knowledge of groups. After creating the groups, participants were informed about the study. Training took eight weeks, five hours per week.

After being informed about the study, participants in experimental group were divided into groups of four to six. Groups were given six different topics and each student was asked to choose one. Students who had chosen same topics were assigned to specialty groups and asked to study these topics with their group mates for two weeks. During this time, students are mentored by the instructor. In the third week of the training, participants in specialty groups were asked to return their home groups and to tell the topics to their group mates. During this time again, a consultancy service was provided by the instructor.

For the control group, topics was planned to be told for eight weeks with presentation and demonstration techniques. 20% of teaching time is devoted to the trainings. At the end of trainings, groups were given a post-test to measure their knowledge level.

2.1 Participants

64 third year university students were chosen by convenience sampling model to participate in the study. However, four students were excluded from the sample because of the extreme values in their test scores. After the excluding of these students, the analyses of the study were performed with 60 students. 48.30% of the participants (n = 29) were female, 51.70% (n = 31) were male students. Participants were students attending Internet-based programming language course in a state university in the southern region of Turkey. Of students registered to two class groups, the first group was determined as treatment group and trained using jigsaw technique whereas the second one was assigned as control group and trained with conventional methods. Profiles of the participants are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Profiles of participants

	Female	Male	Total
Control group	15	15	30
Experimental group	14	16	30
Total	29	31	60

2.2 Data Collection Tolls and Analyses

Data of the present study were collected through pre / post knowledge tests and application view form consisted in open-ended questions. Pilot knowledge test consisting of 30 questions was first prepared in accordance with the opinion of experts, and then was administered to 92 fourth year students studying at the same department. The data obtained from the pilot test items were analyzed and each item's discriminate and difficulty index was calculated. The items that had 20 discriminate index were taken away from the test (Tekin, 2000). Consequently, statistical operations were performed over the knowledge test consisting of 25 items. Reliability coefficients were calculated.71 using KR 20 formula. After the application, participants were given four open-ended questions to obtain qualitative data about techniques used.

3 Results

Students participating in the study were administered achievement tests before and after the application. Pretest scores of students in control and treatment groups are given in Table 2.

Table 2: The distribution of participants' pre-and post-test scores

	Control group			Experimental group		
	n	$\bar{x}$	Sd	n	$\bar{x}$	Sd
Pre-test	30	23.47	11.28	30	23.87	10.27
Post-test	30	65.27	10.05	30	72.13	10.37

Pretest scores before trainings were compared and no significant difference was found between the two groups ($t_{1,58}$=.15, p=.89). As test scores exhibited normal distribution, they have been found suitable for parametric tests.

In accordance with the data obtained from pre-test, an ANOVA was used to determine which method is more effective in web-based programming and a significant difference was found in favor of the experimental group ($F_{1,58}$=4.39, p=.04, η^2= .07). The method was examined in terms of its effect on gender but gender and method as independent variables did not create a significant difference ($F_{11,47}$=1.02, p=.32, η^2= .02).

The application view form administered to participants was analyzed and coded by researchers. In general, the method did not satisfy the control group whereas it did the treatment group. However, the experimental group reported some negative opinions at certain points regarding the applications.

Following the coding of the form, negative feedbacks of the control group "lack of practice" (n = 20), "time" (n = 14), "feedback" (n = 5), "boredom" (n = 4) were grouped by themes with negative feedbacks of the treatment group "time" (n = 10), "insecurity" (n = 7), "irresponsibility" (n = 9), "feedback" (n = 3); no significant coding was made for other questions. A more detailed description of the specified themes will be made in the discussion section.

Participants were asked: "in which way this course or other computer-related courses should be taught?" Some answers obtained from participants were as follows (C: control group's participant; E: experimental group's participant).

C01: Invention method should be used instead of presentation and demonstration methods. Collaborative methods or peer tutoring should also be used.

C06: Project-based teaching can be used. It's challenging to have a homework or project about a program but I learn better.

C09: Giving small-scale projects after the presentation of topics and verifying if these topics were learnt or not should be better.

E01: …projects and homework should be given and even those who do not want such extra class activities should be convinced of the importance of these activities.

E09: Students must make practice after the presentation of the course by teacher and then the method that we have seen in the course should be used.

E11: Demonstration method should be used and the teacher should look after each student.

4 Discussion

According to the results of the statistical findings, Jigsaw technique is more successful than traditional methods in the teaching of Internet-based programming. Although many studies in the literature (Andreas, Tsiatsos, Terzidou & Pomportsis, 2010; Dillenbourg & Jermann, 2007; Köseoğlu, 2010; Ghaith & El-Malak, 2004;) revealed that Jigsaw technique was more effective than conventional methods, the present study, its difference and effectiveness were found to be low. When we examine the possible reasons of this low difference and effectiveness, we think it is possible that measuring instruments could not make a precise measurement and also the students in treatment group could not willingly participate in the study. This result can be supported by the statement given by *E18*: "…it was nice for me to study this way. But some of my group mates seemed unwilling and they told their topics just to tell them. This kind of study needs volunteer and willing students. E03, E11 and E22 also provided support for this conclusion with similar comments.

In addition to the above-mentioned results, lowness of the difference between the experimental and control groups was associated with the themes of negative feedbacks given by the experimental group. The main theme in negative views of the treatment group is "time". Participants in both specialty and main groups reported that they did not have enough time to tell their topics. Even though some groups indicated that they could study together outside of school, teaching time was generally insufficient for such group works. When examined in detail, the theme time was commented as the main reason for the lowness in students' achievements. This comment is also supported by some studies in the literature (Şimsek, 2007; Şimsek et al., 2005). We think that students would be more successful if they had more time and space and that the difference between groups would be increased.

Another negative theme is "insecurity". The participants doubt their group mates, who told topics in their main groups, they seemed question the accuracy of the topics told by their friends. Participants stated that it would be better if the topics told were approved by the instructor. Some participants had or would have difficulty in learning the subjects because of this anxiety. For this reason, we think it would be more useful if instructors deal more with the participants after specialty groups to diminish this anxiety in participants. However, as it is impossible for instructors to give so many times for each group, we think it would be beneficial more than one instructor/consultant is present in a group and acts as if he/she is a group member.

Participants reported that some group members have failed to adequately fulfill their responsibilities in main groups and this was coded with the theme "irresponsible". Many participants indicated that they understood very well their subjects but they did not understand their group mates' subjects because they did not prepare enough their subjects and could not tell them as clearly as needed. In parallel with the previously mentioned theme "voluntary", this theme is seen as the biggest obstacle to the success of the participants. Therefore, in case participants are not voluntary, this method cannot provide the desired level of efficacy. Although participants are voluntary at the beginning, they could fail to meet their responsibilities, so we think it is advantageous to take some precautions. Group members should

evaluate each other; these evaluations should have effect on their final grades and for each group proposed under the theme "insecurity", an instructor/consultant should control carefully students and stimulate those who do not fulfill their responsibility to provide topics which are missing.

Participants also reported that they could not get enough feedback from the instructor. We think that this limitation can also be overcome with assignment more than one instructor/consultant.

In addition to negative opinions of the experimental group, the control group stated negative views concerning the themes "lack of practice" and "time". Participants in the control group indicated that courses were made by presentation method and they did not have sufficient time for demonstration method. If examined in detail, these two themes focus on the same point. It is observed that instructors did not set aside enough time for practice, they lectured with EXPLAINING method and they did not give enough time for practice to participants. It is established that academic success of the participants did not increase as they did not have enough practice. At this point, a participant stated that this limitation would be overcome by recording and sharing the courses and screenshots, this is a suggestion with which the researchers agreed.

5   Conclusion

Nowadays, it is believed that computer-content courses are taught with demonstration technique based on the explaining one is an obstacle to the success of the students. Especially in advanced subjects (programming, etc.) which require not only knowledge level but also practice and creation level and also metacognitive abilities, alternative approaches and techniques are needed.

Finally, although it has a low impact, collaborative teaching model was found more effective than traditional method regarding web-based programming. However, as the study does not report a strong effect, it is suggested to duplicate this study by restructuring of the measurement instrument. In addition to this proposal, it is also recommended that an instructor/expert accompany study groups. In case this proposal is not possible, it would be profitable to make the participants evaluate each other in their main groups so they fulfill their responsibilities and to take into consideration participants' own area of specialization and their other points in achievement tests.

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Some curricular practices that may be obstructing the way to a better secondary education

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Abstract

The fact of being a small country with no native Indians, only one language, geographically integrated, and a strong European cultural heritage, certainly surprises the people of Uruguay when faced to the recent performance of its secondary education. For instance, in 2006 only 39% of its students finished secondary studies, much less than their neighbors in Argentina (69%) or Chile (80%) who deal with much more complex societies.

High repetition rates in the first year of secondary studies, and large numbers of students dropping out, have become something usual. Scholars, authorities, classroom teachers, decision makers, families, everybody ask for explanations of such a status quo, and certainly, urge for intelligent and creative solutions.

To focus on some curriculum aspects with a comparative approach helps to put the country in perspective, and to be critical about its almost chronic difficulties to implement change.

The paper will present four critical curriculum issues as they take place in the country, and will confront them with current tendencies, as they emerge from international literature.

The four issues are: how has the transition between Primary and Secondary studies been resolved; which are the leading contents and teaching strategies being developed; how centralized is curriculum, in terms of the tension between central and local decision making, and the way this may affect local innovation and creativity; and which are the consequences of a low matriculation rate in technical studies (21.6%), when the complete picture of educational opportunities for the young is considered.

Keywords: curricular tendencies, Secondary education, comparative perspective.

1   The problem

The key idea of the paper is that to focus on some specific curricular issues, allows a deeper understanding of the problems secondary education faces in a Latin American country traditionally good in educational performance. Recent problems stem from curricular stagnation, rigidity and little change. This results in high repetition and dropout rates (recent results show that in several secondary schools student repetition peaked to 40% in the first year, and secondary education has an overall 20% of dropouts), and the lowest graduation rate in the region. In 2006 only 39% of Uruguay's students finished secondary studies, much less than their neighbors in Argentina (69%) or Chile (80%) who deal with more complex societies (Aristimuño & De Armas, 2012).

The country's problems are first presented, followed by some evidence of alternative curriculum practices that lead to better results in several other countries.

1.1.   A problematic transition between Primary and Secondary level

Primary and Secondary level curricula have been designed as completely different educational options in the country.

During Primary studies, a comprehensive syllabus is put into practice, with three or four different knowledge areas, led by one leading teacher with some intervention of specialized teachers (arts, science). The student builds its learning process with a more or less united curricular proposal.

As Secondary studies are still functional to their origin -as a preparation for higher level studies, especially the university level- a very scholastic and theoretical syllabus is the norm, with long lists of content-related topics, with students facing twelve and even fourteen different subjects along a school day (and the corresponding teachers). The student must perform the connections among similar or related contents, a very difficult synthesis for twelve or thirteen year-old adolescents. Even the building and the landscape vary, because Primary school administration is different from the Secondary one, so the student faces a complete change when finishing its Primary level studies: another building, another neighbourhood, another population, and quite another curriculum orientation.

Certainly there are social and economic reasons that put thousands of students in a position that leads them to repeat or even drop out form school. Recent studies have identified several of these reasons, such as being a boy, attending a public school, or belonging to the poorest portion of socioeconomic status (Aristimuño, 2009; Moreira et al, 2007), but they have also shed light to the fact that some aspects of the way the curriculum is put into practice are also important. The ones mentioned in the preceding paragraph certainly affect student motivation and performance.

1.2.   Curricular rigidity in terms of contents and teaching strategies which lead to student disengagement

In addition to the high number of subjects that compose the syllabus, a strong isolation between them is the norm. Working conditions of teachers do not promote a collaborative work among them, nor offer technical support to a more integrated work. A very high rate of teacher rotation between schools conspires against the construction of stronger bonds among teachers, and higher feelings of belonging to an integrated school culture.

Some studies that have done direct observation in public Secondary schools, and asked students which are the leading practices their teachers put into practice in their classrooms, provide a fresh picture of the way instruction takes place today. In one of these studies (Aristimuño, Bentancur & Musselli, 2011), the students of 2nd and 3rd grade in the four public highs schools with best results in the most deprived socioeconomic contexts of the capital city, answered to a survey. Some of the results, synthesized below, are very revealing:

- 64.8% report that almost every day they have some free hour (no lesson) because some teacher is absent;
- 83.7% inform that in their classrooms, there are a lot of discipline problems;
- 79.7% report that never or in very few occasions audiovisual devices are used by their teachers (DSDs, PPT, CDs or radios);
- 72.3% inform that they never or in very few occasions go to the lab with their science teachers; and
- 85.5% report that they never or in very few occasions go to extra-school activities organized by their teachers, such as attending a theatre performance, or visiting any other institution, with educative purposes.

1.3.   A centralized curriculum with little margin for local adaptations

Uruguay has historically had a centralized curriculum: one syllabus for Primary, one for Secondary general, and one for Technical studies. There are many variations that cope with students with special needs, and of course, there are many different offers in the technical and vocational area, but every program has only one version, launched from the public authority and implemented at the local level by the principals and teachers. These official prescriptions include the general goals pursued, the specific goals for the specific subject, the contents to be taught, the teaching strategies and the assessment guidelines. There is also the expectation in terms of time: at a certain moment of the year, the teacher should be teaching a specific topic.

There are no municipal nor local autonomy margins, no school initiative nor teacher variations promoted. At the implementation level there is always a margin for autonomy, but this margin is not asked, it is "taken" by the local actors, taken at their own risk, which may be punished by the official inspectors, in their regular visits to the schools.

Private schools are monitored by the public inspectorate, and they get a permission to work in accordance to the compliance to public prescriptions.

1.4.   Low weight of vocational and technical education at the secondary level

It is a common trait of Latin American educational systems: secondary general studies have higher matriculation rates than technical vocational studies.

Historical as well as budgetary reasons contribute to this, but even though the reasons may be clear, perhaps there is still not a strong awareness of the consequences.

According to information available in Unesco's Institute for Statistics (www.uis.unesco.org), the proportion of students enrolled in technical and vocational studies in relation to all the students enrolled in secondary higher education, in the years 2000-2009, is of 40.2% for the countries of *very high* human development (e.g. the OECD countries), and of 26.6% for the *high* human development group (e.g., Brazil, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador, Iran, Mexico, Turkey, Uruguay). The participation of Uruguay's technical and vocational enrolment rate in the total enrolment rate of the whole enrolment in secondary high is a scarce 21.6%.

The high dropout rate of Secondary studies in Uruguay may be the visible face of a deep problem, namely, a strong lack of balance between the general and the technical modalities. As the second one has a controlled enrolment system with quotas, every student that cannot enter technical studies, is enrolled in the general one, with the subsequent low motivation for the student, and the family perception of being forced into a too theoretical and useless educational opportunity. Dropping out is a mere consequence of this combination of factors.

2. A comparative perspective to look for alternatives

A synthetic view of how these issues behave in different contexts may provide useful and insightful ideas on how to tackle with the severe problems presented.

2.1. Other ways of building a transition

To begin with, there is no transition in many countries, because Primary studies have been integrated with two or three years of junior high school into one unique curricular proposal. Several countries call this "comprehensive" (as in Finland, Iceland or Denmark), and still others "fundamental" (*ensino fundamental* in Brazil). Usually, it comprises 8 or 9 years of study. In the region, Chile has an 8 year old cycle, and Argentina has experienced the 9 years one, and is now coming back to a differentiated model of 6 + 3.

What matters most is the effort that is taking place in several countries, in order to look for a better integration between Primary and Secondary studies, visible in the integration of contents, teaching strategies and assessment practices. In addition, in several countries teachers are trained in the same institutions and not in separate ones, as still happens in many places, such as Uruguay.

2.2. Contents and teaching strategies

A general tendency has been that of putting into practice teaching strategies that are congruent, or at least not contradictory, during the last years of Primary and the first of Secondary education, be them separate or a unique comprehensive curriculum program.

More active, student-oriented and related to real-life contents are included, and a strong emphasis is made on the introduction of audiovisual media, which are at hand for millions of students at their homes, but are absent in their classrooms, as seen in section 1.2.

Problem-based-learning and student-led projects are the norm in several contexts, as opposed to long monologues of teachers who just transmit information. The presence of ICTs at the schools has become very helpful to promote the initiative of xxi century students who have access to much more information, images, fiction and intellectual production than any of their ancestors ever had while they were students.

2.3. More local initiative

Today, there are few countries where a tight and centralized curriculum is developed. Different ways of local initiative happen, be it at the institutional or geographical level.

Once several general curriculum directives have been established (e.g., *Directrices Curriculares Nacionales* of Brazil, or the four broad competencies proposed in Scotland at a very general level), local authorities (e.g.,the Local Scottish Authorities), schools and even teachers have flexible margins to develop their teaching activities. Almost every country in northern Europe follows this way of curriculum development.

In many countries, as for instance Canada, local boards that may include parents direct the schools, and they may even hire teachers or principals, something that would never happen in countries of a tight State control.

2.4. More relevance to technical and vocational studies

Some countries have developed stronger technical programs at the Secondary level, because they foresaw the importance of such education in the context of contemporary societies, as well as they tried to balance the importance given to both types (the secondary general/the secondary technical). But it is a costly option that demands a lot of resources and is full of turbulence.

Many of the recent reforms that have happened in Europe, have tried to tackle this problem, and the process has not been an easy one. Historical facts that impede change, as well as intellectually-held prejudice are commonplace. The process of England, which started with the launching of the *Consultative Green Paper* in 2002 shows how difficult it has been to achieve a profound change (AERA, 2011; Hodgson and Spours, 2010).

There is a slight association between the level of human development (which includes economic development) of a country and the weight that technical education has in the total enrolment rate of secondary studies. As seen in 1.4., most OECD countries which have reached important human development levels, are also the ones that have developed the most their technical education curriculum.

Seen from a citizen´s point of view, contemporary societies demand a more accurate technical education for every student, whatever its particular place in the educational offer. This is to say that *every* student should have a strong technical education in order to succeed in highly-technological societies.

3. Conclusion

This paper has shown that to focus on several curriculum issues can bring light to the explanation of the problems a specific country may face, as well as their possible solutions, such as high repetition and dropout rates, and a very low graduation rate at the secondary level. These curricular issues are the transition between Primary and Secondary studies, the contents and teaching strategies being used, the margin left to local initiative and the weight of technical education enrolment rates in the whole of Secondary studies. Several examples from other countries are analyzed in a synthetic way, in order to seek for other curricular models and practices that may lead to better results.

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The Students' Perspectives of a Multicultural Curricular Practice of Internationalization in Higher Education in Taiwan— Enrolment in the General Education "Music Cultures of the World" Course as a Situational Study

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Abstract

Taiwan is a multicultural nation, which includes fourteen officially recognized indigenous tribes, as well as immigrants from Mainland China and Southeastern Asia. Furthermore, the globalization of the twenty-first century developed internationalization in higher education, which resulted in more international students arriving in Taiwan to study. How can the educators improve intercultural understanding in the university by designing a curriculum that meets the students' needs? World music related courses could be one way of improving intercultural understanding.

The purpose of this study was to explore the students' perspectives about multicultural education in the university. The results should be able to provide suggestions for improving international cultural understanding by world music instruction using proper course content.

The participants studied were the students who enrolled in "Music Cultures of the World" course for the Spring semester-2013 in the university. Thirty-seven students enrolled in the course. The survey instruments, consisting of two questionnaires, were administered to the students at the half-way point of the semester and the end of the semester. The first questionnaire was conducted in week 9, and the second questionnaire was conducted in week 18, the last week of the semester. However, due to the attendance rate, 33 students attended in week nine and 28 students completed the first questionnaire. The response rate was 85%. Thirty-seven students attended in week 18, and 34 students completed the second questionnaire. The response rate was 92%.

The research results found that the students had very limited experience in listening to world music. The three main ways to become acquainted with cultures of various countries were by watching the related films, internet searching, and listening to the related music. The students thought understanding international cultures was very important and the university stressed the international exchange. The students thought the university only moderately promoted their understanding of various cultures, and its effect was not so apparent.

The students thought the "Music Cultures of World" course could assist their understanding of and stimulate their interest in a multicultural environment. The three main continents the students were interested in exploring were Europe, Asia, and the Caribbean.

The research results suggested film appreciation, introduction of various cultures and music genres, and music making utilizing various ethnic instruments would be beneficial for a multicultural curriculum.

Keywords**:** general education; multicultural music education; world music; higher education; internationalization.

1 Introduction

1.1 Background

Due to the trend of globalization, the internationalization of higher education has become an important issue. Higher education institutions do not only serve for the people in the home country, but all the people who are interested in higher education in the global village (Jiang, 2011, p. 4). Knight (2003) defined university internationalization as "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" (as cited in Jiang, 2011, p. 13). To develop the university, the support of an international and multicultural environment is beneficial for actualization of internationalization (Jiang, 2011, p. 21).

Universities in Taiwan are becoming more internationalized for the growing number of international students. Taking the researcher's university as an example, the increase in international students has been booming recently. The numbers of international students attending in the past four semesters are individually 84, 94, 141, and 146 for the Fall semester-2011, Spring semester-2012, Fall semester-2012, and Spring semester-2013. (http://www.oia.ndhu.edu.tw/files/11-1114-9798.php)

In addition to the internationalization trend, Taiwan is culturally diversified. The population was composed of immigrants from Mainland China (PRC), the fourteen officially recognized indigenous tribes, and recently, the immigrants from Southeastern Asia (Foreign spouse -Taiwan http://zh.wikipedia.org/zh-hant).

Multiculturalism "ideally implies tolerance and respect for other cultures" (Comte, 2010, p. xv). It is important that the local population and international students have a mutual understanding of each other's cultures. It may assist in the tolerance and acceptance of each other for developing a friendly campus.

Lehmberg (2010) mentioned that "many music education scholars support the idea of world music as a means of connecting with culturally diverse populations of students, fostering cultural understanding, and achieving a global perspective in the classroom. . . . Because music mirrors the culture and era in which it is created, the study of world music can enhance students' ability to understand, appreciate, and relate to diversity in today's society"(p. 83).

The researcher would like to implement a world music related course, Music Cultures of the World, as a means to promote multi/intercultural understanding. The teaching content of Music Cultures of the World included music and cultures from Asia (East, Southeastern, and South), Oceania, Europe, the Middle East, the Americas (North, Central, and South), sub-Saharan Africa, and the Caribbean. The course objective was to guide the students to "study music in culture"(as cited in Miller & Shahriari, 2006, p. 19). Music not only bears the elements of sound, but also the meaning of the specific cultures. The students would need to own the knowledge of both music and culture to understand the world's different types of music

1.2 Need for the Study

Taiwanese music education became westernized during the Japanese colonization period (Lu, 2003, pp. 129 & 176). However, nowadays in the twenty-first century, due to convenient transportation and the internet, the globalization and internationalization became an unavoidable trend. The students have many more opportunities to become acquainted with international students. What's more, the Taiwanese population is composed of a growing number of immigrants from Southeastern Asia in recent decades (Lin, Shieh, & Wang, 2008, p. 98). Guiding the students to know the world's different cultures is required for a balanced curriculum. The university curriculum would need to provide the students a preliminary knowledge of the world's different cultures with an open-minded, rather than a prejudiced attitude.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to explore various aspects concerning curriculum about the multicultural music education for internationalization in the university. It is hoped that the university may guide the students to understand world cultures.

The course studied was a general education course named Music Cultures of the World. The study included students' learning motives, music listening genres, course content, curriculum, students' culture perspectives, and the influences of the course.

1.4 Research Questions

The research questions were as follows:

What were the students' learning motives?

What music genres did the students listen to?

What were the students' perspectives about course content?

What were the students' perspectives about curriculum?

What were the students' cultural perspectives?

What were the influences of the course?

1.5   Delimitation of the Study

The course was limited to one course named "Music Cultures of the World", a one-semester elective course, in general education in one national university in Taiwan. The survey participants were the enrolled students who attended the course during the Spring semester-2013.

2   Methodology

2.1   Survey Procedures

The researcher conducted this study during the Spring semester-2013.   The research instruments consisted of two questionnaires. The first questionnaire was implemented in the middle of the semester (Week 9), while the second questionnaire was implemented at the very end of the semester (Week 18).

2.2   Survey Instrument

The survey instruments were two questionnaires designed by the researcher/instructor. The first questionnaire had ten parts with 38 questions. The second questionnaires had ten parts with 33 questions. Some portions of the two questionnaires were in the same/similar design for comparison purposes. It was hoped to explore the differences after a period of instruction.

This study included two levels of measurements, nominal and ordinal (Trochim 2001, pp. 104-105). The questions were structured in the following four different ways: close-ended with ordered choices, close-ended with unordered response choices, partially close-ended, and open-ended questions (Salant and Dillman, 1994, pp. 82-84).

2.3   Questionnaire Content

The first questionnaire has ten parts: 1) personal information, 2) music background, 3) music listening, 4) learning motives, 5) course content, 6) curriculum, 7) teaching materials, 8) the most, 9) cultural perspectives, and 10) other.

The second questionnaire has ten parts: 1) personal information, 2) music background, 3) music listening, 4) learning motives, 5) course content, 6) curriculum, 7) teaching materials, 8) final exam, 9) influences of the course, and 10) other.

2.4   Survey Participants

The participants studied were the students who were officially enrolled in the "Music Cultures of the World" course during the Spring semester-2013 in the university in Taiwan. There were a total of thirty-seven students enrolled in the course.

2.5   Data

Trochim (2001) mentioned that the knowledge of measurement could assist the decision of statistical analysis and interpretation of the data. The measurements used in the questionnaires were nominal and ordinal. For the nominal measurement, the researcher calculated the numbers of the answers to acquire the frequency and percentage. For the ordinal measurement, the five-level Likert scale was transformed into points one to five for obtaining mean and standard deviation.

For the nominal measurement, the data were presented by their frequency and percentage.   For the ordinal measurement, the data were presented by their frequency, mean, and standard deviation. According to Pyrczak (2003), a frequency indicates "the number of subjects or cases," and the symbol used is "N"; a percentage indicates "the number per hundred who have a certain characteristic," and the symbol used is "%"; a mean indicates "one type

of average", and the symbols used is "M"; and a standard deviation is "the most popular measure of variability......it measures how much subjects differ from the mean of their group," and the symbol used is "S" or "SD" (pp. 23,33, 45).

3 Results

3.1 Field Results

The researcher's two different questionnaires were conducted in weeks 9 and 18. Thirty-three students attended the course in week 9, and 28 of them completed the first questionnaire and the response rate was 85%. Thirty-seven students attended the course in week 18, and 34 of them completed the second questionnaire and the response rate was 92%.

3.2 Results Analyses

The students' backgrounds examined genders and languages used at home. There were more males than females who took the course. (male 56%, N = 19; female 44%, N = 15; total N = 34). The two main languages used at home were Mandarin and Taiwanese (i.e., Min-nan language) (multiple answers) (Mandarin 91%, N = 31; Taiwanese 62%, N = 21; English 15%, N = 5; Hakka 3%, N = 1; Indigenous language 3%, N = 1; Other languages 9%, N = 3; total N = 34).

The major learning motive of the students was their desire to know music and cultures of various countries (multiple answers). The learning motives are represented in Table 1.

Table 1: Learning motives (Total N = 28; multiple answers)

Learning motives	%	N
Desire to know music and cultures of various countries	75	21
Keep company with classmates	54	15
Need credits	43	12
Introduced by others who took the course before	32	9

The first questionnaire implemented in week 9, showed the order of frequently listened music genres was Western popular, Taiwanese popular, Western classical, Mainland China popular, Taiwanese folk and the finally, World music. The music genres are represented in Table 2.

Table 2: Music genres frequently listened to (mid-semester)

Music genres	Mean	SD	N
Western popular music	3.57	1.08	28
Taiwanese popular music	3.50	1.32	28
Western classical music	2.32	1.20	28
Mainland China popular music	2.29	1.05	28
Taiwanese folk music	1.57	0.73	28
World music	1.36	0.55	28

After two months, the researcher implemented the second questionnaire with similar questions concerning the past two months of the most frequently listened to musical genres. The results were recorded in the following order according to most listened to type of music: Western popular, Taiwanese popular, Mainland China popular, Western classical, World music, and Taiwanese folk music. The mean of World music raised nearly one point, from M = 1.36 to M = 2.21, from mid to the end of the semester. The music genres are represented in Table 3.

Table 3: Music genres frequently listened to (end of the semester)

Music genres	Mean	SD	N

Western popular music	4.03	0.95	34
Taiwanese popular music	4.00	1.14	34
Mainland China popular music	2.47	1.17	34
Western classical music	2.44	1.14	34
World music	2.21	0.99	34
Taiwanese folk music	1.85	0.69	34

The course content included film appreciation, introduction of various cultures, introduction of various countries' music genres, music making of various countries' instruments, compact disc music appreciation, music theory, guided reading of teaching materials, and students' oral reports. In the order of importance that the students hoped the course could stress was 1) film appreciation, 2) introduction of various cultures, 3) introduction of various countries' music genres, 4) music making of various countries' instruments, 5) compact disc music appreciation, 6) music theory, 7) guided reading of teaching materials, and 8) students' oral reports (multiple answers). The course content is represented in Table 4.

Table 4: The course content hoped to stress (Total N = 34; multiple answers)

Course content	%	N
Film appreciation	79	17
Introduction of various cultures	71	24
Introduction of various countries' music genres	68	23
Music making of various countries' instruments	65	22
Compact disc music appreciation	50	17
Music theory	24	8
Guided reading of teaching materials	18	6
Students' oral reports	9	3

Although the course title was "Music Cultures of the World", the course duration of two hours per week for 18 weeks, it was impossible to cover the details of the world music. For the Spring semester-2013, the teaching content was mainly Asia and Oceania.

The order of the continents that the students hoped the course to focus on was 1) Europe, 2) Asia, 3) the Caribbean, 4) North America, 5) Africa, 6) Central and South America, 7) the Middle East, and 8) Oceania (multiple answers). The continents are represented in Table 5.

Table 5: The continents hoped to focus (Total N = 28; multiple answers)

Continents	%	N
Europe	57	16
Asia	29	8
The Caribbean	21	6
North America	18	5
Africa	14	4
Central and South America	11	3
The Middle East	7	2
Oceania	4	1

The students thought the course may motivate their interest in various cultures of the world, and by the end of the course, the interest increased more than what was measured at mid-semester. Close examination of the results demonstrated the following: mid-semester was M = 3.61, SD = 0.67, N = 28; at the end of the semester, M = 3.82, SD = 0.66, N = 34. The students thought the course may motivate their interest in various musical genres of the world's different people, and by the end of the course, the interest increased here as well: we can see that mid-semester was M = 3.64, SD = 0.55, N = 28; end of the semester, M = 3.71, SD = 0.71, N = 34.

In general, the students thought the extent was more important than depth of the course (extent of the course, M = 3.94, SD = 0.73, N = 34; depth of the course, M = 3.71, SD = 0.79, N = 34). Extent of the course referred to general instruction in various music cultures in the world. Depth of the course referred to instructing music cultures of one or two continents in greater detail.

The ways that the students became acquainted with various cultures were well organized as in 1) watching films of various countries, 2) internet searching information of various countries, 3) listening to music of various countries, 4) traveling, and reading books related to various countries, and 5) becoming acquainted with foreign friends (multiple answers). The ways are represented in Table 6.

Table 6: The ways to become familiar with various cultures (Total N = 28; multiple answers)

Ways	%	N
Watching films of various countries	89	25
Internet searching information of various countries	75	21
Listening to music of various countries	57	16
Traveling	39	11
Reading books related to various countries	39	11
Becoming acquainted with foreign friends	25	7

The students highly agreed that understanding various countries' cultures was important (M = 4.07, SD = 0.59, N = 28). They also generally agreed the university stressed international exchanges (M = 3.36, SD = 0.72, N = 28). The students thought the university moderately promoted the students' understanding of international various cultures (M = 3.07, SD = 0.88, N = 28). However, they thought the effects of promoting understanding international cultures was lower than average (M = 2.86, SD = 0.83, N = 28). The students agreed that the Music Cultures of the World course could assist them in improving the understanding of various international cultures (M = 3.82, SD = 0.47, N = 28).

The students' perspectives about advantages of understanding various countries' cultures were as follows:

"Broaden the viewpoint. Have fun and gain new knowledge. I may use the knowledge when I travel."

"Observe one thing with different and diverse viewpoints. Accept the fact that different regions will have different cultures."

"Understand various countries' cultures and music."

"Understand the deep meaning of various cultures."

"Break the stereotype of various cultures."

"Understand the content of various cultures. Broaden the knowledge about the world."

"I may know more 'magical' musical instruments."

"Broaden my knowledge. Understand different music styles of various cultures. Travel with a more sense of purpose."

"Understand the diversity of the world."

"Communicate better with friends of various countries."

"Understanding musical instruments and cultures. It is also practical when I go abroad."

"Broaden my vision, and understand cultures of various regions in the world. Have more topics to talk about when I communicate with others."

"I will explore the information about world music."

As to the influences of the course, in general, the students tried to become acquainted with international students on the campus (M = 3.24, SD = 1.00; total N = 34). Higher than the average, the students have started the plan for their world journey (M = 3.76, SD = 0.77; total N = 34). They highly agreed that if possible, they would like to work overseas when they graduate (M = 3.91, SD = 0.70; total N = 34).

4   Conclusions

4.1   Discussion

The students thought understanding cultures of various countries was important. The advantages as they mentioned were broadening their viewpoints, having more cultural topics to communicate with foreign friends, becoming more knowledgeable, benefiting travelling overseas, accepting various cultures, and breaking stereotypes.

The university stressed international exchange. Although the students thought the university promoted international cultural understanding, its effect was not apparent. Implementing multicultural related courses to build up multicultural understanding may fertilize an internationalization background.

 World music, the study of music in culture, as well as related courses may promote the understanding of music and cultures of various countries. The university may improve multi/intercultural understanding by curriculum design. Music instruction would be an interesting and effective way to explore various cultures, as presented in the survey.

As to the course content, the students hoped to stress film appreciation the most. The students were interested in the introduction of various cultures and music, and music making with the use of different ethnic musical instruments. By the ethnic ensemble, the students played the musical instruments, listened to particular sounds and mode of the specific ethnics, and explored their cultures.

4.2   Recommendations for Further Research

This study was focused on multicultural curriculum practice of internationalization in higher education in Taiwan. There are more areas to explore concerning promoting intercultural understanding in the universities for local and international students. Accordingly, the further research topics could be:

1. What programs does the university need to have implemented to promote intercultural understanding and why did the students think the effect was not apparent?

2. How to help the cultural understanding of international students in universities in Taiwan?

3. What is the culture shock among local and international students in universities in Taiwan?

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A Reflection on Curriculum in Cultural Diversity: A Dialogue between the Policies and Needs of Indigenous Young Children's Language and Culture Education

Chou Mei Chueh

Abstract

Every individual is entitled to learn and preserve one's own ethnic language. This is even more crucial for a nation state to help protect that of disadvantaged groups. It is urgent for national decision-makers to be aware of the educational needs derived by cultural diversity. In addition, a nation needs to enact relevant laws and regulations to protect and respond such needs, so as to further carry out these regulations in educational practice. In view of the possible extinction of Taiwanese indigenous ethnic language, this article explores effective methods to revive the ethnic language and to foster immersion teaching from early children stage based on successful cases at many countries.

Government policies are more influential than bottom-up spontaneous force in promoting educational practices because policies effectively reveal the position of a state. Current literature shows a gap between policies and needs for indigenous young children's language and culture education. To better investigate Taiwan's language and culture education policies in using immersion teaching to respond the current needs for reviving the indigenous languages, this article adopted the documentary analysis, with relevant laws and regulations by the government, and analyzed their meaning and pertinent issues.

The result of comprehensive policy analysis in providing adequate education opportunities to reach basic educational opportunity fairness is still the main focus of current educational laws and regulation for Taiwanese indigenous young children. While the immersion teaching method has been used as a strategy for reviving ethic languages at the early children education stage, the current promotion way has its limitation in teaching effects. Finally, this article suggests the condition for effective practice of immersion teaching. Due to the existing practical issues and regulation difficulties, this article pointed out the need to develop ethic language immersion teaching for indigenous young children and hire more faculty members with proficient language ability. It is recommended to establish experimental ethic language immersion kindergartens. This article also suggests relevant curriculum and teaching material with policy modifications to optimize local immersion teaching and revive the ethic language and culture effectively.

Key words: Cultural diversity, educational policies for indigenous young children, immersion teaching

1   Introduction

Every individual is entitled to learn and preserve one's own ethnic language. It is valuable for the developments of individuals, communities, societies and cultures in the world to encourage members of every ethnic group to learn their language and culture. It is significant to individuals' identities, the preservation of ethnical groups, linguistic *diversity, and cultural heritage*. Majority of the indigenous groups in the world still encounter the extinction crisis of their ethnic languages due to the history of dominant regimes' language policies. In Taiwan, for instance, the fourteen indigenous tribes count only 2% of the total population. Because of the policy of assimilation and mono-language education, every ethnic language of each tribe is still on brink of extinction on the list of UNESCO (Sina News, 2009).

In Puli, Central and Northern Taiwan, there is only who can speak the Pazih language: a one-hundred-years-old lady. Only three ladies speak Kaxabu, while only five speak Kanakanavu, and less than ten speak Thaw a lalawa. Other existing ethnic language may only survive only a few years or some decades (Lee, 1995). Besides, a survey conducted by the Council of Indigenous People during 2006 to 2010 found only three percent of seventh-grade indigenous students can speak indigenous mother tongue fluently (Chen, 2012).

In view of this, effective methods are needed. Theories and practice of linguistic education both point out home as the best venue for mother-tongue education. It is most effective to practice his ethnic language soon after birth. Yet most indigenous young parents are not able to carry out such task. Hence, the cooperation between the pre-schooling education, family and community is essential for the ethnic language revival.   According to Chang (2011), the drip-feeds method of one hour per week can hardly save the nearly extinct languages. On the contrary, immersion of ethnical languages is the most popular method to rescue endangered languages.

Base on the conception of total immersion of ethnical language in early childhood as the most efficient method of linguistic revival, this article reviewed Taiwan government's current policies concerning language and cultural education of indigenous children. A case study was conducted at a kindergarten practicing the immersion of ethnic language in order to find the gap between policies and practice.

2. Analysis of Taiwan Indigenous young children's ethnic language and culture education related policies

In order to understand and analyze Taiwan government's current policies on indigenous young children's ethnic language and culture education, this study collected related documents including regulations, white papers, curricula, projects, and operation principles, etc. The following analysis is further divided into two parts according to policies' target population: national and indigenous children.

2.1 Analysis of national early childhood education policies

The researcher analyzed the Republic of China Constitution and government policies on government's pledge to the protection of indigenous languages and culture, and the government's expectation of young children's identity toward their own languages and cultures via children's activity courses. The analysis covered the Early Childhood Education and Care Act, the Contemporary Outline of the Curriculum for Children's Activity in Kindergartens, and the Operation Principle for Ministry of Education's Subsidy Toward Public and Private Kindergartens' Native Languages Education. The government also provides budgets to encourage kindergartens for the preservation and heritage of native languages. It seems obvious the government does pay attention to the ethnic language and cultural education for the indigenous young children. However, the government's policies tend to be passive, for the subsidy is opted for application instead of comprehensive providence. Neither are these policies included as the national fundamental policies for early childhood education. Overall, the central government of Taiwan is passive toward the ethnic language and culture education for indigenous young children.

2.2 Analysis of early childhood education related indigenous policies

The study researched the authorities' attention to indigenous education for ethnic languages and cultures, and the practices on curricula and teacher training after analyzing the regulations targeting the indigenous young children's ethnic language and culture education. The regulations include the Indigenous People Basic Law, Education Act for Indigenous Peoples, White Paper on Indigenous Educational Policy, Medium-term Project of the Council of Indigenous Peoples (2013-2016), the Five-Year Medium-term Project for the Development of Indigenous Peoples' Education (2011-2015), the Experiment Plan for Childcare Service and Nannies' Training and Coaching, and the 2013 Annual Plan for Subsidy of the Promotion of Indigenous Peoples' Ethnic Languages. However, the emphasis for indigenous instructors begins from primary schools, but not kindergarten. Despite the intent of the Education Act for Indigenous Peoples on the needs of indigenous young children's ethnic language and culture education, the white paper and the medium-term projects and the five-year project still put their focus on providing basic chances for education, such as establishing more public kindergartens and raising the enrolling rate. The policies fall short of the goal of the Education Act for Indigenous Peoples: the development of the ethnic language and cultural courses and teaching material, the teacher training, the priority of recruiting indigenous faculty, and the promotion of indigenous faculty's understanding for indigenous faculty all. It will be difficult and challenging to further promote the ethic language and culture education for the indigenous young children, if these problems are not solved or improved.

Some projects by the council of indigenous people did attend to young children's language and culture education, as well as the use of immersion teaching for reviving the ethnic language and culture. The stabling of childcare institutions at tribes did help integrating the resource and manpower of the tribes, forming the tribes as the venue for learning. Children, who naturally are immersed in their tribal life and culture, have more learning motif and

capability toward their own ethnic language. Yet the effectiveness of the five-year project is not yet proven by empirical study.

The 2013 Annual Plan for Subsidy of the Promotion of Indigenous Peoples' Ethnic Languages clearly pointed out the "ethnic language team teaching at kindergartens" as whole tribe immersion teaching. Yet this plan is still limited in two ways. The Operation Principle for Ministry of Education offers subsidy toward Public and Private Kindergartens' Native Languages Education, via approved application, which causes uncertainty and the issue of limited quota. Additionally, for whole ethnic language teaching immersion, two two-hour courses a week would not reach the effect of immersion. To make the best effect for ethnic language teaching, the ethnic language shall not only serve as a language for education, but a language for daily communication. Only when children are immersed naturally in their tribal life, one can expect the effect of ethnic language teaching.

3. Case Study Analysis of Taiwanese Indigenous Language Immersion in Early Education

There are successful cases in language immersion kindergartens in the international arena as in Maori and Hawaiian language nest immersion. On the other hand, there are domestic cases of Hakka immersion kindergartens in Pingtung in Taiwan (Chen, Chen, & Tsai, 2009). It effectively increased children's Hakka speaking, listening comprehension, and learning motivation, expanding the practice to other kindergartens and even the first year in primary schools (Lee, Chen, & Chen, 2013). Nevertheless, indigenous languages with urgent extinction crisis are rarely implemented in kindergarten for promotion except Chou's (2011 & 2013) immersion research in a Paiwan nursery and a kindergarten in Southern Taiwan.

In the empirical study by the author (Chou, 2013) in a Paiwan primary school's kindergarten from Aug 2012 to Jan 2013, it was found that the indigenous language was used only 30% while Mandarin Chinese 70% in the immersion teaching process. In the post-test, out of the 200 common vocabulary, all of the 30 aged 3-6 learners were able to comprehend 110 vocabulary in the listening test, with 55% accurate rate. In further analysis, maturity played a key role as older learners obtained higher scores in the listening comprehension. While some younger learners also excelled in post-tests, one of them achieved the highest score among all learners of different ages.

Despite the lack of Gensee's (1994) 50% target language instruction and communication, the four-month study was partial immersion with effective results in listening comprehension. There is room of improvement in their speaking ability and motivation. They have limited Paiwan conversations, only commonly used phrases with teachers in school-related and simple daily life phrases, including 'Thank you!' 'Hello!' 'school bag' 'I need to use the toilet!' or 'I like to drink soup'. In student-student interactions, young learners neither use Paiwan nor code-switch Mandarin with some Paiwan vocabulary words. Hence, the result is far from ideal in promoting the use of indigenous languages for daily conversations.

There are major factors lead to this situation in the analysis: the lack of qualified faculty, insufficient teaching methodology, as well as the lack of parental and communal participation and consensus. First, only one of the three Paiwan immersion experiment faculty is fluent in Paiwan while the other teachers are Han, using Mandarin to communicate with the learners primarily. Coupled with the mixed age setting, the classroom instruction is not exclusively in Paiwan, but in gradual immersion method, only up to 30% of Paiwan language input. The faculty structure leads to lack of language immersion exposure duration and directly influences the learning effectiveness of Paiwan. Secondly, the experiment curriculum was developed by only one Paiwan instructor, focusing more on cultural dimension in ethnic tribal culture, lacking human resources and experience in integrating Paiwan to thematic lessons in the early childhood curriculum design by second language acquisition strategies. Consequently, the lack of language input will influence the lack of indigenous language output. According to immersion teaching theory by Krashen (1984) and effective language output by Swain (1985), sufficient language exposure leads to success in language acquisition. Lastly, parental and communal support was needed in immersion language teaching and indigenous language preservation (Hornberger, 2008). The support by activities participation of parents and communities (like Parent Teacher Meeting, and Christmas), financial sponsor and volunteers in classrooms is highly crucial to child learners' motivation in and effectiveness of learning the indigenous language.

4. Dialogue of Policies and Practice

The actual immersion language research action took place prior to the government policy in indigenous language and cultural development, thus was limited by the systematic support. Despite the policy of 2003 Indigenous language Preservation Subsidy program for immersion teaching opportunities, it is not sufficient to subsidize twice a week and each time two hours for full immersion. The current project started without any research funding, hence lacked indigenous faculty due to Indigenous Education Law Regulations No. 23 and 25. This resulted in the fact that indigenous schools and kindergartens could not freely hire indigenous instructors for the sake of 'fairness' in public teachers examinations. It further handicapped the development of indigenous language and cultural teaching material and teaching methodology for early child education. This creates more long-term difficulties for language immersion.

5. Conclusion and recommendation

In view of the analysis of the policy and practice, there is an urgent need to modify current government policy to fully support and financially help indigenous language immersion teaching practitioners with more qualified indigenous language instructors, development of indigenous language teaching materials and curriculum, parental and communal participation in more language immersion projects for optimal indigenous language learning effectiveness.

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The Students' Perspectives of a Multicultural Curricular Practice of Internationalization in Higher Education in Taiwan— Enrolment in the General Education "Music Cultures of the World" Course as a Situational Study

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Abstract

Taiwan is a multicultural nation, which includes fourteen officially recognized indigenous tribes, as well as immigrants from Mainland China and Southeastern Asia. Furthermore, the globalization of the twenty-first century developed internationalization in higher education, which resulted in more international students arriving in Taiwan to study. How can the educators improve intercultural understanding in the university by designing a curriculum that meets the students' needs? World music related courses could be one way of improving intercultural understanding.

The purpose of this study was to explore the students' perspectives about multicultural education in the university. The results should be able to provide suggestions for improving international cultural understanding by world music instruction using proper course content.

The participants studied were the students who enrolled in "Music Cultures of the World" course for the Spring semester-2013 in the university. Thirty-seven students enrolled in the course. The survey instruments, consisting of two questionnaires, were administered to the students at the half-way point of the semester and the end of the semester. The first questionnaire was conducted in week 9, and the second questionnaire was conducted in week 18, the last week of the semester. However, due to the attendance rate, 33 students attended in week nine and 28 students completed the first questionnaire. The response rate was 85%. Thirty-seven students attended in week 18, and 34 students completed the second questionnaire. The response rate was 92%.

The research results found that the students had very limited experience in listening to world music. The three main ways to become acquainted with cultures of various countries were by watching the related films, internet searching, and listening to the related music. The students thought understanding international cultures was very important and the university stressed the international exchange. The students thought the university only moderately promoted their understanding of various cultures, and its effect was not so apparent.

The students thought the "Music Cultures of World" course could assist their understanding of and stimulate their interest in a multicultural environment. The three main continents the students were interested in exploring were Europe, Asia, and the Caribbean.

The research results suggested film appreciation, introduction of various cultures and music genres, and music making utilizing various ethnic instruments would be beneficial for a multicultural curriculum.

Keywords: general education; multicultural music education; world music; higher education; internationalization.

1   Introduction

1.1   Background

Due to the trend of globalization, the internationalization of higher education has become an important issue. Higher education institutions do not only serve for the people in the home country, but all the people who are interested in higher education in the global village (Jiang, 2011, p. 4). Knight (2003) defined university internationalization as "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" (as cited in Jiang, 2011, p. 13). To develop the university, the support of a international and multicultural environment is beneficial for actualization of internationalization (Jiang, 2011, p. 21).

Universities in Taiwan are becoming more internationalized for the growing number of international students. Taking the researcher's university as an example, the increase in international students has been booming recently. The numbers of international students attending in the past four semesters are individually 84, 94, 141, and 146 for the Fall semester-2011, Spring semester-2012, Fall semester-2012, and Spring semester-2013. (http://www.oia.ndhu.edu.tw/files/11-1114-9798.php)

In addition to the internationalization trend, Taiwan is culturally diversified. The population was composed of immigrants from Mainland China (PRC), the fourteen officially recognized indigenous tribes, and recently, the immigrants from Southeastern Asia (Foreign spouse -Taiwan http://zh.wikipedia.org/zh-hant).

Multiculturalism "ideally implies tolerance and respect for other cultures" (Comte, 2010, p. xv). It is important that the local population and international students have a mutual understanding of each other's cultures. It may assist in the tolerance and acceptance of each other for developing a friendly campus.

Lehmberg (2010) mentioned that "many music education scholars support the idea of world music as a means of connecting with culturally diverse populations of students, fostering cultural understanding, and achieving a global perspective in the classroom. . . . Because music mirrors the culture and era in which it is created, the study of world music can enhance students' ability to understand, appreciate, and relate to diversity in today's society"(p. 83).

The researcher would like to implement a world music related course, Music Cultures of the World, as a means to promote multi/intercultural understanding. The teaching content of Music Cultures of the World included music and cultures from Asia (East, Southeastern, and South), Oceania, Europe, the Middle East, the Americas (North, Central, and South), sub-Saharan Africa, and the Caribbean. The course objective was to guide the students to "study music in culture"(as cited in Miller & Shahriari, 2006, p. 19). Music not only bears the elements of sound, but also the meaning of the specific cultures. The students would need to own the knowledge of both music and culture to understand the world's different types of music

1.2   Need for the Study

Taiwanese music education became westernized during the Japanese colonization period (Lu, 2003, pp. 129 & 176). However, nowadays in the twenty-first century, due to convenient transportation and the internet, the globalization and internationalization became an unavoidable trend. The students have many more opportunities to become acquainted with international students. What's more, the Taiwanese population is composed of a growing number of immigrants from Southeastern Asia in recent decades (Lin, Shieh, & Wang, 2008, p. 98). Guiding the students to know the world's different cultures is required for a balanced curriculum. The university curriculum would need to provide the students a preliminary knowledge of the world's different cultures with an open-minded, rather than a prejudiced attitude.

1.3   Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to explore various aspects concerning curriculum about the multicultural music education for internationalization in the university. It is hoped that the university may guide the students to understand world cultures.

The course studied was a general education course named Music Cultures of the World. The study included students' learning motives, music listening genres, course content, curriculum, students' culture perspectives, and the influences of the course.

1.4   Research Questions

The research questions were as follows:

What were the students' learning motives?

What music genres did the students listen to?

What were the students' perspectives about course content?

What were the students' perspectives about curriculum?

What were the students' cultural perspectives?

What were the influences of the course?

1.5   Delimitation of the Study

The course was limited to one course named "Music Cultures of the World", a one-semester elective course, in general education in one national university in Taiwan. The survey participants were the enrolled students who attended the course during the Spring semester-2013.

2   Methodology

2.1   Survey Procedures

The researcher conducted this study during the Spring semester-2013.   The research instruments consisted of two questionnaires. The first questionnaire was implemented in the middle of the semester (Week 9), while the second questionnaire was implemented at the very end of the semester (Week 18).

2.2   Survey Instrument

The survey instruments were two questionnaires designed by the researcher/instructor. The first questionnaire had ten parts with 38 questions. The second questionnaires had ten parts with 33 questions. Some portions of the two questionnaires were in the same/similar design for comparison purposes. It was hoped to explore the differences after a period of instruction.

This study included two levels of measurements, nominal and ordinal (Trochim 2001, pp. 104-105). The questions were structured in the following four different ways: close-ended with ordered choices, close-ended with unordered response choices, partially close-ended, and open-ended questions (Salant and Dillman, 1994, pp. 82-84).

2.3   Questionnaire Content

The first questionnaire has ten parts: 1) personal information, 2) music background, 3) music listening, 4) learning motives, 5) course content, 6) curriculum, 7) teaching materials, 8) the most, 9) cultural perspectives, and 10) other.

The second questionnaire has ten parts: 1) personal information, 2) music background, 3) music listening, 4) learning motives, 5) course content, 6) curriculum, 7) teaching materials, 8) final exam, 9) influences of the course, and 10) other.

2.4   Survey Participants

The participants studied were the students who were officially enrolled in the "Music Cultures of the World" course during the Spring semester-2013 in the university in Taiwan. There were a total of thirty-seven students enrolled in the course.

2.5   Data

Trochim (2001) mentioned that the knowledge of measurement could assist the decision of statistical analysis and interpretation of the data. The measurements used in the questionnaires were nominal and ordinal. For the nominal measurement, the researcher calculated the numbers of the answers to acquire the frequency and percentage. For the ordinal measurement, the five-level Likert scale was transformed into points one to five for obtaining mean and standard deviation.

For the nominal measurement, the data were presented by their frequency and percentage. For the ordinal measurement, the data were presented by their frequency, mean, and standard deviation. According to Pyrczak (2003), a frequency indicates "the number of subjects or cases," and the symbol used is "N"; a percentage indicates "the number per hundred who have a certain characteristic," and the symbol used is "%"; a mean indicates "one type

of average", and the symbols used is "M"; and a standard deviation is "the most popular measure of variability……it measures how much subjects differ from the mean of their group," and the symbol used is "S" or "SD" (pp. 23,33, 45).

3   Results

3.1   Field Results

The researcher's two different questionnaires were conducted in weeks 9 and 18.   Thirty-three students attended the course in week 9, and 28 of them completed the first questionnaire and the response rate was 85%.   Thirty-seven students attended the course in week 18, and 34 of them completed the second questionnaire and the response rate was 92%.

3.2   Results Analysis

The students' backgrounds examined genders and languages used at home. There were more males than females who took the course. (male 56%, N = 19; female 44%, N = 15; total N = 34).   The two main languages used at home were Mandarin and Taiwanese (i.e., Min-nan language) (multiple answers) (Mandarin 91%, N = 31; Taiwanese 62%, N = 21; English 15%, N = 5; Hakka 3%, N = 1; Indigenous language 3%, N = 1; Other languages 9%, N = 3; total N = 34).

The major learning motive of the students was their desire to know music and cultures of various countries (multiple answers). The learning motives are represented in Table 1.

Table 1: Learning motives (Total N = 28; multiple answers)

Learning motives	%	N
Desire to know music and cultures of various countries	75	21
Keep company with classmates	54	15
Need credits	43	12
Introduced by others who took the course before	32	9

The first questionnaire implemented in week 9, showed the order of frequently listened music genres was Western popular, Taiwanese popular, Western classical, Mainland China popular, Taiwanese folk and the finally, World music. The music genres are represented in Table 2.

Table 2: Music genres frequently listened to (mid-semester)

Music genres	Mean	SD	N
Western popular music	3.57	1.08	28
Taiwanese popular music	3.50	1.32	28
Western classical music	2.32	1.20	28
Mainland China popular music	2.29	1.05	28
Taiwanese folk music	1.57	0.73	28
World music	1.36	0.55	28

After two months, the researcher implemented the second questionnaire with similar questions concerning the past two months of the most frequently listened to musical genres. The results were recorded in the following order according to most listened to type of music: Western popular, Taiwanese popular, Mainland China popular, Western classical, World music, and Taiwanese folk music. The mean of World music raised nearly one point, from M = 1.36 to M = 2.21, from mid to the end of the semester. The music genres are represented in Table 3.

Table 3: Music genres frequently listened to (end of the semester)

Music genres	Mean	SD	N

Western popular music	4.03	0.95	34
Taiwanese popular music	4.00	1.14	34
Mainland China popular music	2.47	1.17	34
Western classical music	2.44	1.14	34
World music	2.21	0.99	34
Taiwanese folk music	1.85	0.69	34

The course content included film appreciation, introduction of various cultures, introduction of various countries' music genres, music making of various countries' instruments, compact disc music appreciation, music theory, guided reading of teaching materials, and students' oral reports. In the order of importance that the students hoped the course could stress was 1) film appreciation, 2) introduction of various cultures, 3) introduction of various countries' music genres, 4) music making of various countries' instruments, 5) compact disc music appreciation, 6) music theory, 7) guided reading of teaching materials, and 8) students' oral reports (multiple answers). The course content is represented in Table 4.

Table 4: The course content hoped to stress (Total N = 34; multiple answers)

Course content	%	N
Film appreciation	79	17
Introduction of various cultures	71	24
Introduction of various countries' music genres	68	23
Music making of various countries' instruments	65	22
Compact disc music appreciation	50	17
Music theory	24	8
Guided reading of teaching materials	18	6
Students' oral reports	9	3

Although the course title was "Music Cultures of the World", the course duration of two hours per week for 18 weeks, it was impossible to cover the details of the world music. For the Spring semester-2013, the teaching content was mainly Asia and Oceania.

The order of the continents that the students hoped the course to focus on was 1) Europe, 2) Asia, 3) the Caribbean, 4) North America, 5) Africa, 6) Central and South America, 7) the Middle East, and 8) Oceania (multiple answers). The continents are represented in Table 5.

Table 5: The continents hoped to focus (Total N = 28; multiple answers)

Continents	%	N
Europe	57	16
Asia	29	8
The Caribbean	21	6
North America	18	5
Africa	14	4
Central and South America	11	3
The Middle East	7	2
Oceania	4	1

The students thought the course may motivate their interest in various cultures of the world, and by the end of the course, the interest increased more than what was measured at mid-semester. Close examination of the results demonstrated the following: mid-semester was M = 3.61, SD = 0.67, N = 28; at the end of the semester, M = 3.82, SD = 0.66, N = 34. The students thought the course may motivate their interest in various musical genres of the world's different people, and by the end of the course, the interest increased here as well: we can see that mid-semester was M = 3.64, SD = 0.55, N = 28; end of the semester, M = 3.71, SD = 0.71, N = 34.

In general, the students thought the extent was more important than depth of the course (extent of the course, M = 3.94, SD = 0.73, N = 34; depth of the course, M = 3.71, SD = 0.79, N = 34). Extent of the course referred to general instruction in various music cultures in the world. Depth of the course referred to instructing music cultures of one or two continents in greater detail.

The ways that the students became acquainted with various cultures were well organized as in 1) watching films of various countries, 2) internet searching information of various countries, 3) listening to music of various countries, 4) traveling, and reading books related to various countries, and 5) becoming acquainted with foreign friends (multiple answers). The ways are represented in Table 6.

Table 6: The ways to become familiar with various cultures (Total N = 28; multiple answers)

Ways	%	N
Watching films of various countries	89	25
Internet searching information of various countries	75	21
Listening to music of various countries	57	16
Traveling	39	11
Reading books related to various countries	39	11
Becoming acquainted with foreign friends	25	7

The students highly agreed that understanding various countries' cultures was important (M = 4.07, SD = 0.59, N = 28). They also generally agreed the university stressed international exchanges (M = 3.36, SD = 0.72, N = 28). The students thought the university moderately promoted the students' understanding of international various cultures (M = 3.07, SD = 0.88, N = 28). However, they thought the effects of promoting understanding international cultures was lower than average (M = 2.86, SD = 0.83, N = 28). The students agreed that the Music Cultures of the World course could assist them in improving the understanding of various international cultures (M = 3.82, SD = 0.47, N = 28).

The students' perspectives about advantages of understanding various countries' cultures were as follows:

"Broaden the viewpoint. Have fun and gain new knowledge. I may use the knowledge when I travel."

"Observe one thing with different and diverse viewpoints. Accept the fact that different regions will have different cultures."

"Understand various countries' cultures and music."

"Understand the deep meaning of various cultures."

"Break the stereotype of various cultures."

"Understand the content of various cultures. Broaden the knowledge about the world."

"I may know more 'magical' musical instruments."

"Broaden my knowledge. Understand different music styles of various cultures. Travel with a more sense of purpose."

"Understand the diversity of the world."

"Communicate better with friends of various countries."

"Understanding musical instruments and cultures. It is also practical when I go abroad."

"Broaden my vision, and understand cultures of various regions in the world. Have more topics to talk about when I communicate with others."

"I will explore the information about world music."

As to the influences of the course, in general, the students tried to become acquainted with international students on the campus (M = 3.24, SD = 1.00; total N = 34). Higher than the average, the students have started the plan for their world journey (M = 3.76, SD = 0.77; total N = 34). They highly agreed that if possible, they would like to work overseas when they graduate (M = 3.91, SD = 0.70; total N = 34).

4   Conclusions

4.1   Discussion

The students thought understanding cultures of various countries was important. The advantages as they mentioned were broadening their viewpoints, having more cultural topics to communicate with foreign friends, becoming more knowledgeable, benefiting travelling overseas, accepting various cultures, and breaking stereotypes.

The university stressed international exchange. Although the students thought the university promoted international cultural understanding, its effect was not apparent. Implementing multicultural related courses to build up multicultural understanding may fertilize an internationalization background.

World music, the study of music in culture, as well as related courses may promote the understanding of music and cultures of various countries. The university may improve multi/intercultural understanding by curriculum design. Music instruction would be an interesting and effective way to explore various cultures, as presented in the survey.

As to the course content, the students hoped to stress film appreciation the most. The students were interested in the introduction of various cultures and music, and music making with the use of different ethnic musical instruments. By the ethnic ensemble, the students played the musical instruments, listened to particular sounds and mode of the specific ethnics, and explored their cultures.

4.2   Recommendations for Further Research

This study was focused on multicultural curriculum practice of internationalization in higher education in Taiwan. There are more areas to explore concerning promoting intercultural understanding in the universities for local and international students. Accordingly, the further research topics could be:

1. What programs does the university need to have implemented to promote intercultural understanding and why did the students think the effect was not apparent?

2. How to help the cultural understanding of international students in universities in Taiwan?

3. What is the culture shock among local and international students in universities in Taiwan?

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The discourse of teacher professionalism and its alternatives

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Abstract

This paper focuses on the issue of teacher professional development in Taiwan. Through literature review, it can be seen that many people share the same views of teacher professionalism because of the teacher evaluation for professional development recently advocated in Taiwan, as well as many awards (such as excellent Teacher Awards and GreaTeach) created by the Ministry of Education for rewarding teacher's teaching activities. Those are official values for evaluating teachers' professionalism. However, the appropriateness of "one indicator fits all" is questionable. Postmodern scholars argue the respect for difference. This is to say that teachers have their own thinking toward the meaning of professionalism, which shapes his/her own professional identity. This professional identity deeply influences the personal curriculum design and teaching practice. Teachers will individually cultivate professionalism when people value their different identities. Thus, the purpose of this article is to (1) discover the discourse of teacher professionalism and to (2) reconsider the alternatives through a postmodern view. Except for a literature review, the research approach adopted in this study was done by case study. By interviewing four elementary teachers, people can gain a deeper understanding about the reflection on dominant discourses of teacher professionalism and the uniqueness of each teacher's curriculum design and teaching practice, which is connected with teacher professional identity.

The findings for the study are as follows:

(1) The discourses of teacher professionalism show that a "professional" teacher should design the curriculum and teaching activities creatively, manage the classroom well, be willing to participate in on-job-training programs, as well as help students learn effectively in order to promote students' international competitiveness and meet demands of the workplace.

(2) Valuing the teacher professional identity through a postmodern perspective can truly advance teacher professionalism as well as fulfill the goal of the teacher evaluation for professional development.

Key words: teacher professionalism, teacher professional identity, postmodern, teacher evaluation for professional development

1 Introduction

Recently, the government has made many educational reforms in Taiwan. In order to meet people's expectation, teacher professionalism is strongly advocated by the public. However, the definition of teacher professionalism varies. Shulman (1987) states that a professional teacher should have content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, and knowledge of educational contexts. Others usually view teacher professionalism as a set of skills and pay more attention to teaching outcomes. They believe the things that can be measured are valuable. In Taiwan, the policy of teacher evaluation for professional development is recently recommended because people, nowadays, emphasize the importance of educational quality and accountability, and they believe that teacher professional development evaluation is a way to ensure the quality of teacher professionalism. As a result, the government encourages teachers to participate in the program of teacher evaluation for professional development and follow its indictors.

However, many scholars feel these indicators made by "outsiders" cannot have any significant influence on promoting teacher professional development. Chou (2004) argues that teachers have their own thinking about who they are and who they want to become. If people do not pay attention to the issue of teacher professional identity, which is always considered as the belief that guides one's own practice and professional development, educational reforms are just slogans not acts. Nias (1989) indicates the "teacher as a person" not as a "group member", who has his/her own special experiences and professional identity; therefore, teacher's self-identity shapes his/her curriculum design and teaching practice and it is the important factor in building up teacher professional development. Therefore, the purpose of this article is to (1) discover how the discourse of teacher professionalism is formed and to (2) reconsider what alternatives can truly help teacher develop professionalism. This paper starts from the formation of discourses on teacher professionalism.

2 Dominant Discourse of Teacher Professionalism

Traditional conceptions of "professionalism" focus on the role of professions. For example, doctors or lawyers are considered as "professional" occupations because those professions require people with high knowledge and professional skills. Until UNESCO (2008) presents Recommendation Concerning the Status of Teachers (1966), people start to consider teacher as a profession. It mentions, "Teaching should be regarded as a profession: it is a form of public service which requires of teachers expert knowledge and specialized skills, acquired and maintained through rigorous and continuing study; it calls also for a sense of personal and corporate responsibility for the education and welfare of the pupils in their charge." Young (1992) states that teacher professionalism means teachers possess great knowledge in subjects and ability to teach and counsel students.

Teacher professional discourses vary in different periods. Nowadays, the term of teacher professionalism is increasingly used to empower or to control teacher, which is often viewed as political control (Kennedy, 2007). In postmodern age, Hargreaves and Goodson (1996) state that professionalism can be regarded as "a rhetorical ruse-a way to get teachers to misrecognize their own exploitation and to comply willingly with increased intensification of their labour in workplace" (p. 20). Therefore, different periods present different meaning of professionalism. In general, people likely follow the conception of professionalism guided by the person who has power.

In Taiwan, under the society for the pursuit of educational quality and accountability, the government argues that the creation of the indicators for teacher professional development evaluation is highly needed, which provides the measurement of how well teachers perform in and out of classroom in order to ensure student learning achievement as well as help teacher develop professionalism. In the following pages, there are two major ways created in shaping the dominant discourses of teacher professionalism.

2.1 Teacher Professional Development Evaluation in Taiwan

In 2005, the Ministry of Education granted a pilot program of teacher evaluation for professional development. By encouraging teachers to participate voluntarily, every teacher can help each other in professional growth, facilitate teaching effectiveness and classroom management, and as a result, make students reach learning achievement. The purposes for this pilot program are to: (1) help teacher develop professionalism, (2) promote teacher professional capacity, and (3) advance teaching quality. Thus, the pilot program of teacher evaluation for professional development created by the Ministry of Education is the basis of professional development instead of performance evaluation.

Moreover, the content of teacher professional development evaluation includes (1) curriculum design and teaching, (2) classroom management and counseling, (3) research development and on-the-job training as well as (4) professional dedication spirit and attitude. Based on the content above, the Ministry of Education establishes several indicators for evaluation; however, each school based on the indicators can create its own criteria for the local appropriateness.

2.2 "Outstanding" Curriculum Design

People believe that good curricula facilitate students' learning. So, the Ministry of Education in Taiwan has set up different kinds of methods to innovate teaching programs such as Excellent Teacher Awards and GreaTeach for encouraging teachers to improve their teaching programs. The detailed information of these two awards is shown as follows:

- Excellent Teacher Award

Excellent Teacher Award was established in2003. It is held once a year and focuses on primary, elementary, junior high school and high school teachers. The purposes of this award is to create and improve teaching material and methods, vary classroom management strategies and help student develop appropriately, as well as follow the teaching programs designed by the government (Ministry of Education, 2003).

- GreaTeach

The Ministry of Education (2001) implemented curriculum reform for Grades 1~9, so teaching strategies should be highly improved. Through interaction, communication, and exploration among teachers, every teacher can develop his/her own teaching strategies and make his/her teaching more effective. The purposes of GreaTeach are: (1) to combine subjects with creative activities in order to fit Grades 1~9 curriculum and later Grades 1~12 curriculum reform, (2) to help students develop the abilities of critical thinking, problem solving, (3) to increase the national competitiveness and meet economic and technological needs, (4) to facilitate the abilities of teachers' teaching capacity, curriculum organization, and activity preparation, and (5) to make teachers interact with and learn from each other for developing teaching skills. In order to complete the purposes above, the government creates the indicators, which include: (1) curriculum design should be innovative. (2) Teaching materials and strategies should be rich and creative as well as help students reach the learning achievement. (3) The final report is briefly and fully presented.

Although the government does not force teachers to reach all the purposes above, these discourses gradually become the national management mechanism which shows that a "professional" teacher should design the curriculum and teach activities creatively, manage classrooms well, be willing to participate in on-job-training programs, as well as help students learn effectively in order to promote students' international competitiveness and meet demands of workplace.

However, these discourses are not clear and can be questionable because people have their own thoughts on "creativeness" and the meaning of good classroom management, which might not meet the official standards. Besides, learning backgrounds among students are various. If teachers only follow the principles without considering individuality, students will not learn successfully. Teachers will never individually cultivate professional development because of potential indicators made by "outsiders". In other words, teachers can truly develop professionalism only when they define professionalism from their inner beliefs. Teacher professional identity is a key to develop teacher professionalism.

3. Alternatives: Teacher Professional Identity

Every teacher has his/her own thinking toward the meaning of professionalism. Even if the teacher evaluation for professional development recently advocated in Taiwan for the purpose of facilitating teacher professionalism, teacher's personal perspective is the most important factor in deciding teaching success or failure. Kennedy (2007) mentions a transformative view of professionalism. He argues that professional development can be reached in many ways, but shaping professional identity is the most significant one in achieving it.

Professional development not only focuses on a means to an end but also the process through which professional identity makes known and constantly articulates, shares, shapes and renews. Beijaard, Verloop, and Vermut (2000) state, "Teachers' perceptions of their own professional identity affect their efficacy and professional development as well as their ability and willingness to cope with educational change and to implement innovations in their own teaching practice." When teachers stick to their own professional identities, they are able to develop personal professionalism. Moreover, teacher professional identity, which is not fixed or unitary, will be affected by culturally different contexts and people (Coldron& Smith, 1999) and can be interpreted through a postmodern view.

3.1 A Postmodern View on Teacher Professional Identity

Beijaard, Meijer, and Verloop (2004) mention, "from a post-modernist point of view, 'self' is strongly related to how people organize their experiences in stories, which may differ in time and contexts."In times of rapid change, identity forming is not seen as fixed, but as an ongoing process of becoming and where context plays a crucial role. Teachers within different circumstances may have multiple identities. According to Beijaard, Meijer, and Verloop (2004), there is no explicit definition of professional identity. Professional identity is used in describing a teachers' sense or perceptions of their roles or related to the features of their profession, or their perceptions of themselves as an occupational group.

Because teacher is a person rather than a group member, they have their own ways of thinking toward what professionalism means, which is highly related to their personal experiences. There are three features of teacher professional identity in a postmodern view: (1) Identity is relational. People build their own identities often distinguishing the difference between themselves and others. (2) Identity is narrative. It means that people identify themselves not only through biological characteristics such as races but also from their own stories and who they are. (3) Identity is imaginary. People sometimes imagine where they should belong to and help themselves find a position (Meng, 2001). Therefore, identity forming is not only related to what one is given innately but also connected with what one perceives and interprets.

4. Method

Based on the literature review and by means of qualitative approach, the researcher used a case study design containing the cases of four elementary teachers (Peter, Apple, Wendy and Mei) in Taipei and HsinChu County. Selecting the different cases and having more than two settings, subjects, and sets of data could serve a variety of research purposes. This study used these four elementary school teachers for the cases so that the researcher not only expanded the diversity of data, but also compared the distinctions among the four teachers. The researcher chose these four teachers because some of them accepted teacher evaluation for professional development and some did not accept it. So, the researcher can acquire different perspectives from these teachers. The researcher used document and literature analysis to reach the first research purpose and interviewed study participants to reach the second purpose. Additionally, the researcher collected data by conducting approximately two hundred minutes interviews with these four teachers. These interviews allowed the researcher to focus directly on the case study topic and its purposes.

5. Findings

5.1 A "Questionable" Policy

Most teachers in this study think that some indicators are reasonable such as curriculum design and classroom management. However, they mention other kinds of indicators are not clear, for example, willingness to participate in on-job-training programs and make teaching activities creatively.

Peter: If I am really interested in calligraphy and then I learn how to do it outside of school, can it be considered as on-job-training programs? As far as I know, our government has never held any activities like this before. There are only academic training courses provided for all teachers, which is often not related to teaching practice. Also, teaching in elementary school students is totally different from teaching in junior or senior high schools. Elementary school students have to learn how to work together with classmates, follow teachers' direction as well as how to behave right. Compared with those, trying to make the teaching activities creative is not necessary.

Mei: I also do not understand how the government defines "creative." I think they might need to explain the details and make a difference between different levels and subjects. Moreover, if I discuss teaching materials and student learning condition with parents, can those things be seen as professional development?

Wendy: How does the government defines "good" or "bad"? Many awards are provided by the government. However, do we need to look for fancy design or focus on appropriateness for students?

Teachers in this study agree that setting concrete objectives is valuable; however, a lot of details need to be carefully revised. Since a teacher is a "person" rather than a "group member," the indicators cannot fit all teachers. Different teachers work with a variety of students. The educational goal is to "teach students" rather than "teach standards." If a teacher follows all the indicators throughout, can he/she be called a "professional" teacher? It still remains doubtful.

5.2 Respect the Difference-One's Own Professionalism

Each teacher in this study has his/her own thinking toward the meaning of professionalism, which is highly related to teaching practice.

Peter: I think a professional teacher should pay attention to a student's emotion and learning condition. The teaching style should match student's learning habit. I feel that a passion for teaching can be seen as a part of professionalism. Therefore, I will use the adaptive instruction in my classes.

Apple: I think every teacher should have passion for teaching and creativity as well as be willing to absorb different knowledge. Thus, I will design different activities in order to get student's learning interest. Learning by doing is a good way to accomplish it.

Wendy: A professional teacher not only owns the subject knowledge, professional dedication spirit and attitude, but also be able to deal with the relationship between students, parents, and administrators.

Mei: I believe that a professional teacher is to give students hope, guide and inspire them. Teachers should not only pay attention to teach textbooks; they also need to care about student backgrounds and learning condition outside the school. Therefore, I do not only use textbooks while I am teaching. I compile teaching materials, storybooks as well as picture books in order to help students learn more than subject knowledge.

What shapes teacher's perspectives toward the meaning of professionalism and teacher practice is complicated. Most teachers might experience different roles such as students, novice teachers, experienced teachers, parents, wives/husbands or administrators, which shapes how they consider the characteristics of a professional teacher and their teaching styles. Through time, it becomes teacher professional identity.

> **Peter:** I have been teaching eight years. I have my own sense of the best teaching style, which matches my characteristics and beliefs. If the government requires me to reach the indicators, I might do some adjustment. However, I won't become a different person, so I will not change my teaching styles.

Most teachers in this study mention that they will not change their teaching styles because they have been teaching for many years and working with different students. They also experience different roles, schools, and periods. These experiences present who they are, how they act, and what they think, which identifies teacher professionalism. The main goal of postmodernism is to "de-standardize," which encourages teachers to have their own standpoints in terms of teacher professional development, so they can become the person who they want o be and stick to it.

6. Conclusion

The government considers that developing teacher professionalism is an essential work, so it tries to create policies and awards in order to help all teachers become "professional teachers" who are willing to develop curriculum, teaching skills, and classroom management, attend the on-job-training courses as well as pay attention to student's learning outcome. However, there is individuality among different teachers and students. It is controversial if the government requires every teacher following the same indicators.

Teachers have their own unique teaching experiences. Through time, those experiences cultivate their professional identities. Based on teachers' reflections, respecting the difference and viewing teachers as a person are the best ways to advance teacher professionalism.

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Genealogy and immorality – discussions about curriculum in schooled spaces

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Abstract

It is a common misunderstanding: education is confused with school, and both are seen as synonyms. This mistake is not innocent: considering education as equivalent to schooling presupposes assigning particular spaces for each one and controlling the time in which they perform their activities, and institutionalizing education by means of schooling is an effort to standardize the multiple forms of sociability and ways of life. In a traditionally accepted view, the curriculum is an organization of experience aimed at conveying not only knowledge, but also a well-defined set of values. This study, philosophically articulated with the thought of difference proposed by Friedrich Nietzsche, Gilles Deleuze and Michel Foucault, points out the objectives of a research that aims to investigate curriculum specificities in both schooled and unschooled spaces in Brazil and Colombia. By problematizing the curriculum, it becomes committed to the valorization issue, i.e. why are certain kinds of knowledge, subject and subjectivity desirable, and others are not? This involves, in Nietzsche's genealogical method, asking about the forces that compose the valorization process, about the moral criteria adopted to decide what is good or bad, what is right or wrong in the curriculum. With such instituted value, one could ask: for whom is this a value, and which competing forces were involved in its creation and imposition? By regarding both value and knowledge as inventions, rather than transcendent natural data, the historical, accidental and contingent character of the problematized curriculum values is insured, thus enabling its recreation – it is neither invalidation, nor renunciation, but an indication: the value is put in its due place and is problematized. Thinking genealogically about the relationships between curriculum and values means to advocate a fundamentally immoralist methodology: let us suspect any moral and any knowledge based on the absolute and universal, and turn towards continued questioning and invention.

Keywords: genealogy, curriculum, values.

1   Introduction: On what one thinks and what one does.

This study has its origin in a research project entitled *The curriculum in schooled and unschooled settings in Brazil and Colombia: different relations with learning and teaching*, linked to the Master´s in Education at the UNIVATES University Center/RS/BRASIL. In particular, we are interested in problematizing the curriculum and its specificities in schooled and unschooled settings. On account of this, we construct our movements in the midst of well known questions central to any post-structuralist curricular theorization, whatever they may be: the discussion about knowledge and truth, the subject and subjectivity, values and power (Corazza & Tadeu, 2003). In this theoretical record, the question of what is or must be taught does not separate itself from the problematization of what, in a determined time and space, constitutes true, valid knowledge, or, in other words, what a certain curricular organization "wants" (Corazza, 2001). Moreover, every curriculum carries a notion of subjectivation and of subject, able to be understood through an analysis of what it thinks to be and into what it seeks to turn those who are involved in it.

Such reflection on the curricular motivations, choices and judgements is not made without being in the midst of the analysis of the power relations implicated therein, that is, the genealogy of the moral values (Nietzsche, 1998) which drive a given curriculum: why is this knowledge, and not other knowledge, considered correct and true? Why a certain type of formation and not another? Far from any belief in rudimentary fundamentals and transcendent truths, what

interests us is to question through the constituent forces of the whole evaluative process. As Corazza and Tadeu (2003, p.49) point out:

> Instead of, therefore, asking 'what is it?', ask 'what makes it what it is?'. Look for, first, the impulse, the desire, the motive which make the things have the meaning that they have rather than their essence, origin or ultimate fundamentals. In place of an ontology, a science of forces.

Understanding that the truths of a curriculum do not pre-exist it, and that its existence only makes sense in a certain relation to power (Foucault, 2004) staged and embodied by itself, we are able to think of the curriculum in terms of an imposition of meanings, values and particular modes of subjectivation (Silva, 1996). In a traditionally accepted vision, the curriculum is an organisation of experience intended to transmit not only knowledge but also a well defined set of values; more than an epistemological undertaking, we are dealing with a moral endeavour. In this context, in proposing an estrangement of such forms of governing, of regulating subjects and of things such as programs with educative function, fear and hope do not have a place, as Deleuze (1992) teaches us. Rather one must "search for new weapons" capable of disconnecting the curriculum from the scholarly drives which act in delimiting its frontiers.

2 Plan

In taking schooled and unschooled settings as notions to be studied, we understand that the curriculum must be thought of due to the stances and the relations that it engenders, that is, the way in which, in its movements, the space is filled (Deleuze and Parnet, 1998). In this way, the simple distinction between schooled and unschooled does not appear to be sufficient to guarantee such a problematization, since it carries with it the presupposition that the school context, with the norms which govern it, does not provide the necessary forces for possible transmutations – and, on the other hand, the belief that any practical endeavours in questioning the instituted school models would guarantee the gaining of a space free from regulations. We are interested, therefore, in the passages and the combinations, the alternations and the overlapping between the operations of smooth and striated (Deleuze; Guattari, 1997, p.52-53), that is, how the creating drives do not cease to be countered and rearranged by a normative machinery, at the same time as the organization of knowledge, practice and life can enter into a continual movement of undoing of values, measures and properties. Deep down, only one question persists: how to make *this* place, another. This constitutes a tactic of disarticulation and not abandonment.

The movements, passages and exchanges of knowledge in unschooled curriculums, being school related or not, can be configured through learning which is unrelated to results and meanings reduced by pedagogical actions. From this perspective, the idea of a non-scholarized curriculum is also an opposing force and a struggle against the coercion of theoretical, unitary and formal discourses, through the recognition of nomadic, frontier knowledge, activated against the scientific ranking of knowledge and its intrinsic effects of power (Foucault, 2004). Weaving together, these spaces – scholarly and non-scholarly –, just like the schooled and unschooled movements, aim to try to understand in what way the curriculum can be composed and be crossed with new practices, other experimentations and knowledge relations.

3 Methodology

Thinking genealogically about the relations between the curriculum and morals means discarding any transcendental hypothesis which would come to justify and turn absolute the character of certain values, whatever they may be. What we are questioning, therefore, are the emergency conditions of the criteria used to decide what, in human conduct, is good and what is bad, what is desirable and what is undesirable, thus also placing in suspense the moral regulation configured by these very conditions. In place of *blue*, where the truth and essentials would rest, the *grey*-earth of the "long, almost indecipherable hieroglyphic writing" of our moral past (Nietzsche, 1998, p.13). From this perspective, more important than the values themselves, is the questioning of the modes through which are enunciated the positions, times and spaces which construct through the relations of power that they embody and

which legitimize their introduction and maintenance at the detriment of the others. The Nietzschean genealogical grey is also the picturesque grey of Paul Klee (1979), the neutral point between the dimensions which, in being composed by the undifferentiation of the terms posted in relation, cheats all sense of meaning introduced by the configuration of a paradigm (Barthes, 2003). In choosing to move away from the facts indistinctly, genealogical research places itself to the left of the normative criteria, and approaches the latter only in a critical manner. It is in this manner that the activation of non-legitimated knowledge becomes possible, just as the defence of this knowledge against any "theoretic, unitary instance which would intend to purify, rank and order it in the name of true knowledge, in the name of the rights of a science arrested by some" (Foucault, 2004, p.171).

Thought of in this way, genealogy does not configure itself as a struggle "against the contents, methods and concepts of a science", but rather as a necessarily critical stance before the effects of centralizing powers which are linked to the institution and to the functioning of certain majority discourses within the given institution. Against the "you must" moral, stands the immoralist genealogical desire. Just as Nietzsche (2001, p.216) warns us, all preachers of morality have an incivility in common: "they all seek to convince men that they are very bad and need hard, radical and definitive treatment". All of these masters, listened to zealously for whole centuries, leave us with no other possibility – if we do not wish to do with education and with life something merely to *be tolerated* –, may we not "distance ourselves from the things to the point that we no longer see very much of them" or, therefore, may we "see things around a corner and as if they were cut out and extracted from their context", so that in this way we will be, affirmatively, the author poets of our own practices, "beginning with the tiniest, daily things" (idem, p.202).

4   Conclusion

Fighting against submission to modern subjectivities, perhaps we can "cross their moral frontiers to deal with new and improbable forms of subjectivation, establish new and unthought of relations and realize another ethical experimentation" (Corazza, 2001, p. 58). In some ways, the genealogical practice does not distance itself from a certain ideal of levity. Such as is defended by Italo Calvino (1990): an intervention in the name of a subtraction of weight, the affirmation of the movement before the sharpening clarity of the meaning. Behold, therefore, what we are fighting for: in thinking of the relations between the curriculum and values genealogically, we distrust all morals and knowledge based on the absolute and the universal, leading us, with levity and immorally, to continual questioning and invention.

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Future Teachers' Understandings of Theory and Practice

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Abstract

The goal of this study was to better understand what practical and theoretical means to preservice teachers in a social studies methods course. The separation of theory and practice permeates the fabric of teaching and learning everywhere and it is evident in teacher education. This study was designed as a research intervention but the paper focuses on the conceptual understandings we found in our data. We describe three models of these understandings that may shed light on how many students think of the relationship between theory and practice. Such descriptions provide a conceptual framework to better understand preservice teachers' thinking and be a guide for more effective teaching. We discuss the benefits and limitations of this kind of conceptual scheme and its implications for social studies methods courses and teacher education more generally.

Keywords: teacher education, theory, practice, conceptual models

1   Introduction

Teacher educators are often perplexed by their students' rejection of an integrated conception of theory and practice. Teaching is frequently characterized as practical rather than theoretical and, as Anderson and Freebody suggest (2012), this separation positions teacher educators "in a constant struggle to reconcile the theory of the lecture and tutorial room with the practice of the classroom" (p. 359; also see, Carr & Kemmis, 1986; J. Goodlad, Soder, & Sirotnik, 1990; Korthagen, Kessels, Koster, Lagerwerf, & Wubbels, 2001).

Underlying such views may be the assumption that teachers are practically oriented while professors care most about theories (Hostetler, 1992; Maloy, 1985; Sirotnik & Goodlad, 1988). Such an assumption reflects a traditional Western dichotomous view. However, some American pragmatists, notably Dewey and the socio-culturalists, reject this perspective. Dewey, for example, is purported to have said, "There's nothing more practical than a good theory." Similarly, for Wenger practice is tied to theory through mutual dependence in the creation of meanings (Wenger, 1998). Yet rarely are students of education presumed to hold such views.

This paper reports on a study of how undergraduate preservice students understand the relation of theory and practice. Students often lacked ways to integrate the two and felt as though they had to choose between them. This dilemma was exacerbated by the ways in which theory and practice were positioned institutionally. An absence of collaboration between schools and university, students' perceptions of the 'ivory tower,' and field teachers' emphasis on the practical aspects of teaching all contributed to this sense of separation and reflected a lack of cross-institutional understanding (J. I. Goodlad, 1988; Johnston-Parsons, 2012).

Our data suggests three models for conceptualizing their understanding of this relation.

1.1   Research Design

This study was conducted over a period of 3 years with undergraduate preservice students enrolled in a social studies methods course at a large U.S. research university. Students who participated completed pre- and-post surveys as well as sketches rendering their conceptions of theory and practice. Approximately 25% of students also volunteered to discuss, either in individual or focus group interviews, their understandings of theory, practice, and the relation between the two. All were in their 4th year of study and working to complete

elementary/middle school teacher certifications. The program they were enrolled in serves approximately 450 students and is a major source of revenue for the education college at the university.

In our opinion it is a strong program. Faculty, clinical educators, and doctoral students work collaboratively to teach program courses and they discuss their plans and share resources weekly. Students also complete field experiences intended to connect with their coursework. Students are placed in elementary and middle school classrooms for 3 semesters and spend their final semester full-time student teaching. Supervision of field placements is managed primarily by clinical faculty and doctoral students; however, these individuals may or may not know what is happening within the university.

The exit data collected from graduating students were peppered with comments about university courses being "too theoretical" and the value of students' "real" experiences in schools. We wonder, based on our findings, whether a teacher education program without close connections to schools may struggle more than collaborative programs to develop integrated conceptions of theory and practice. We report only on the analysis of the interview/focus group data here but we use student drawings to illustrate our findings.

2   Findings

From our data analysis, we identified three models of student conceptions of the relation between theory and practice. Each portrays a different understanding of the usefulness of theory. Below we discuss each one, drawing on student interview data and illustrations.

2.1   Model 1: Separate but Not Equal

In this first conceptual model, theory and practice were separate and distinguishable. Theory was generally devalued in some way by comparison with practice; they were two separate entities and their opposition was stressed. For example, theory is *ideal* and practice is *real*; theory is *general* and practice is *particular*; theory is *abstract* and practice is *concrete,* and theory is *knowing* and practice is *doing*. In this model, theory does not fit easily into the real world of schools, while practice is useful and necessary. The thinking here was often locational, i.e., theory is in one place and practice in another. One participant stated this succinctly: "Theoretical is here [at the university] and practical is practice in the schools."

A visual representation of this model has arrows pointing in opposite directions (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Model 1 diagram showing the dichotomy of theory and practice.
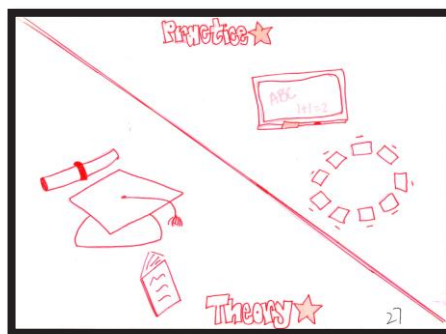
Figure 2 Student drawing in Model 1

This student described her drawing:

> In my picture of theory & practice, for theory I drew a graduation hat, a diploma,, and a book. I feel that theory is necessary but should remain a part of higher education and just simply be used in practice but not taught. For practice, I drew a chalkboard because practices usually take place in the classroom.

In this model students were clear about the dichotomy between theory and practice. Another wrote:

> For me, theory is a vague idea I have thought about, like a teaching strategy . . . . It is just out of reach, I have not found it practical. Practice is something that I see as sensible, applicable to my own teaching. I understand it, like it, and want to implement it. It is practical and relevant to my teaching philosophies.

After coding statements in Model 1 at a more detailed level, we identified two distinctions.

2.1.1 Sub-Category: Content

In a first sub-category, labeled "content," students described theory as something to be learned, often connected to their textbooks and lectures and often needing to be memorized. When asked to define theory, for example, one student responded:

> It's like memory, memorizing stuff; it reminds me of textbook-bolded words or like the main title, that's what I think about. There is no other connection.

For others it was more two aspects of a dichotomy to be defined and there was clear resistance to theory. Theory was content, what you learned--it was thinking about things. There was little interaction and often theory did not fit into the practical world of teaching. Practice was something that happens in the classroom; it was doing something. One student said:

> . . . . even when the instructors are attempting to help us with the practice aspects it still comes out as theory because they're overlooking some of the typical constraints in the classroom.

Here practice is influenced by the real world of schools; at the university, things stay theoretical because they can't be contextualized.

2.1.2 Sub-Category: Goals/Ideals

In a second sub-category, students described theory as a rationale or objective for doing something. They saw theory as goals and ideals, separated from practice. While some students saw goals as useful, many were resistant or frustrated by their perception that such goals were unrealizable.

> I am getting tired of reading the same kind of articles that spout ideals and goals but never offer realistic suggestions about how to achieve those goals.

Others were upset with the inquiry focus of the university. As one student said:

> How do we convince our administrators to let us use inquiry instead of the curriculum-mandated textbooks? If an article would tell me how to do that as it explains theory, I would love to read it. I have had enough, however, of goals, ideals, and theories.

These dichotomous responses in Model 1 imply that theory is quite different from actual teacher practices. This presented a dilemma for students. Some separated theory and practice, defining them differently and locating them in different places. Many valued one part of the dyad while devaluing the other. Students talked more negatively about theory than what they saw as the real practices of teachers in classrooms. See Table 1 for a summary of Model 1 and sub-categories.

Table 1. Summary of subcategories in Model 1.

	sub-category 1	sub-category 2
title	content	idealistic goals
common terms	removed, scholarly, outdated, learned at the university	general, rationale, objectives, can't translate it into practice

process	memorize for extraneous purposes	provides ideas/ideal but is seldom practically useful
outcome	useless/unrelated to practice	not useful

2.2   Model 2: First Theory then Practice

In Model 2, students demonstrated a sequential sense of the relation between theory and practice. They were less resistant to theory and saw a more positive relation between the two. They saw theory as a prerequisite to practice. It was valued as something that could back up a teacher's practice or provided reasons for doing particular things. It was a constant; something to be put into action. Although putting theory into practice in Model 2 permitted adaptation, if things did not go well it often led to abandoning a specific theory. This relationship is captured by a unidirectional arrow moving from theory to practice (Figure 3).

Theory

practice

Figure 3. Model 2 diagram showing the sequence of starting with theory and moving into action.

Figure 4, which exemplifies model 2, is explained by a student in this way:

> I drew a picture of books to represent theory and then I drew a teacher teaching her students to represent practice b/c what is learned and acquired in theory is then transferred to practice, thus the 2 are connected.
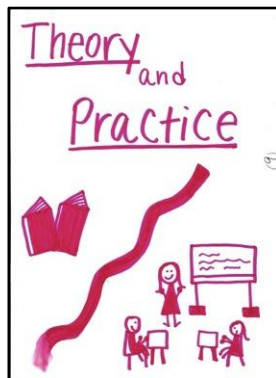
Figure 4. Student drawing in Model 1, showing distinction between theory and practice.

This student saw theory and practice as two different yet sequential aspects of teaching. Within this sequential model, we further identified two sub-categories.

2.2.1 Sub-Category: Putting into Practice

The first, labeled "putting into practice," reflected students' sense that theory provided specific steps to direct the practical aspects of teaching. This process involved implementation, which could mean "sneaking it [theory] into" teaching if it conflicted with the official approach of the school. It also meant ideas about practice learned

at the university could be applied in the real world school classrooms but that theory could be adapted. As one student explained:

> I think it's a concerted effort to be aware of your theory, like mental cognition,
> Think about what you're thinking and then apply it in practice in a day-to-day
> setting.

2.2.2 Sub-Category: Backing Up

A second sub-category, labeled "backing-up", reflected the view that theory was behind practice as a way to explain it. Here theory is the foundation or "building blocks." Theory was located in a place, e.g., in a vivid example in a book or the performance of a real teacher. In these situations students saw an underlying theory and perceived its usefulness to practice. As one student asserted:

> I feel like you need to know the theories first and have a background knowledge about them in order to make the practices most useful . . . . If you don't know anything about the theory behind what you're teaching. . . you won't know how to deal with their questions.

Theory, then, was related to practice as a stable grounding for teaching or decision-making. Practice was "based off of," but not always a direct application of, theory. Table 2 provides a summary of Model 2.

Table 2. Model 2 of First Theory than Practice

	sub-category 1	sub-category 2
focus	putting into practice	backing-up
common terms	apply, implement, "put" into practice, "sneak it in", adapt convert	based on, legitimizes, behind, foundation
process	taking theory into practice	is behind you as you teach
outcome	supports your practice	provides rationale

2.3   Model 3: Thractice

In Model 3, students' conceptions of the relation between theory and practice appeared more integrated and interactive. One of the student's title and drawing captures this well. She combines the word theory + practice = thractice (see Figure 5). She succinctly described her drawing: "Theory affects practice. Practice affects theory. Theory and practice intertwine."

Figure 5. Student drawing within Model 3, showing the teacher interacting with students and an interactivity between theory and practice.

In Model 3, students often used the metaphor of a cycle in which theory and practice occurred over and over (see Figure 6).
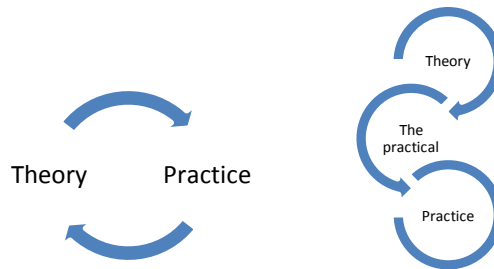
Figure 6. Model 3 diagram showing the cyclic nature of theory and practice.

In these conceptions students saw connections between the "'personal," the "practical," and "real teachers." They described practices in their field placements that were connected to and explained by the theories they learned in their courses and these were interactive. Here theory and practices are mutually constituted, as seen in this student's response,

It's like you need a theory, like social justice is an important goal and why it is important, and then you have to put it into practice in the classroom, but then if it doesn't work, you have to think about your theory and then maybe change your practice, or maybe you even change your theory.

There were two different ways in which this integration was conceived in Model 3.

2.3.1 Figuring it Out

Responses in this sub-category reflected ways in which students were trying to figure out practices related to their theories. They typically saw this process as requiring their individual effort to adapt theory to their particular context and personality. This often was explained as an individual effort. As one student reported,

. . . I do think that we need a strong foundation and theory because that's the part that's relevant to every student we work with, but it kind of is just a personal struggle to figure out what components of theory and what components of practice to put together to make a classroom.

2.3.2 Bringing Together

Responses here evidenced ways students brought theory and practice together, reaching some balance and connectinon. For example:

It's making me see that you can't do just theory, but you can't do just practice. I think that you need to have a balance and connect them. . . . putting theory and practice into connection and that's how you learn best is in making those connections.

In this model some students were personalizing the relation of theory to practice, while others were seeking ways to connect theory and practice. Both implied, explicitly or implicitly, that this relation is ongoing and mutually constituted. A summary of Model 3 is presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Summary of Model 3

	sub-category 1	sub-category 2
title	Figure it Out	Bring Together
common terms	like a cycle, your own, individual, personal	combine, use, relate, connection, make into
process	translate theory into practice and then adjust your theory	relating theory to practice and vice versa
outcome	a personal way to practice that reflects your theories	effective practices in balance

3. Conclusions

Most of the time our students understood the relation of theory and practice as described in Models 1 and 2. There were students in focus group conversations or interviews who moved back and forth between the two Models. Learning does not necessarily have a straight trajectory. The relation between theory and practice is only resolved when they are seen as integrative and mutually constituted. Prior to that, students attempted to solve this dilemma in Model 1 by valuing practice over theory or resisting theory all together; in Model 2, by valuing theory as a foundation for practice, attempting to put it into practice, and occasionally rejecting a theory if it did not pan out in practice. In model 3, the dilemma was temporarily resolved through the mutuality and interactivity between theory and practice, traditionally called praxis. Students struggled, however, to maintain this mutual construction as an ongoing process.

Conceptual models are useful for teachers as well as students in teacher education. They provide ways of understanding students' dialogue in class and helping guide them toward more complex ideas. We have no evidence that these models are sequential, but an argument can be made the Model 3 is more complex and interactive than Models 1 or 2.

Developing new ideas is often complex and there were examples of students playing with ideas as they searched out new new ones or defended old ones. Analyzing the complexity of these progressions is next on our research agenda.

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Determining General Professional Competencies of An Elementary Maths Teacher: A Case Study

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Abstract

Carrying out education in high quality is possible with qualified teachers. A qualified teacher should have competencies which can be handled in various ways. The level of teachers' competencies has a significant impact on students' learning. In this regard, determination of teacher competencies and analysis of their levels gain importance. The aim of this study is to examine an elementary maths teacher's general professional competencies. The research was conducted with case study, one of the qualitative study designs. The reasons for choosing this case in the study were that the school was in a low socio-economical area and there were various needs of the school. Besides, the teacher's being a doctoral student and volunteering for the process were the other reasons. The data was collected with an observation form and a semi-structured interview form and these forms were structured by the researchers. The observation form and the interview form were structured in accordance with the study "General Professional Competencies of Teachers" published by Republic of Turkey Ministry of National Education. In order to examine the general profesional competencies in "Teaching and Learning Process" and "Monitoring and Evaluation of Learning and Development" fields, an elementary maths teacher's 10 lessons were observed, and subsequent to the observations, semi-structured interview with the teacher was conducted. The interview lasted 24 minutes. The analysis of the data was carried out with descriptive analysis. According to findings of the research, it is indicated that the teacher has some deficiencies in terms of the general professional competencies in the field of "Monitoring and Evaluation of Learning and Development" and the subfields "Planning the Lesson" and "Organizing Extra-curricular Activities" within the "Teaching and Learning Process" field. Based on these indications, it is offered that some studies should be carried out to provide the teachers gain awareness of the general professional competencies and improve themselves in this respect.

Keywords: *General professional competencies, elementary maths teachers, teaching and learning process, measurement and evaluation process*

1. Introduction

Teacher is an important component of the learning-teaching process. Quality education could be carried out merely by qualified teachers. A qualified teacher should be competent in professional terms. According to Karacaoğlu (2008), the level of teacher competencies has a crucial impact on student learning. The higher the level of the teacher competency is, the higher will be the students' learning and the permanence of the learning in direct proportion. In reference to Kösterelioğlu and Kösterelioğlu (2008), the teacher who will lead the individuals to be raised and be effective for shaping the future should have the sufficient qualities in order to fulfil this function. In addition to this, while Erdoğdu and Kurt (2012) indicate that teacher competency direclty effects the quality of education, Sünbül and Arslan (n.d.) say that teacher competency is important in terms of learning and teaching activities' success and motivating the learners. Moreover, determining and developing the teachers' professional competencies are found necessary in terms of the quality of the education of future generations (TED, 2009). In this respect, determination and development of teacher competencies gain importance. With regard to this, Ministry of National Education published the studies named "General Professional Competencies of Teachers" in 2006 and "Special Area Competencies" in 2008 in order to determine the competencies concerning the teaching profession (Kurudayıoğlu and Tüzel, 2011). In these studies, related to determining the teacher competencies, there is the statement "teachers' work achievements and performances could be assessed".

Teaching profession general competencies are defined as "knowledge, skill and attitude that should be possessed in order to fulfil the teaching profession efficiently and productively." Regarding the teaching profession general competencies, there are 6 competency fields including personal and professional values- professional development; knowing student; learning and teaching process; monitoring and evaluation of learning and development; school, family and society relationships; knowledge of curriculum and content, 31 sub-competency fields and 233 performance indicators. Within this study, intended for examining the general competencies of teachers the competency fields "Learning and Teaching Process" and "Monitoring and Evaluation of Learning and Development" were handled.

When the related literature was reviewed, it was indicated that the topics of the studies conducted in this area were related to special area competencies, teacher trainee's perception of competency, teachers' self-efficacy believes, the impact of teacher training programs on professional competency, the evaluation of students and education inspectors concerning teacher competencies, developing competency scale. (Öztürk and Eroğlu, 2013; Erdoğdu andKurt, 2012; Külekçi, 2012; Çaycı, 2011; Kurudayıoğlu and Tüzel, 2011; Demirtaş and Kahveci, 2010; Yılmaz, Yılmaz and Türk, 2010; Çapri and Çelikkaleli, 2008; Karacaoğlu, 2008; Kösterelioğlu and Kösterelioğlu, 2008; Özdemir, 2008; Yılmaz and Çokluk Bökeoğlu, 2008; Sabancı and Şahin, 2007; Şeker, Deniz and Görgen, 2005; Doğan and Altaş, 2002). Reviewing the related literature, it is considered that any study related to the determination of professional competencies of teachers handling the situation in a multidimensional way with qualitative research method and including profound analysis was not carried out. It is thought that presenting the current situation in implementation of teaching profession competencies in a natural setting and with profound analysis is necessary. Therefore in the study, the answer was sought for the question "how is the level of the teaching profession general competency of elementary maths teachers?".

The general aim of the research was to analyze the general professional competencies of elementary maths teacher. In accordance with this general aim, answers were sought to the questions below:

1. How is the state of the general professional competencies of elementary maths teacher related to teaching and learning process?
2. How is the state of the general professional competencies of elementary maths teacher related to monitoring and evaluation of learning and development?

2. Method

2.1. Research Model

Case study- one of the qualitative research designs- was used in this research. A case study is defined as analysis of one or several cases with a suitable method in a detailed way. The fundamental aim of case study is to understand the case in all ways (Punch, 2005). In this study, as a case, the teaching profession general competencies of an elementary maths teacher were analyzed. Within this aim, the lessons of a maths teachers teaching at six-grade level were observed. Following the observations a semi-structured interview was conducted wit the teacher in order to get information in depth and multidimensionally. The reason for why processing a unit at six-grade level and an elementary maths teacher were chosen for the research was that the teacher's volunteering for the observation and interview process and advising observing the lessons at this level.

2.2. Participants

The research was conducted with a teacher working at a state school in Adana during the second semester of 2012-2013 school year. To determine the teacher, criterion sampling method one of the purposeful sampling methods was used and teacher's volunteering for the research process voluntarily was determined as the criterion. The teacher chosen for the research was a graduate of elementary maths teaching program in faculty of education, had a master degree of elementary teaching department. In addition to this, she carries on a doctorate program in department of educational sciences and has a seven-year length of service. The school the teacher is working at is at a low socio-economical status and the total of the class observed is 32.

2.3. Collecting the data

In the research observation form and interview form were used as data collection tool. During the preperation of these tools which were developed by the researchers, the competency fields "Teaching and Learning Process" and "Monitoring and Evaluation of Learning and Development" taking place in the guide book. "General Professional Competencies of Teachers" published by the Republic of Turkey Ministry of National Education in 2009. The data were collected in April during 2012-2013 school year.

Within the aim of collection of the data 10 lesson hours of elementary maths teacher were observed and subsequent to these observations a semi-structured interview lasting 24 minutes was conducted with the teacher. During the observations, video was recorded with the permission of the participating teacher.

2.4. Data analysis

Descriptive analysis was used to analyze the data collected. The data are summarized and interpreted according to the themes determined beforehand in descriptive analysis. Besides, in descriptive analysis, the data can be presented

considering the themes the research questions brought about or the questions used during interview or observation process. (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2008).

2.5. Studies of Validity and Reliability

Yıldırım and Şimşek (2008) points out that reporting the data collected to provide the validity in a qualitative research and researchers' explaining how he reached to the results are important criteria. On this basis, in order to provide the validity of the research, the data was reported described in detail and detailed information related to reaching the results was presented. Besides, with the idea that providing the reliability will affect the validity positively a study concerning the reliability was also carried out. Regarding to this, after a month the observation was made and the data was analyzed, video records and interview transcripts were analyzed again. By comparing the analysis made, the items on which there is consensus and dissensus were identified and separately for observation and interview, the reliability formula that Miles and Huberman (1994) put forward was used. As a result of the calculations, the reliability of observation data was found 81 percent while the reliability of interview data was found 83 percent and the research was accepted as reliable. Furthermore, use of the data achieved in different ways in order to examine the consistency of each other is a strategy which can be used to increase the validity and the reliability of results. (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2008). In addition to these studies carried out in order to provide the validity and reliability, triangulation method has been consulted in terms of the observation data's supporting the interview data.

3. Findings

Findings were presented as two subtitles. In line with the purposes of the study, primarily the findings in the field of competency in learning and teaching process. Then, the findings related to the field of monitoring and evaluation of learning and developement were presented. Findings related to the field of teaching and learning process were obtained from the observations and the findings related to the field of monitoring and evaluation of learning and development were obtained from the interview.

3.1. The Performance Indicators Related to The Field of Competency In Learning and Teaching Process

In this field of competency, planing lesson, preparation of materials, organising learning environments, organising extra-curricular activities, diversifying education by taking into account individual differences, time management and behavior management indicators are included. Themes, codes and frequency values related to the field of sub-competency of teaching and learning process were presented in Table 1. Frequencies illustrate during how many lesson hours the performance indicator was observed.

Table 1

Themes, Codes and Frequency values related to the field of competency in teaching and learning

Performance Indicators of Teacher		
Themes	**Codes**	**Frequency**
		32
	Caring for materials being practical and economical	6
	Caring for materials being appropriate for the content	6
	Benefiting environmental facilities	6
Preparation of Materials	Caring for its facilitating the presentation of the content	6
	Preparing worksheets	2
	Benefiting technological tools	2
	Access to resources in technological setting and evaluating their accuracy	2
	Considering individual differences	1
	Providing facilities for the students in material preparation and development	1

Table 1 (Cont.)

		51
Organising Learning Environments	Organising learning environments according to the activity type	10
	Taking precautions for cleaning and airing	10
	Organising physical conditions	8
	Taking precautions for safe use of equipment	8
	Considering principles of using equipment	7
	Providing care for the equipment and keeping them ready for use	6
	Being a model for and teaching using technological resources	2
Diversifying education by taking into account the individual differences		4
	Considering individual differences in diversifying measurement and evaluation approaches	2
	Using technologies supporting student-centered strategies	2
Time management		2
	Using the time effectively during learning-teaching process	2
Behavior Management		50
	Giving constructive, expresssive, improving feedback to the students	10
	Calling the students by their names	10
	Setting the environment in which the students will feel safe	10
	Implementing the precaution giving priority to the health and safety	8
	Revealing the succesful aspects of the students	5
	Taking individual differences into account	3
	Guiding the students to be able to manage their emotions and thoughts	2
	Having interpersonal problem-solving skills and guiding their improvement	2

The statement "*teacher should be able to plan the methods which s/he will use with a student-centered approach, the activities, the materials and equipment will be used during the lesson, the measurement and evaluation techniques with the students consistently with the objectives and outcomes in the special area curriculum.*" takes place in the field of planning the lesson sub-competency (MEB, 2009). Under the field of planning the lesson sub-competency, ten performance indicators take place which are getting the student to the center, taking individual differences into account, stating the objectives and outcomes, relating to the other disciplines and inter-disciplines, stating appropriate activities, stating methods and techniques fit for the purpose, stating the materials and equipment to be used, stating homework type, giving place to the use of information and communication technologies, stating monitoring and evaluation activities. It was indicated that the teacher observed didn't apply any of the performance indicators in the field of planning the lesson sub-competency. Also during the interview, the teacher stated that she didn't prepare a lesson plan and the reason for this was the guide book. Besides, she expressed that there were some deficiencies of the guide book as below:

> "*I do not prepare lesson plans now...... I do some regulations on lesson plans in maths guide book.*" (p.1)

Stating that she utilized from the guide book the teacher answered the question related to the eficiency of the guide books for the learning-teaching process:

> "*Obviously, it is of course not enough, there are deficiencies, we have difficulty for sure but anyway the guide book don't say to every teacher that they will precisely apply what is written there. It is a guide as the name implies, we only get support from it.*" (p.1)

Among the performance indicators in the field of preparation of material sub-competency, while caring for materials' being practical and economical, caring for its being appropriate for the content, benefiting

environmental facilities and caring for its facilitating the presentation of the content were mostly being observed, caring for the student opinions in material preparation was not observed. It was decided that the other performance indicators were also rarely observed. When we think about the benefits of material preparation and use in terms of increasing the efficiency of learning-teaching process, it is thought that the performance indicators in this field of sub-competency should be observed more frequent. During the interview conducted with the teacher, "*I prepare when it's necessary, so it cannot be said that I always prepare but I sometimes do.*" (p.1) was the answer when the question was asked to the teacher whether she prepared material or not. Furthermore, what kind of materials she prepared was asked to the teacher and the answer was:

> "*These for example, there are equipments which are necessary during lecturing. If they are not available at school and if I can create them on my own I do, or for example, if I can make them with children, we do together. Apart from that, generally geometric figures.*" (p.1)

For the material use, it was indicated that the materials could be used for maths course in the school were not sufficient. Moreover, in terms of the materials could be used and obtained in the technological settings it was a negative situation that there were not computers although there were projectors in the classrooms. In this respect, it is thought that the lack of materials and technological equipment at school reduced the using frequency of materials in the lessons.

In the field of organising learning environment sub-competency, arranging the environment according to the activity type and taking precautions for cleaning and airing were the most frequently observed performance indicators. Considering the students' prior experiences and arranging for aesthetic sensitivity behaviors in setting learning environment were not observed. As for arranging the environment according to the activity type, the standard seating arrangement remained stable because there lectures and expository teaching generally take place through the lessons. For setting the learning environment, collaborative learning's not occuring caused the seating arrangement's remaining standard and stable. Related to the other most frequent behavior, it was observed that assigned students cleaned and aired the classroom at every breaktime. Besides, arranging physical conditions of learning environment and teacher's controlling this during the lesson and breaktime were among the frequently observed performance indicators. Furthermore, it was noted that the other performance indicators were also often observed. In this terms, it is believed that the teacher sufficiently carried out the performance indicators in organising learning environment sub-competency. As for the performance indicators not observed anytime in this field of sub-competency, it is considered that there being some deficiencies in classes and school in terms of organising learning environment and giving less space for learner-centered methods led to this situation. Regarding to this subfield, it was asked whether the teacher did some changes and arrangements in learning environment and answered as:

> "*It is not that suitable in the classroom, and I really wanted to have a maths classroom, as you know that every class has its own room and the teachers have lessons in these rooms. I would like to have a maths class, students come there class by class, lets think it like a maths laboratory. I believe that I would give a more efficient education in this way but this was not possible until now. I could not apply it because of insufficiency of the classroom in other words the setting.*" (p.3)

In addition, whether she did any changes on the seating arrangement and what effects making changes did were asked to the teacher. The teacher answered:

> "*For example, we can make arrangements with the desks putting two desks together which makes four students sit together when there is an activity should be done as a group. The communication among the students increases when we make them a group and the learning gets better, their social relations and skills improve.*" (p.3)

In the field of organising extra-curricular activities sub-competency, there are six performance indicators which are preparing a plan, providing the lesson's appropriateness for the objectives, caring for students' features, making the necessary correspondence and interviews, supplying the necessary tools, taking precautions for its safety. No behaviors concerning the performance indicators in the field of arranging extra-curricular activities sub-competency were observed. Regarding to this situation, it was asked to the teacher whether she did any extra-curricular activities or not and the teacher stated that she generally did the activities done in the maths club. In addition to this, whether she did activities outside the school or not was asked to the teacher and responded to as:

"I mean, it happens mostly during the club. Because most students come and go by school service, most of them go to the special courses, so, it is impossible to find the student after the school. If you could find students, you would be able to do different activities. As I said it is also because the students don't have time." (p.4)

As it can be predicted from the answer of the teacher, it is thought that the competency level at organising extra-curricular activities sub-competency was low. Although the teacher explained the reason for it, it is also considered that there could be a load of responsibility of the legal regulations of arranging extra-curricular activities on the teacher.

The performance indicators in the field of diversifying education by taking into account the individual differences sub-competency were not adequately observed. In the field of diversifying education by taking into account the individual differences sub-competency, the performance indicators, considering different necessities while organising learning activities, keeping records in order to follow the students, consulting a specialist in diversifying teaching, taking individual differences into account in determining the methods, knowing legal basis related to the ones with special problems, preparing individual learning plans were not observed. Among the arrangements made for the individual diferences of students, implementation of computer-aided learning, use of materials and use of worksheets could be hold up as examples. However, it is thought that these practices were not adequate in terms of not taking place every lesson and taking the individual differences into account at a limited level and that providing diversity of methods would be effective. Concerning this sub-competency field, whether she did arrangements related to the individual differences or not was asked to the teacher and responded to as:

"First of all, if I can, I try to diversify the lesson as much as possible according to multiple intelligence theory… Apart from that, I try to give opportunities to the students when live and learn is necessary. There are some children who learns more difficult for instance we make some extra activities for them. We have inclusive students, we make plans for them, we teach them different topics. We make different exams for them." (p.4)

The performance indicators in the field of time management sub-competency were not observed often enough. Planing the lesson to use time effectively and guiding students for using time effectively performance indicators taking place in time management sub-competency field were not carried out by the teacher. It is thought that this stuation was resulted from her being appointed as hall monitor during the three days of observation. Her coming late to the lesson due to being hall monitor caused the lesson to start later and also posed problems for time management of the lesson. Besides, since the lessons' starting at a very early hour in the morning caused problems in students' focusing on the lesson, time management was adversely effected. Regarding to this sub-competency field, it was asked to the teacher whether she made arrangements concerning time management or not and responded to as:

"Obviously, I make a plan in my mind before the class but mostly because we can come across with various situations in the class environment, that plan does not survive." (p.4)

Among the performance indicators in the field of behavior management sub-competency, giving constructive, expresssive, improving feedback to the students, calling the students by their names, setting the environment in which the students will feel safe behaviors were most frequently observed. The performance indicators: setting the class rules with the students, providing the students' learning how to motivate themselves, guiding students to improve their self-control skills were not observed. It was observed that the teacher had good contact with the students and valued them while adressing the students. In addition to this, it was identified that she was unresponsive in solving the problems that the students sitting behind had and this students had some problems participating in class. In this respect, the teacher's competency level regarding the behavior management sub-competency can be said to be at mid-level. Regarding to this sub-competency field, performing behavior management and what she performed related to this were asked to the teacher and responded to as:

"I mean I try to interfere with the students as much as possible but you have so much student and they have so much different world that even if you interfere they do whatever they want… Mostly warning verbally, apart from that I do my best to behave in a good manner as a model... I care for their developmental features such as age level, students' own characteristics, etc.." (p.5)

3.2. Performance Indicators Concerning Monitoring and Evaluation of Learning and Development Sub-Competency Field

In this field of competency, there are four sub-competency fields which are identifying and mesaurement method and techniques; testing student learning by using different testing techniques; data analysis and interpretation, providing feedback on student learning and development and reviewing the teaching-learning process according to results. The codes obtained as regards the view of teacher concerning monitoring and evaluation of learning and development sub-competency field are given in Table 2.

Table 2

Themes and Codes related to the field of Monitoring and Evaluation of Learning and Development Competency

Performance Indicators of Teacher		
Themes	**Codes**	**Yes/No**
Identifying testing and assessment methods and techniques	Deciding on the aim of the measurement and evaluation	Yes
	Determining the measurement instruments relevant to the aim	Yes
	Diversifying measurement instruments	Yes
	Determining alternative measurement instruments	Yes
	Making plan concerning measurement and evaluation	No
Testing student learning by using different testing techniques	Developing measurement instrument	Yes
	Testing validity and reliability of the measurement instrument	No
	Applying the measurement instrument	Yes
	Controlling the students' work	Yes
	Arranging personal measurement and evaluation activities	No
	Measuring students' performance and development levels regularly	Yes
Data analyse and interpretation, providing feedback on student learning and development	Choosing suitable statistic technique for data analysis	No
	Using information and communication technologies in data analysis	No
	Presenting measurement results with visual figures such as table, graphic	No
	Interpreting measurement results and providing feedback for the student	No
	Caring for student reactions about measurement results	No
	Awarding student achievements and positive behaviors	No
	Providing constructive guidance for negative behaviors	No
	Sharing assessment results with parents, school administration and other educators using also information and communication technologies	Yes
Reviewing the teaching-learning process according to results	Reviewing the objectives again	Yes
	Reviewing the learning environment again	Yes
	Reviewing measurement instruments again	Yes
	Reviewing teaching strategies, approaches, methods and techniques again	Yes
	Developing alternative material, strategy and activities when necessary	No

When the Table 2 was analyzed, related to the field of monitoring and evaluation of learning and development competency, it was identified that the competency level concerning the sub-competencies determining

measurement and evaluation methods and techniques; measuring the students' learning using different measurement techniques; reviewing the teaching-learning process according to the results was high. Besides, it was determined that she carried out a few of the performance indicators in interpreting the data analyzing them, student's developement and learning sub-competency field.

Regarding the field of monitoring and evaluation of learning and development competency, it was asked whether the teacher made plans concerning measurement and evaluation or not and responded to as:

"Actually, it cannot be said that I make a plan, measurement and evaluation, generaly in written or oral exams we focus on measurement and evaluation. There are certain units in the book, generally we make the assessent at the end of the units or the subjects. We are bound to the guide book in terms of the time of it." (p.5)

With regard to teacher's this answer it was considered that the guide book caused some restrictions through the planing and practice of measurement and evaluation activities.

Furthermore, which measurement and evaluation technique that she used and according to what she determined these techniques were asked to the teacher. She responded to these questions as:

"For measurement and evaluation, we exams that is written exams, oral exams, quizzes and apart from these we have performance work, and also sometimes materials that students prepare, sometimes research homework, group work, our observations during their working in a group…. It changes according to the feature of the topic. Except for it the time is very important." (p.6)

Also, questions related to preparing measurement instrument were asked to the teacher and responded to as:

"I mostly develop my own measurement instruments. I find it more appropriate. Because it changes according to the grade, grade-level, students' features. It is very crucial it changes according to the grade, the topic,I am inspired by the ready ones as well but I do not use them directly… I care for my own assessments and the other maths' teachers' opinions during validity and reliability studies… Other than that I do not carry out any validity and reliability studies." (p.6)

From teacher's response, it is understood that there were some deficiencies of validity and reliability in terms of developing the measurment and evaluation instrument. In addition to this, it could be said that her developing her own measurement instrument and caring for individual differences regarding to this positively effected the level of competency.

Questions concerning the analysis of measurement and evaluation results were asked and responded to as:

"I mean I do not use the programs making analysis, however, while I am reading exams I see the questions that the students can answer and they cannot answer I take notes about that and talk about them with students in the class. It happens that I give lectures on the topic that the students mostly cannot answer the questions related to it. But as I said I do not make a detailed analysis since we have so much workload and so many different work that we don't have time." (p.7)

It is considered that the teacher's level of competency' being low at analyzing the results of measurement and evaluation resulted from the limitations in terms of time not the deficiency of knowledge. It can be said that the teacher refered to superficial evaluation rather than performing statistical analysis in this regard and interpreted the results in accordance with this evaluation.

Finally, according to the results questions regarding to revising teaching-learning process were asked and teacher stated her answer as:

"Whether the questions I prepared can measure completely, which students could achieve which cannot, which topics that the learning doesn't happen completely, I make comparisons, I determine the deficiencies and arrange the re-teaching, teaching-learning environment and the topics… There are lots of positive impacts of this, the students will move to upper level without realizing incomplete learning. Apart from that I will salve my conscience… I make new arrangements searching for the reasons for the deficiencies in order to carry out more effective teaching." (p.7)

It is considered that teacher's level of competency in the field of revising teaching-learning process sub-competency was high.

4. Discussion

There are various studies on teachers' general competencies. When the research by Karacaoğlu (2008) was examined, it was determined that the perception of the teachers in terms of their competencies at a high level and recognizing developmental characteristics, being equipped with information and communication technologies, measuring students' learning on subject area using various measurement instruments, utilizing environmental opportunities, monitoring and evaluation special area curriculum, attending scientific studies carried out in the field, entering environments that would improve professional development, being analitic, beautiful writing and being aware of contemporary developments were among the perceptions thought to be poor. It can be said that there are some differences between the results of this research determining the teacher comptency using quantitative method and the results of our research due to the idea that the competency level of the teacher observed and interviewed was not that high. When we examine the poor perception fields of the research at issue, it is thought that there are similarities in various ways. In this respect, it can be said that much more quantitative research in order to determine the level of general professional competencies of teachers.

Within the study conducted by Demirtaş and Kahveci(2010), the perceptions of the forth and fifth grade students regarding the classroom management competencies of their teachers were found to be very high. It is considered that the teacher observed and interviewed during our study was competent at mid-level in terms of behavior management. In addition to this, it was observed that the students' relationship with their teacher was positive. In this terms, it can be stated that there are similarities with the results of the study mentioned. With this respect, it is thought that assessing the students' opinions will be effective in terms of obtaining objective results at the determination of competency level of the teachers.

In the research by Erdoğdu and Kurt (2012), the competency perceptions of teachers related to measurement and evaluation were examined and at the end of the research it was indicated that the teachers see themeslves less competent at statistical techniques while generally perceive themselves as more competent at basic concepts and measurement-evaluation teachniques. It was stated that the teacher observed and interviewed concerning the monitoring and evaluation of learning and development competency field of the study we conducted was competent in general, however, the statistical evaluations were not consulted during the development of the measurement instrument and analysis of the results. In this respect, it can be said that the results of these two studies were similar. Regarding to this, it is considered that encouraging the teachers to make statistical analysis would be useful in terms of measurement and evaluation.

When the decisions taken in 18th National Education Council were examined, teacher competencies were mentioned in terms of creating the career steps of the teachers and also, it was set that the teachers should gain competencies regarding material development and adaptation to the classes (MEB, 2010). Regarding to this, as the results of our study concerning the material preparation also support this situation, it is considered that making regulations in terms of teachers' improvement in material preparation will provide positive benefits for the effectiveness of learning-teaching process.

On the basis of the results, the suggestions for application and future studies are as follows:

- This research was carried out regarding a case. In order to look at a broader framework of general professional competencies of teachers, a comparative case study can be conducted handling more than one case. In addition to this, this study is limited to the general professional competencies of an elementary maths teacher. Therefore, the general professional competencies of teachers at other fields can be analyzed. Besides, the general professional competencies of teachers were handled. There is not any study concerning the special area competencies of elemantary maths teachers by the Ministry of National Education. In this respect, research consisting of the performance indicators related to special area competencies of elementary maths teachers can be carried out. Furthermore, this research was limited to ten lesson hours. In order to make a more detailed analysis, the observations can be made longer.

- With the aim of determination of professional competencies of teachers research at a wider range during which quantitative and qualitative methods are used together and student, teacher, parent, school administrator and education inspectors attend can be conducted.

- Various arrangements can be done by which the teachers make up their own deficiencies increasing the awareness of teachers in terms of increasing their professional competencies and providing determination of their competencies by self-assessment.

- Conducting research concerning the beginning time of the lessons at school, the effects of starting very early in the morning could be found. Furthermore, it is thought that determining the impact of appointing the teachers as hall monitors on their performances can overcome some problems which may reveal.
- A classroom should be provided for the branch teachers as it is for the classroom teacher. Every teacher should give his/her lesson in his/her own classroom. This can be contribute a lot in terms of teacher's embracing the classroom and designing the teaching.

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Living together or Dying together:
Rethinking the role of Curriculum Studies under postmodernity

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Abstract

Based on an overview about what is postmodernity and the characteristics of postmodernity, this paper analyzes different responses to the postmodern condition and culture from education and curriculum sector. It is indicated that there are mainly two kinds of "solution" or "approaches" in meeting the challenges from the postmodern condition, within which one is for "dying together" and another is for "living together".

The "dying together" model, which is functional and effective for the short term, is from a heritage of modern enlightenment tradition. This tradition, which is driven by the belief on human ration and the logic of rationalism, emphasizes efficiency, equity and linear development which are contradictory among themselves. Under postmodernity with the dramatic change in economic, cultural, social and political context, this tradition have evolved into neoliberalism, globalization, neocolonialism and new forms of marketization. Some educators, including educators from government educational administration sector and some scholars and teachers, try to meet these challenges through standardization of curriculum and education, accountability, and improvement of "quality". Some practices and strategies, such as PISA tests, No Child left Behind, 21st century competencies, and teaching through ICT, are examples of this approach. This paper will argue that this approach will lead to more acute competitions, quicker collapse of human values, more serious economic crisis, more environmental damages, and cause more wars…which will lead to "dying together".

The "living together" model, which has been initiated mainly by curriculum studies sector, have questioned the modern curriculum development model. Different works, including Reconceptualization of Curriculum Studies (William Pinar), Postmodern Perspective on Curriculum (William Doll), Understanding Curriculum (William Pinar), Curriculum visions(William Doll & Noel Gough), Expanding Curriculum Theory (William Reynolds & Julie Webber), Caring (Nel Noddings)…are all trying to build up different ways of "living together" through critics and reflections of status quo.

This paper advocates furthering the "living together" model through the efforts of curriculum studies. The role of curriculum studies could be changed from theoretic researcher and analysis into active participants through Involvements into schools and classroom teaching change, based on the ideas of all the children learn and live together；involvement into the teacher education and training in varied levels；and participating the government policy making and influencing the policies and practices launched by governments in different levels.

Keywords: postmodernity; dying together model; living together model; role of curriculum studies.

1   Introduction: A metaphor from "the Bus on Fire"

In June 7th 2013, there was a BRT bus exploded on the highway in Xiamen City, 47 passengers in the bus was dead and 34 was sent to the hospital. 15 passengers in that bus were heading for their entrance examination to Higher education, within which 8 of them were dead and the rest were not able to attend the exam (Steinmetz, 2013).

Hot discussions about this tragedy among the newspapers and internet occurred, and one voice among the opinions commented that this is a metaphor about the living condition of human being.

This kind of tragedies happens all the time and all over the world. In 2009, a passenger ignited gasoline on a bus in south western Chengdu, killing 27 and injuring dozens more. In the same year, 24 people died the same year in a

shuttle bus fire in Wuxi, started by a disgruntled steel worker. Earthquakes, bombing and fire in the factories are also happening now and then, quite frequently.

In other countries, serious tragedies also happen quite frequently, for instances, the 9.11 terrorist attack in 2001, the gun fire in Sandy Hook Elementary in 12/14/2012, and Boston bombing in 04/15/2013 in USA.

The overwhelming simulative virtual reality in cyber world makes people felt the tragedies as Hollywood movie scenes. People pretend that these tragedies are far from our life, and try to think them as something without any relations with us. We pretend we are very safe and not connected with them, but we ARE connected, we are all in the same bus, a big bus named earth.

"We are becoming members of a 'global community of threats'. The threats are no longer the internal affairs of particular countries and a country cannot deal with the threads alone. " (Beck, 2009: 8) In the bus, if only one passenger in the bus desperate, all the other passengers are potentially in the risk. The criminal in Xiamen bus, whose name was Cheng Shuizong, was really desperate after his efforts in opening small business which were all destroyed by governments, and in replying the pension which were not successful. He tried to survive, tried to open small business but all cancelled by the government, tried to pull himself out of the desperate situation; but failed again and again. As Beck indicated: "The radicalization of the resolve to use suicide as a means of committing mass murder, and thus to stage and globalize its expectation, renders the powerless powerful..." (Beck, 2009: 14)

The problem is, there are more and more desperate people in the world; more and more psychological problems among human beings; more and more people complaining the sense of not being 'home' in the earth; and more and more tragedies happening here and there. Even though the world are becoming much more developed and advanced than before. So, the following questions are: what's happening on the earth? What's wrong with the world? And why?

I would argue that it is the postmodernity or postmodern condition, which causes serious acute unsafe social context, fragmentation of the self, leads people lost in their soul and spiritual level.

2   Postmodernity: conditions and crisis

This conference will be based on two different interaction approaches between participants. One is the traditional session with specialists on curriculum studies. The other model of interaction is the thematic paper sessions where participants can share their work and proposals.
Postmodernity, postmodern condition, or postmodernism are controversial terms; and it's very difficult and even impossible to give a definition of it. According to Coulby, Postmodernity (also post-modernity or the postmodern condition) is generally used to describe the economic or cultural state or condition of society which is said to exist after modernity. Some scholars think that modernity ended in the late 20th century, in the 1980s or early 1990s replaced by postmodernity; while others think postmodernity is not a 'break' with modernity, but rather consequences of modernity which are not expected by the modern project itself.
Whatever it is defined or understood, it has been regarded as a very popular and powerful concept in social science and humanities for interpreting social conditions and status. As Harvey noticed:

> ...Postmodernism appeared more and more as a powerful configuration of new sentiments and thoughts. It seemed set fair to play a curical role in defining the trajectory of social and political development simply by virtue of the way it defined standards of social critique, political and intellectual criticism(Harvey 1990, 1).

Postmodernity is not only postmodernism; Coulby argued that postmodernity has shifted from being a way of describing cultural products (allusive,disjointed, pastiche,merging subjectivities and so on) to a way of describing society (fractured, relative, pluralistic, gerndered and so on) (Coulby & Jones, 1995). And It has also been linked to shifts in the mode of capitalist production often referred to as post-Fordist of post-Taylorist (highly specified, small batch production, niche marketing, just-in-time diliveries, non unionised, deskilled and flexible workforce and so on) (Coulby & Jones, 1995)
Lots of scholars, such as Jameson, Lyotard, and Bauman, described characteristics of postmodern condition or postmodernity from different perspectives. For example, Lyotard suggests that "The postmodern would be that which, in the modern, puts forward the unpresentable in presentation itself; that which denies itself the solace of good forms, the consensus of a taste which would make it possible to share collectively the nostalgia for the unattainable; that which searches for new presentations, not in order to enjoy them but in order to impart a stronger sense of the unpresentable."(Lyotard, 1991: 81) From my understanding of them, postmodernity mainly stands for the status and cultural conditions of consequences of Modernity Project, as unexpected results contradictory with the

original Enlightment design. Just like Marx described, 'the development of Modern Industry, therefore, cuts from under its feet the very foundation on which the bourgeoisie produces and appropriates products.', and while the modernity tried to develop itself, it digs the graves for itself. 'The project of modernity as it was formulated by the philosophers of the Enlightment in the eighteenth century consists in the relentless development of the objectivating sciences, of the universalistic foundations of morality and law, and of autonomous art, all in accord with their own immanent logic. But at the same time it also results in releasing the cognitive potentials accumulated in the process from their esoteric high forms and attempting to apply them in the sphere of praxis, that is, to encourage the rational organization of social relations. Parisans of Enlightenment such as Condorcet could still entertain the extravagant expectation that the arts and sciences would not merely promote the control of the forces of nature, but also further the understanding of self and world the progress of morality, justice in social institutions, and even human happiness' (Harbermas, 1997: 45).

The idea of Modern Project, "was to use the accumulation of knowledge generated by many individuals working freely and creatively for the pursuit of human emancipation and the enrichment of daily life. The scientific domination of nature promised freedom from scarcity, want, and the arbitrariness of natural calamity. The development of rational forms of social organization and rational modes of thought promised liberation from the irrationalities of myth, religion, superstition, release from the arbitrary use of power as well as from the dark side of our own human natures. Only through such a project could the universal, eternal and the immutable qualities of all of humanity be revealed'. (Harvey, 1990: 12)

These dreams, which believe that human beings could grab their own fate in their hand by developing rationality of human being, by development of science and education, by improving the efficiency of production and freeing human being from the control of nature and dark side of society, are almost all broken.

Firstly, It is obviously that the dream of equality and equity are broken, so is the dream of effectiveness. The gap between the poor and the rich is enlarged tremendously, either inside nations or among nations, 'a new conflict dynamic of social inequalities is emerging'(Beck 2009, 8).The pursuit of effectiveness and efficiency caused the stratification which try to select and rank people into different layers of social status, to move the smarter people to the higher hierarchies of the society. Social equality and equity thus have become impossible dream for those people who are not 'eligible' to higher social statuses.

Secondly, It also caused the globalization which cause more acute competition for power and resources. Because of the pursuit of effectiveness and efficiency, the companies and nations intend to find cheaper natural resources and human resources for their own benefits or interests. If the other nations don't follow this model, they will be sooner or later be conquered or colonized by the modernized power, and became the target of resources and cheap labor. Nowadays, colonization happens in a hidden way called post colonization. Therefore, the modern project with its logic, act as a kind of cancer cells, once it started in the earth, it began to spread quickly to all the other parts of the world. Since 18th century, more and more nations joined this modern project, and almost all the nations are part of the project now. While all the nations aim for more modernized and developed, the quicker consuming of resources and quicker ruin of the environment and human life also happen.

Thirdly, the world is becoming more and more flat (Friedman, 2005). This phenomenon is contradictory with the design of modern project which should lead to the vertical pyramid layers of social settlement. The flat world changed the manufactory and industrial model, and also caused unexpected results which are kind of out of control.

The fragmentation of the world and people's life are also happened. Because the process of modernization reduces the space, time and distance limitation on human life, people tend to have a speedy life, receiving more and more information intensively. Lots of people are lost in different kinds of information and influences. They don't know how to pull together all the things happening to them. The calm and peaceful life is almost impossible for people; there are more fear and unsafe feelings among individuals and communities, and the dream of happiness of people is also broken.

Those are only examples of phenomena of postmodernity, the world is not only the consequences of modernity, but also characterized as cultural status and social condition of postmodernity. The modernity bus is not very safe and someone try to find a better place inside the bus, in the better places to avoid being burned before the exploration. To find better places by competition in this kind of shifting and complicated, changing context is one attitude and approach, which looks successful in the short term, but cannot last long. In the other hand, some people are thinking of jumping out of the bus, trying to find alternative solutions.

Different responses to the postmodern condition and culture exist from education and curriculum sector. This paper will explore two main kinds of "solution" or "approaches" in meeting the challenges from the postmodern condition in curriculum studies field, within which one is for "dying together" approach and another is for "living together". The "dying together" model, which emphasizes rationalism, is from a heritage of modern enlightenment project. It follows the modernist curriculum development tradition, which is driven by the belief on human ration and the logic of

rationalism, emphasizes efficiency, equity and linear development. On the other hand, the "living together" model tries to think the role of curriculum studies as critical and transforming agent in jumping out of the 'bus'.

3 The Curriculum of "Dying together model" in meeting the challenges of postmodernity

The zest for rational curriculum development began from 1910s, influenced by scientific management movement. 'Activities analysis' curriculum development strategy by Bobbit, which tried to sort out the directed activities as the base of school curriculum, aimed at improve the efficiency of school curriculum in a highly controlling rationalized model (Bobbit, 1918). This rational model developed by other scholars, such as Charters (Charters, 1923); and fulfilled by Tyler's Rationale (Tyler, 1949) which "not until the reconceptualization of the 1970s would its status be challenged (Pinar, 1995: 136).

Although the modernist curriculum development paradigm was criticized and challenged over time (Pinar, 1995), its dominant status has been solid in curriculum practice until nowadays. The same modernist model has been used in curriculum practice to meet the complex and complicated situation created by modernity project, aiming at solving the problems and crisis inside the modern framework. Efforts are made in realizing efficiency, equity and linear development to realize the dream of modernity in the context of postmodernity or postmodern conditions through education and curriculum.

Under postmodernity with the dramatic change in economic, cultural, social and political context, this tradition have evolved into neoliberalism, globalization, neocolonialism and new forms of marketization. This phenomenon has been discussed by David smith in the first edition of 'International Handbook of Curriculum Studies', with the analysis of 3 globalization (Smith, 2003: 35-51). Within the 3 globalizations, "Globalization one is the dominant form arising from what can broadly be called the revival of radical liberalism, or neoliberalism, dating back to the administrations of Ronald Reagan and Margaret Thatcher in the 1980s.... It treats education as business with aggressive attempts to commercialize the school environments, emphasizing performance and achievement indicators as a way of cultivating competitiveness...adopting a human capital resource model for education, whereby curriculum and instruction work should be directed at producing workers for the new globalizing market system... " (Smith, 2003: 35-38). To him, this kind of approach in misleading human being into losing sense of home.

Some educators, including educators from government educational administration sector and some scholars and teachers, try to meet these challenges through standardization of curriculum and education, accountability, and improvement of "quality". The most enthusiastic sectors are governments from different countries. Curriculum reform are launched almost by all the countries, with the slogan of 'aiming higher', 'winning the competition', 'rejuvenating the nation' , 'No Child left Behind' and so on.

For example, in UK, White paper' Your child , your schools, our future" has published in 2009, with the aims "We want every single child to succeed...to achieve their full potential and turn 18 with the knowledge, skills and qualifications that will give them the best chance of success in adult life in the 21st century...create a schools system that provides a great start in life for every child in every school; A system that responds to the challenges of a changing global economy, a changing society, rapid technological innovation and a changing planet; A system in which every child can enjoy growing up, and which develops the potential and talents of every child and young person and gives them the broad skills they need for the future..." (Balls, 2009).

In USA, the Obama's educational policy continued Bush's educational policy of No Child left Behind Act. His political speeches and statements continue practices and policies in a neoliberal frame, viewing education as a neoliberal enterprise, with its main focus on education serving economic purposes. "While neoliberal educational thought is promoted enough in tying education to economic security and job skills for students, President Obama also continually built education up as a way to compete against the rest of the world...By defining education as an economic purpose, President Obama narrows education into a neoliberal frame." (Hairston, 2013: 229)

In China, a nation- wide curriculum reform has been launched from 2001, with the aim of "for the happiness of every child, for the rejuvenation of the nation". Although there was an emphasis on quality education for the development of whole person, the hidden discourse was the students only good at academic achievements would not be enough to face the challenge of 21century.

Some international practices and strategies, such as PISA , TIMSS , 21st century competencies, and teaching through ICT, are also examples of this approach.

For example, International Student Assessment (PISA) become more and more popular among different nations. It associated growth in the influence of the OECD's education work. "PISA has become one of the OECD's most

successful 'products' and has both strengthened the role of the Directorate for Education within the organization and enhanced the significance of the organization in education globally" (Sellar & Lingard, 2013).

As to TIMSS (Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study), " National concern over country rank by median score can easily triumph over the issue of educational equity, given that inclusive school philosophy is not usually synonymous with an obsession over educational competition. The zero-sum game of competition forms a basic binary of ability and disability in which certain abilities are valued over others." (Schuelka, 2013: 217).

These approaches might be functional and effective for the short term. But in the long term ,it will cause more and more acute competitions, more unsafe feelings among people, quicker collapse of human values, more serious economic crisis, more environmental damages, more dramatic crisis of human society, and cause more wars... which will lead to "dying together" sooner or later, just as the bus in Xiamen.

Fortunately，the modern curriculum development model, has been challenged over time since 1970 when Schwab sentenced the curriculum field as "moribund" (Schwab, 1970: 1; Pinar, 1995: 193-197). And there are ongoing pursuit of curriculum studies for "Living together" from 1970s.

4   The ongoing pursuit of Curriculum studies for "Living together"

The "living together" model, which has been initiated mainly by curriculum studies sector, has been questioning the modern curriculum development model over time.

The Tyler's Rationale, which regarded as the canon of modernist curriculum development paradigm, is sentenced to be dead by the reconceptualists. "The main concepts today are quite different from those which grew out of an era in which school buildings and populations were growing exponentially, and when keeping the curriculum ordered and organized were the main motives of professional activity. That was a time of curriculum development. Curriculum Development: Born:1918. Died:1969" (Pinar, 1995: 6). Although it is sentenced to be dead by the curriculum workers, this paradigm still prevails among the politicians and some educators, and still be the dominant paradigm in curriculum and educational practices all over the world. Because it emphasizes ration, efficiency and social stratification, is leading more acute competition not only among people in the same groups inside of one nation, but also between nations and nations, and due to a collapse finally.

Curriculum scholars and educators began to rethink what kind of education do we want as human beings, how can we think about all the things happening inside us and outside us, how can we reflect on what are we having and what are we doing not only individually, but also collectively. The efforts of finding alternative approaches have been constant since the reconceptualization movement.

Reconceptualization of Curriculum Studies has been visible in the curriculum studies field in 1970s (Pinar, 1978: 205-214) from conferences and books. By analyzing the scholastic development of curriculum studies from traditionalists to conceptual-empiricists, and to reconceptulaists, Bill Pinar assertted that reconceptulization of curriculum studies is a intellectual pheonomenon, which strive for synthes and perspectives of curriculum that are "at once empirical, interpretative, critical, emancipatory." (Pinar, 1978: 212).

A Postmodern Perspective on Curriculum (Doll, 1993), also pursued curriculum studies for living together. Bill Doll confidently announced that "Today, the curriculum field is no longer moribund. A whole new part of the field has emerged in the decades since Schwab issued his pronouncement, that of curriculum theory" (Doll, 1993: 161). To replace Ralph Tyler's curriculum rationale, he "put forth a number of curriculum concepts based on the new view, principles, problems and methods post-modernism presents" and tried to construct a curriculum matrix to "emphasize the constructive and nonlinear nature of a post-modern curriculum". His curriculum matrix of new 4R, relation, richness, recursive, and rigor, which "bounded and filled with intersecting foci and related webs of meaning" (Doll, 1993: 162), provided richer, more abundant, complicated experiences of education, and tried to bring back the spiritual dimension and humanity of human being and the world, to establish a critical yet supportive community to live together .

"Understanding Curriculum" introduced another paradigm shift after the reconceptualization. As Bill Pinar suggests: "My sense is that the next 'paradigmatic shift' in the field will represent not a shift in scholarly function for the field-as the Reconceptualizatoin of the 1970s represented-but a shift to a more conceptually autonomous, intertextually complex effort to understand curriculum." (Pinar 1995, xvii) To replace the curriculum development paradigm, it brought different perspectives to engage a complicated conversation about the curriculum understanding. Understanding curriculum as political text, as racial text, as gender text, as phenomenological text, as poststructualist text, as postmodern text, and as autobiographical text etc., bringing plenty of different voices together, and

empowering them to compose a concert in understanding curriculum paradigm for curriculum scholars, teachers and students we are faced with.

In Curriculum visions (Doll & Gough, 2002), Gough pointed out "if curriculum visions are to be generative—that is, if we are to be in a position to negotiate vision of curriculum futures worth working for—we must accept that we stand at the centre of our own histories and fields of visualisation as responsible, engaged, embodied actors." (Doll & Gough, 2002: 5) The authors opened up lots of new possibilities of rethinking the role of curriculum studies, the conditions of human being in the world, and futures we can envisage from alternative understanding and visions. Curriculum visions explored from the ecological understanding, from the awareness of death and crisis, from complexity Science, from the ghost of John Dewey, from the globalization, from commercialization, from the strangers…are all presented, leading to a broader conversation and open the possibilities in creating more curriculum visions.

Other scholars, such as Nel Noddings, tried to build up a new system and framework based on feminist way of thinking about how the human should be, how should they develop, and how should they live together and create their own future through curriculum practice according to the logic of caring instead of competition. By redefining caring as "an ethic of care embodies a relational view of caring…emphasizing on the relation containing carer and cared-for" (Noddings, 1992: xv), she built up a scheme of what an education of caring mean, the scheme consisting of care for self, care for intimate others, care for associates and distant others, for nonhuman life, for the human-made environment of objects and instruments, and for ideas…she also argued how to implement this education of caring in details.

In Expanding Curriculum Theory, the authors tried to address the crucial questions in curriculum field: "Why is the curriculum still so parochial? And What does it mean to have movements in schools to "restore" curriculum? Do we even know what it looked like before？....Why go backward when we can go forward? Why shut down creativity and inventiveness when we can open up "lines of flight?" (Reynolds & Webber, 2004: 204). By using alternative methodologies such as textual analysis, discourse theory, hermeneutics, futurism, and poststructuralism combining with perspectives of race, class, gender and sexual orientation, the authors found their own positions and standpoints to start their curreres in curriculum studies, tried to give different understanding to education and the futures of human being, to make us think more about what we are doing, what we can do and what we are confronted in this world. For example, in chapter "Wondering About a Future Generation: Identity Disposition Disposal, Recycling and Creation in the 21st Century" (Livingston, 2004: 35-42), Don Livingston raised critical questions about identities question of future human being because of the technological development, in the context of fragmented dividuals, what kind of curriculum should be suitable to deal with the challenges for living together?

To answer the problems caused by globalization he proposed in the first edition of "International handbook of curriculum research", David Smith, who awares "the social and cultural implications of the failures of neoliberalism and neoconservatism have yet to be worked out, and currently a global vacuum in both philosophy and politics is emerging from the exhaustion, even death, of this former 'order…' " (Smith, in press, 45) He argued the necessity for careful deconstruction of the philosophical principles guiding the neoliberal and neoconservative globalization agenda along with an opening of ancient global wisdom traditions for their insight on what it means to live "well" together on the earth as our planetary home (Smith, in press, 48). Global ancient wisdom traditions such as Buddhism, Taoism, Indigenous knowledge, Sufism, sapiential biblical literature, etc, are all suggested to rendered to revise the practices of education in today's secular, materialist, and technocratic environment, in order to find sustainable human futures.

These exemplars indicate that there is already a long tradition in the field of curriculum studies to try to build up different ways of "living together" through critics and reflections of status quo. These efforts are very powerful positions making advocates and voices to meet the challenges in the terrible world and curriculum circumstances. Curriculum studies field is becoming more and more important not only among the education field, but also among the social studies and humanities.

5 Discussion: The role of Curriculum studies reconsidered for furthering "living together" efforts

Although there are already so many efforts in curriculum studies in pursuing "living together", most of them are theoretic and intellectual analysis. The intellectual analysis are very important in changing the landscape of the field and the discourse of curriculum practice, but the role of curriculum studies could be broaden to meet the challenges and to deal with the crisis.

As Alicia de Alba pointed out, "One of the most serious problem confronting us at present in the area of the curriculum is the lack of social-political projects that would allow us to (re)constitute the curriculum-society link and to constitute subjects of the processes of curricular over determination…The current lack of new utopian horizons and projects operates against this,…posing the key question for curriculum under postmodern conditions: How do we constitute the curriculum society link in societies that are in crisis and the lack any wide and ambitious social-political projects?"(Alba et al., 2000: 150)

"Curriculum studies for living together" should be one of these social-political projects with not only more intellectual studies, but also more practical involvement in transforming the educational and curriculum policies of the government, school and classroom teaching, and teachers. The relationship between one person and the others, with the world and within oneself should be rebuilt through the reshaping of curriculum and learning in schools (Sato,2003).

First, the role of curriculum studies could be changed from theoretic researcher and analysis into active participants through Involvements into schools and classroom teaching change, based on the ideas of all the children learn and live together. For example, Manabu Sato made great efforts in involving curriculum transformation through his writing and practice. He visited around 2000shools and studied 10000 of classes and tried to transform the schools into learning communities, in order to attain a social community of living together (Sato, 2012: 140).

Second, involvements into the teacher education and training in varied levels are also powerful in making change. Teacher's curriculum awareness and capacity of transforming the class could be raised during the training course provided by curriculum scholars through initiative teacher education and in-service training. This kind of involvements has been a long tradition in our field and should be strengthened from the social-political transformation standpoints.

Third, participations in government policy making process are also important in influencing the policies and practices launched by governments in different levels. For example, Prof. Zhong Qiquan acted as the chief expert in designing the national curriculum reform outline, and lot of Chinese curriculum scholars have been involved in the process of research and design for that reform. Integrating our own intellectual voices into the policy and then influencing the curriculum practice is powerful in attaining our goal of 'living together'.

But these are too broad project, we can try to find out the weakness and problems in modern curriculum model and try to break them in varied ways.

More approaches from our own reflection and based on our own unique autobiographical experiences are to be explored to further the efforts of 'living together'. For example, in the modern way of thinking, the reason and subjectivity are always built upon the strong part of human being. Unconsciousness and sensitivity are regarded as bad and should be hidden or suppressed. In the modern paradigm, it was emphasized to educate people for developing their strong and reasonable part, for forgetting their fear, desire and unhappy feeling. In fact, the problems of postmodernity are often originated from the unconsciousness and weak part of human beings. How can curriculum studies deal more about the weakness or vulnerable part of human being in schools? How can curriculum studies help school practice in emphasizing more on spiritual level of students? The autobiographical method is powerful and influential in curriculum scholars and teachers level, how can we further it into students' level and in the classroom?

There are lots of things we can think about and lots of things we can do in the postmodern condition full of crisis although it's difficult and even impossible to find out a single solution. The project of 'living together' is an ongoing topic for us to think about, to put our efforts on, and to change the curriculum practice. Once we began our curriculum in these transformations, we are changing our roles in curriculum studies over and over.

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Curriculum regulation in Scotland: A wolf in sheep's clothing is still a wolf

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Abstract

Following political devolution in 1999, Scotland's already distinctive education system has diverged further from the rest of the United Kingdom. A major trend has been a weakening of input regulation of the school curriculum. Scotland's recently developed Curriculum for Excellence (CfE) has been predicated upon notions of curricular flexibility, local autonomy and school-based curriculum development. Ostensibly Scotland has entered a new era of curricular autonomy for schools and teachers. However, while Scotland has escaped some of the worst excesses of England's marketised approaches to regulating outputs, the new curriculum has been accompanied by high levels of output regulation – most notably the recourse to external inspections and the use of attainment data to judge of the effectiveness of schools – which reduce school autonomy. Although there have been recent attempts to soften this approach in line with the spirit of CfE, it is evident that such methods for accountability exert an effect on schools, contributing to cultures of performativity, creating perverse incentives and potentially distorting educational decision making in schools. In this paper, I examine the balance between input and output regulation, considering how the current balance in Scotland impacts upon teacher agency, and especially the capacity of teachers to undertake school-based curriculum development.

Key words: curriculum; input regulation; output regulation; Scotland

Introduction

The recent history of Scotland's curriculum provides a fairly typical illustration of worldwide trends; at least across the Anglophone world (see Sinnema & Aitken, 2013), there has been a shifting balance between curriculum freedom and regulation. Scotland, in common with these other countries, moved towards a higher degree of prescription in content in the late 1980s and early 1990s. Its 5-14 curriculum framework specified content, articulated as multiple outcomes arranged into hierarchical levels. In more recent years, Scotland has experienced a pendulum swing towards less prescription and more autonomy for schools to make the curriculum. Scotland's Curriculum for Excellence (CfE), first introduced in 2004, articulated a renewed vision of teachers as developers of curriculum at a school level. CfE thus seems to exemplify trends noted across curricular jurisdictions by Nieveen and Kuiper (2012), being an apparent move from more extreme versions of prescription to greater degrees of freedom for schools to develop the curriculum, and predicated upon notions of curricular flexibility, local autonomy and school-based curriculum development.

However, this is not the whole story. There are legitimate questions about whether this putative curricular deregulation is genuine, or whether, it is illusory and rhetorical – whether this new apparently softer form of curriculum is merely a wolf in sheep's clothing. The extent to which this is the case lies in the balance between the levels of prescription imposed on schools in terms of curricular content, etc., and the ways in which their outcomes are measured and evaluated. Following Nieveen and Kuiper (2012), I shall refer to these respectively as <u>input regulation</u> and <u>output regulation</u>. Scotland has escaped some of the worst excesses of England's marketised approaches to regulating outputs; however, the new curriculum has been accompanied by high levels of output regulation – most notably the recourse to external inspections and the use of attainment data to judge of the effectiveness of schools.

In this paper, I examine the balance between input and output regulation in Scotland, considering how the current balance in Scotland impacts upon teacher agency, and especially the capacity of teachers to undertake school-based

curriculum development. In doing so, I draw upon a recent comparison of curriculum regulation in England and Scotland (Leat, Livingston & Priestley, 2013).

Figure 1: The balance between input and output regulation

Strong output regulation

Centralisation

Strong input regulation ←——————→ Weak input regulation

Decentralization

Weak output regulation
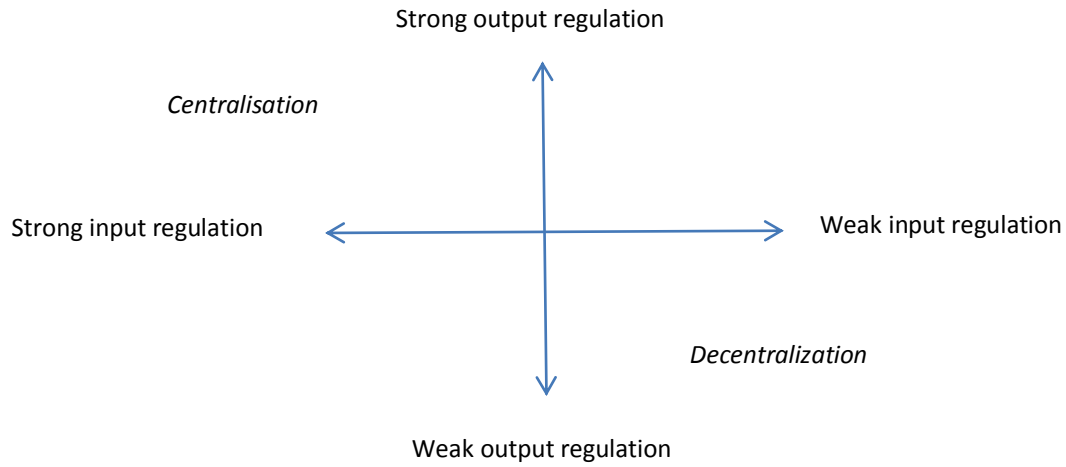
(source: Leat, Livingston & Priestley, 2013)

This paper extends the centralised/decentralised continuum proposed by Nieveen and Kuiper (2012), providing an analysis framed as a quadrant rather than as a linear continuum (figure 1, above). Additionally, as I am primarily concerned with the <u>effects</u> of regulatory systems on the autonomy granted to teachers making the curriculum, I employ an <u>ecological</u> understanding of teacher agency (for a fuller account of this approach, see: Priestley, Biesta and Robinson, 2013). This approach, depicted in figure 2 (below), construes agency as an emergent phenomenon, combining the personal capacity of teachers to act (for example in developing the curriculum) with the context (social and material) by means of which they act. In this view, agency is something that people achieve rather than something that resides within them; it thus varies from place to place and over time. This approach allows us to make judgements about the ways in which regulatory frameworks shape the achievement of agency by teachers as they develop the curriculum. The most obvious area for analysis here lies in the practical-evaluative dimension of agency. Regulatory frameworks, relating to both inputs and outputs, concern the cultural system (in relation to ideas, dispositions and values that shape agency) as well as the structural realm (for example, in relation to coercive power structures and relational resources). These aspects are practical, in terms of how social structures and cultural forms constitute the social conditions that render different forms of agency possible. They are also evaluative, insofar as teachers will form judgments (for example evaluations of risk) as they enact the curriculum.

Figure 2: The ecological approach to teacher agency
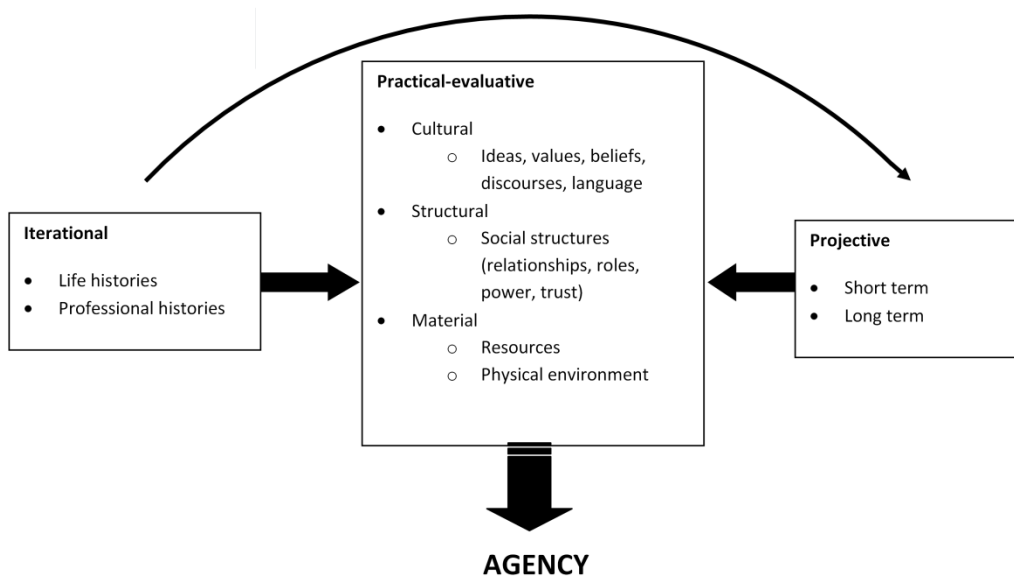
(source: Priestley, Biesta & Robinson, 2013)

There are further issues to consider in respect of how teachers achieve agency as they enact the curriculum. We must bear in mind that yesterday's practical-evaluative dimension constitute today's iterational dimension; the social conditions of schools in the past have helped to form teachers' expectations about what is possible and desirable in the present. In other words, past patterns of curriculum regulation continue to exert influence on teacher agency today, through shaping teacher judgements and aspirations. Therefore, to offer a full analysis of how different forms of curriculum regulation impact upon the achievement of agency by teachers, we would also need to consider the iterational dimension (how life and professional histories shape agency today) and the projective dimension (for example, how aspirations about future possibilities for curriculum-making are both enhanced and narrowed by past experiences of professional working). These are empirical issues that are beyond the scope of this short paper. However, there is one pertinent implication (for this paper); we should also consider how the working environment of today (including the balance between input and output regulation) might shape agency in the future – a key question if we wish to develop the capacity of teachers to become professional developers of the curriculum.

Curriculum regulation in Scotland

Input regulation

Macro-level Curriculum for Excellence policy suggests a desire to move away from a top-down prescriptive curriculum for teachers to deliver. Instead teachers are expected to take an active role in school-based curriculum development.

> Within a clear framework of national expectations, teachers will have greater scope and space for professional decisions about what and how they should teach, enabling them to plan creatively within broader parameters. (Scottish Executive Education Department, 2006, p.1)

Subsequent policy documents have echoed this message (e.g. the 'Building the Curriculum' series), emphasising the commitment and quality of teachers in Scotland.

However, this apparent shift to reduced input regulation at the level of national policy should be viewed sceptically in relation to schools' enactment of CfE. While the policy itself might be seen to reduce input regulation, there are various structural features of Scottish education that potentially act against this reduction. The role of the national agency Education Scotland, which continues to produce reams of policy-related guidance, is one such feature. Such guidance helps to frame the discourses around CfE, at least in part shaping the ways in which schools respond to policy. In particular, it provides the technical language subsequently used by teachers as they enact the curriculum in their schools (Priestley, Biesta & Robinson, 2013). Arguably, local authorities exert even greater effects on schools in terms on input regulation. Their governance function is partly carried out through input regulation and partly through output regulation. In the case of the former, there is considerable variation between authorities; however, it is possible to make several general observations here. Scottish schooling is extremely hierarchical; local authorities play an important role in mediating national policy, and such mediation can be significant in shaping curriculum making practices in schools. Many local authorities produce mandatory teaching materials and operate relatively high levels of prescription in terms of teaching methodologies. Therefore, while it is fair to describe the macro-level Curriculum for Excellence policy as being weak in terms of input regulation, we should acknowledge the potential for high levels of input regulation, through the local and national structures which frame the work of schools.

Output regulation

Scotland operates forms of external accountability that are characteristic of the first two dimensions of Wilkins's (2011) performativity typology, namely external inspections and the use of attainment data to evaluate schools. Since 1997, the Quality Improvement Initiative has established an accountability system, shown to have similar effects to its English counterpart (see Cowie, Croxford & Taylor, 2007). A strong attainment agenda has developed in schools, driven by statistical use of data derived from external examination results (primarily the 'gold standard' Higher qualification) and national testing (5-14). The former statistics generate what are known as Standard Tables and Charts (STACS), which are used extensively in secondary schools to manage teachers, enabling, for example, subject departments to be compared with each other, and the performance of schools and departments to be set against equivalent schools on comparator league tables (Ibid.). League tables do not 'officially' exist in Scotland; national

tables are not compiled by the Scottish Government, although comparator tables are used within local authorities, and national newspapers compile their own unofficial tables annually. Empirical evidence suggests that these 'unofficial' league tables are taken seriously in schools, affecting teachers' agency in curriculum-making (Priestley *et al.*, 2011). In many local authorities, similar use has been made in primary schools of data pertaining to pupils' attainment of the curricular levels of the former 5-14 curriculum. These data have allowed schools to be compared according to attainment levels, associated in many cases with performativity practices (see Priestley, Robinson & Biesta, 2012). There is a continued emphasis on accountability practices in Scotland, despite the relaxation of input regulation associated with CfE. A new benchmarking tool is currently under development. This is said to be more in tune with the spirit of CfE. However, it remains to be seen whether its effects will be different from practices documented within existing accountability systems.

Inspections by Her Majesty's Inspectorate of education (HMIe) form a second part of this system of output regulation. Inspections are framed around a set of performance indicators known as *How good is our school?* (HGIOS[)] (HMIe, 2002). Following the advent of Curriculum for Excellence, HGIOS was revamped in 2006-7, signalling a supposed shift from a hard to a softer managerialism. However, according to Reeves (2008, p.13), revisions to HGIOS are 'cosmetic, since the basic instruments and methodology remain the same'. The inspection model has been further developed subsequently, placing greater emphasis on self-evaluation. However, given that the aim of inspections is to provide public assurance and accountability, they continue to be high stakes events for schools, and constitute a key component of strong output regulation.

A third aspect of output regulation lies in the quality improvements systems operated by local authorities. A shift in emphasis in many local authorities from a supportive advisory role to a quality improvement role, characterised by audits mirroring the external inspection process, has been documented by several writers (e.g. Cowie, Croxford & Taylor 2007). The potentially detrimental effects of the role of these local bureaucracies maintaining central control was noted by an OECD report (2007).

Analysis: curriculum regulation and teacher agency

In summary, there is relatively weak input regulation at a macro-level in Scotland, as Curriculum for Excellence opens up considerable space for school autonomy. However, as noted, levels of input regulation at a meso-level vary from authority to authority. Moreover, Scotland retains a relatively hard managerialism (Reeves, 2008) through high levels of output regulation. The rhetoric of teacher and school autonomy is therefore not easily realisable in practice. However, Scotland still compares favourably in this respect with England (for a fuller analysis of the situation in England, see: Leat, Livingston and Priestley, 2013). English local authority schools are subject to both high levels of input regulation through the National Curriculum and extensive output regulation. Academies and Free Schools, despite their much vaunted exemption from the demands of the National Curriculum, are still subject to the high levels of output regulation, and potentially the content of the curriculum in such schools may be subject to capricious control by stakeholders other than the teachers in the schools (see figure 3).

Figure 3: The balance between input and output regulation in England and Scotland
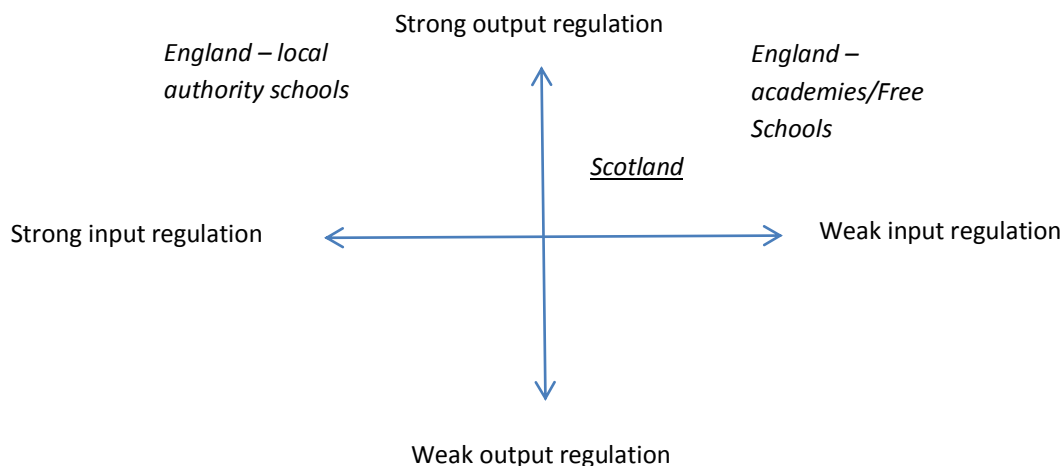
(source: Leat, Livingston & Priestley, 2013)

I conclude this paper with a brief analysis of the effects of curriculum regulation on teacher agency. While space precludes a deep analysis, I offer here a few reflections on how such regulation might be detrimental to teacher agency, and how in turn this might undermine professionalism – surely an issue at a time when curriculum policy emphasises school autonomy and positions teachers as agents of change. The following points draw upon the ecological conception of agency, as something that emerges from the transactions that individuals – with their particular talents, aspirations, values and knowledge – have within their environment.

First, teacher professionalism often tends to be seen as matter of enhancing individual capacity – for example, knowledge, skills and professional ethics – which tends to sideline the structural and cultural context in which the professions develop (Priestley, Biesta & Robinson, 2013). Output regulation comprises both a set of social structures (systems, power relations, roles, etc.) as well as cultural expectations. These social conditions shape what is possible in schools. This is both a practical issue (what is actually possible) and an evaluative issue (how professionals judge aspects such as risk). Thus output regulation potentially impacts radically on the possibilities for agency (by enabling or precluding particular practices), and has, at the same time, undermined professionals' ability to take responsibility for their work, and to act on the basis of informed and negotiated professional judgement.

The above observations apply to the practical-evaluative dimension of the ecological agency model. A related set of reflections concerns the projective and iterational dimensions of agency. Empirical research conducted in Scotland (Priestley, Biesta & Robinson, 2013), suggests that the undermining of teacher agency in a practical-evaluative sense (for example removing the need for, or distorting judgement) potentially has long term effects in terms of teachers' abilities to form expansive aspirations for their teaching. The teachers in this research were relatively unable to articulate long-term aspirations for their teaching, being focused instead on short-term goals such as engaging pupils, maintaining technical efficiency in their teaching, or even just getting through the day. Linked to this, the research found that these teachers tended to articulate their teaching in the language of policy, and seemed to lack an educational language with which they could critically interrogate policy. These issues were at least in part due to their past immersion in the performative cultures of their schools. It is worth noting here that such cultures in today's schools will shape the capacity of teachers in the future, potentially impacting heavily on future teacher agency and professionalism. It is worth noting that this research also unearthed variable degrees of teacher agency that related directly to the environment within which practitioners worked. For instance in a school with well-developed relational structures – where teachers had extensive relational resources upon which they could draw – researchers found enhanced levels of teacher agency.

In Scotland, Curriculum for Excellence, despite its teething troubles and despite the tensions with output regulation, offers considerable potential for teacher agency. However, as this analysis demonstrates, such agency needs to be nurtured. This may be partly achieved by raising the capacity of teachers to engage in school-based curriculum development. This would include access to new thinking, new pedagogies and research findings. But it also requires attention to the structural conditions within which teachers work (for example the active development of spaces for dialogue and channels for communication) and the cultures of teaching (for example collegial attitudes and openness to new ideas). Without these, the expectation that teachers will become agentic in their work will remain unrealised.

Acknowledgement

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Curriculum regulation in England – giving with one hand and taking away with the other

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Abstract: England has had a National Curriculum since 1988. Its first manifestation was highly prescriptive and there have been a number of reviews which have gradually reduced the degree of content specification. The recent political rhetoric has been about giving schools and teachers freedom to innovate. Indeed new categories of schools – 'academies' and 'free schools' – do not have to follow the National Curriculum at all. However while input regulation has been decreasing, output regulation has been increasing, so that schools in England are increasingly saturated by a performativity culture related to examination targets and school inspection frameworks. The paper will argue that a strong reason for this trend is the political desire to commodify education so that schools are subject to the market forces, which is only really practicable when educational outcomes remain are relatively visible and readily quantified. The resultant dominant discourse in schools has similar effects as in Scotland on individual teachers and schools, reducing teacher agency and introverting curriculum making processes with secondary schools in particular rarely looking outwards for stimulus or resources. The conclusion will offer some discussion of regional efforts in North England to construct networks and an alternative discourse/ecology to encourage more responsive curriculum processes.

Key words: Input regulation, output regulation, performativity, marketization, curriculum innovation networks

Introduction

England first introduced a National Curriculum in 1988. The barrage of early objections was focused on the highly detailed specification of content, termed programmes of study, for each subject. It was also criticised by academic writers because of its uncritical stance over questions of subject content and epistemology, representing outdated versions of subject matter and its lack of coherence (see, for example: Kelly, 1990). Since then there has been a general trend towards less prescription, with reviews of the National Curriculum leading to a reduction of content in 1995, 1999 and 2008. Indeed the current coalition government (Conservatives and Liberal Democrats) now argue that they are giving schools far greater freedom as new categories of school (academies and free schools), which already account for over 50% of secondary schools, do not even have to follow the National Curriculum. Why then, if the current government is giving greater curricular freedom, do teachers feel more than ever, that they are under close scrutiny and intense pressure?

New measures of control through output regulation and surveillance

The simple answer as to the continued experience of pressure is that while the government has been reducing control of curriculum content, or input regulation, it has been increasing output regulation, via public examination targets, particularly at ages 11 and 16. Although there is a traditional Conservative party philosophy which favours freedom, it has lost out to a neo-liberal free market philosophy, which believes that competition can improve educational

outcomes. To make such a philosophy operational there must be information for educational consumers (parents) to make market choices about which schools to send their children to. The chosen metric is examination results, particularly in English and mathematics. This is a very simple measure but successive governments have been unwilling to move away from performance in timed examinations. The objectification of educational outcomes has been accompanied by the proliferation of league tables. Most recently, the Secretary of State for Education has largely eliminated course or project work for inclusion in examination assessment. This approach is allied to a wider doctrine of 'new public management' which has been embraced by all governments in the last 25 years, which has seen public services increasingly managed through the setting of numerical targets. In education, performance in examination is repeatedly referred to as *standards*, and all parties talk of 'driving up standards'. There is a very particular discourse surrounding this commodification of education – and words such as standards, targets, progress, predicted grades, underperforming, monitoring, intervention and Ofsted have come to dominate agendas, policies, conversations and meetings. Ball (2003) adapted the term 'performativity' from Lyotard (1984) and more recently Ball *et al.* (2012, p.514) have explained the term 'performance culture' as follows:

> As a policy, *standards* 'works' through a very simple but effective and very public technology of performance – made up of league tables, national averages, comparative and progress indicators, Ofsted (Office for Standards in Education) assessments and benchmarks. These together are intended to instil into schools what is called a 'performance culture'.

Because of this performance culture, it is argued that teachers in England are the most accountable in the world. There is a specific accountability for pupil performance in public examinations, which is periodically increased. For example in 2012, primary schools were expected to get 60% of their pupils to the 'expected level' in English and mathematics at age 11. In 2014 this will be raised to 65%. If schools consistently fail, regardless of the social background of pupils, they will be forced to become 'academies', a significant change of governance. In secondary schools, in 2012, a basic target was that 40% of students should gain 5 GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education) passes (including English and mathematics) at Grade C or above (the grades run from A*, A, B etc. through to G). In the face of previous targets (which did not include English and mathematics) many schools developed ingenious means for reaching targets, including searching for the exam boards and subjects that seemed to have the best pass rates and using particular vocational courses which provided four GCSE passes. Grades in all GCSE subjects are predicted from pupil scores in tests at age 11 and it is common for pupils to have a test in most subjects every six weeks, from age 11, to see if they are maintaining progress. If pupils' grades are seen to be dropping, some form of support or intervention is likely to be implemented.

Schools are periodically inspected by Ofsted. There is strong pressure for observed lessons to be graded as *Good* or *Outstanding*. There are very significant rewards for schools if they are judged outstanding in all categories of inspection, including going onto a longer cycle of re-inspection. The criteria for *Outstanding* lessons are used for internal school monitoring and often for departmental and individual teacher self-evaluation. Foucault's (1977) writings on disciplining, surveillance and the development of the technology of the self might indeed have been inspired by the English education system. This is high stakes accountability, as teachers whose students do not meet targets or whose lessons only reach satisfactory grades are likely to be given *support,* which can ultimately lead to dismissal if improvement is not forthcoming. Output regulation is thus an effective, albeit contentious, means of curriculum control in England.

Unintended consequences

In such circumstances, the new 'managers' of schools strive to meet their targets and move up the league tables. Increasingly they 'game' the system, expending much energy on focused efforts to improve the key performance indicators and occasionally going so far as cheating in the conduct of public examinations. Certainly there is an epidemic of 'teaching to the test' and considerable narrowing of the curriculum, which has been well documented in the independent Cambridge Primary Review (Alexander et al., 2009). Such approach to public services has been part of an assault on professionals who are seen to want to preserve 'selfish' producer interests.

There are considerable signs of teacher stress. A recent teacher union survey indicated that more than half of teachers described their morale as low or very low. More than 75% of those polled thought that the current government will have a negative effect on education. As the union president explained, teachers don't feel trusted and that government interferes too much. Newly qualified teachers from our own institution are indicating that they

are frightened as they go into their first jobs, as they fear that they will not meet the examination targets for their 16 year old pupils in their GCSEs.

In a recent round of interviews, one Modern Foreign Languages teacher told us:

> I often feel I am merely teaching to an exam, and there is no time, means or energy left for innovative teaching that engages students in a way other than is assessment-driven.

For many teachers this is experienced as anxiety-inducing pressure, which pervades the school culture. As one primary teacher interviewee in Webb *et al.* (2009, p.417) expressed it:

> The head is under pressure to perform, she puts pressure on us, we put pressure on the children and then everyone is just under immense pressure and stress.

However as this extract indicates, teachers are not alone in internalising expectations of performance, it is also evident in students, many of whom become very instrumental in their approach to education, as shown by this 15 year old pupil who exhibits no desire to continue with a more enquiry based approach to the curriculum:

> We're still all in the middle of our GCSEs and we just want you to give us the right answers so we can learn it and I think that's what is stressful for a lot of people. We just want the correct answers so we can go and learn them instead of having to go and find it. (Leat, Thomas & Reid, 2012, p.408)

A Geography teacher, working in a very high achieving secondary school described how even at Year 7 (11 years old) she had actively to encourage many students to "go beyond the basic requirements", reporting a typical response of "I've found this out now, is that it, am I going to get a good grade?". She was not convinced that their subsequent years at school changed this, suggesting that many sixth formers "just want to pass exams and go to uni", and as such did not like questions posed which required them to apply rather than "regurgitate" knowledge. This cultural expectation was perhaps reinforced by her line managers' level of permission for her use of enquiry-based learning (EBL). This teacher stated that although EBL seemed to be supported it was only permissible if it "did not impede the end of unit test" (even at Year 7), as these tests were used to determine target grades and these grades determined ability sets for teaching, and these sets determined GCSE options.

Finding compromises and holes to work in

So schools and teachers find themselves in a confusing situation – between a rock and a hard place. On one hand there is increasing curriculum freedom and rhetorical permission to experiment. On the other they are under intense pressure to meet targets. They are trying to sustain a non-dominant activity in the face of a dominant activity (Sannino, 2008). Many, of course, take the line of least resistance and conform to daily school expectation of performativity. Others are driven by a set of values which privileges student curiosity, autonomy, creativity and inter-dependence and they want to offer a more divergent pedagogy. They find ways to deal with these conflicts. Some schools reserve parts of the year for enquiry approaches, others give it prominence until exam pressures demand a different approach, and individual teachers develop novel solutions. In one school if students are meeting targets, then they adopt more divergent approaches.

One teacher described her approach as *mish-mashing*. She wanted to get a good grade from a lesson observation to tick the '16 boxes to get outstanding'. So there were objectives on the board and pupils were assessing their own progress and she determined what they were doing, but she set a relatively open task, gave them as much responsibility as possible to work collaborative groups and assign their own roles. This is how she currently manages what she describes as her internal conflict.

Conclusion: Building a Dialogic Web

Since 2009 the author and colleagues, building on previous projects focused on thinking skills , metacognition (Leat & Lin, 2006) and learning to learn (Wall et al., 2010) have been supporting teachers and schools in developing elements of enquiry or project based curriculum (EBC). Such approaches have diverse roots which include Philosophy for Children (Lipman et al., 1980) Mantle of the Expert (a drama based enquiry model), subject based enquiry (as in science or geography) and project based learning models developed at High Tech High in San Diego, California. Our general goal is to encourage schools to embed their innovation as a sustained curriculum manifestation. This is in line with an ecological understanding of teacher agency (Biesta & Tedder, 2007, Priestley et al., 2012). We can evidence our commitment through activities such as:

- Publication of the 10 issue a year Learning and Teaching Update featuring many EBL articles;
- Conferences on EBC in 2012 and 2013;
- An email list distributing EBL contacts, news and resources (e.g. updates on research funding, a Royal Society of the Arts publication on Area Based Curriculum);
- A Post Graduate Certificate in Innovative Pedagogy and Curriculum featuring EBL;
- A pilot project to explore how Skype mediators (grannies) can support EBL;
- A pilot project exploring the use of Self Organised Learning Environments for student enquiry;
- Supporting other university outreach personnel to adopt EBL approaches and aim for sustained curriculum change (the approach now adopted by the university's *Dove Marine Laboratory)*;
- Working in partnership with local archive and museum service in support of their development of a student-led enquiry based approach in schools' use of local galleries and archives;
- A publication of short accounts of EBL exemplars from schools and enrichment providers;
- Working with Schools North East, the local headteachers' organization to harmonise our respective innovations in terms of local curriculum making;
- Recruiting schools to funded research projects with a focus on community curriculum making.

The long term purpose in this activity is to build a dialogic web. In such an entity some schools and teachers, at least, will hear an alternative curriculum discourse. They will hear voices describing, explaining and justifying a curriculum which is derived, in part from students' questions, interests and curiosity and which taps into the community's funds of knowledge, as a counterweight to the dominant curriculum discourse. In dialogic theory the internalization of those voices, even when they are competing and the very existence of *multi-voicedness* is vital for creativity, identity development and healthy social functioning (Sidorkin, 1999).

Such a conceptualization has interesting overlaps with Hodgson and Spours (2013) argument for the significance of local eco-systems which offer meaningful progression for young people in relation to employment and training. The next steps in the region are to build a stronger coalition with employers' organizations and to secure wider awareness within the university of the potential benefits of EBC to *widening participation*. English universities now have targets to reach in relation to the % of students recruited and retained from poorer backgrounds and there are encouraging signs that EBL does foster positive learner identities. We have a number of valuable allies who understand the transition from EBL to understanding a research paradigm, but much remains to be done. What will be intriguing is how the advocates of EBC manage the role of subjects, given the strong advocacy for powerful subject knowledge and disciplinarity (Young & Muller, 2010).

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Curriculum regulation and freedom in the Netherlands: A balancing act

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Summary

The extent to which the goals and contents of compulsory education should to be regulated has been a complicated balancing act in the Netherlands. Against a background of a longstanding statutory tradition of freedom of education, governmental decisions about 'what knowledge is of most worth' have been delicate. The purpose of the analysis in this contribution is to disentangle, interpret and discuss this complicated balancing act between curriculum regulation and curriculum deregulation during the past 40 years and to put the results into a wider European curriculum policy perspective. Curriculum regulation means the prescription of directives at input level (goals and contents) and output level (assessment). Curriculum deregulation reflects a refraining from prescription and control by stimulating school-based decision-making. The contribution also discusses the recent Dutch policy shift towards output regulation by means of mandatory achievement tests for mathematics, mother tongue and English at the end of lower secondary education.

Key words: curriculum; curriculum (de)regulation, curriculum steering model, the Netherlands

Introduction

Against the background of a long-standing statutory tradition of freedom of education in the Netherlands, governmental decisions about 'what knowledge is of most worth' have been delicate. In this article an attempt is made to disentangle, interpret and discuss this complicated balancing act between curriculum regulation and curriculum freedom in the Netherlands. In order to do so, a curriculum steering model will be described that has been used when analysing Dutch curriculum policies during the past 40 years. Using this analysis framework, three major episodes will be described and analysed in more detail. The contribution will conclude with a summary and discussion of the main findings.

Curriculum steering model

The curriculum steering model that will be proposed in this contribution starts from the notion of Curriculum (de)regulation. *Curriculum (de)regulation* may pertain to the curriculum as a document and/or to the process of curriculum implementation. A curriculum as a document, in particular a curriculum framework at the national level, usually includes descriptions of goals and contents of education and more occasionally elaborations of other curricular components (see the curriculum spider's web metaphor below). When defining the term 'goal' at least three issues need to be taken into account. First of all, a distinction can be made between two types of goals (see also Carlgren, 2006): goals to strive for, expressing qualities of knowledge and skills to be developed by teaching and learning processes, and goals to attain, expressing what students should know and be able to do after a certain period of schooling. Second, goals and contents make up a kind of a dyad, as, by definition, goals not only reflect knowledge and

skills/competences but also the contents to be taught ('to strive for') or to be mastered ('to attain'). And, finally, within the context of this contribution, the concept 'knowledge' should be taken broadly (Bransford et al, 2000; Van Streun, 2001). It may pertain to knowing of (facts, concepts), knowing how (knowledge exercised in the performance of some task), knowing why (principles, abstractions, overview), and knowing about knowing (metacognitive skills).

'Curriculum regulation' reflects a government's intention to prescribe the high-fidelity implementation of directives at the input level (goals and contents, in terms of 'goals to attain') and at the output level (modes of assessments and examinations). Those prescriptions imply that the room for site-specific curricular choices is restricted. On the other hand, 'curriculum deregulation' reflects a government's intention to refrain from prescription and control at the input and output level by stimulating school-based decision-making. At the heart of curriculum deregulation is the focus on and trust in schools and teachers having the professional freedom to make site-specific interpretations of curriculum guidelines and to lead curriculum renewal (see Hopkins 2005). Curriculum regulation and curriculum deregulation are the two extremes of a continuum, with a variety of modes of curriculum (de)regulation in between.

The focus of this contribution is an analysis of curriculum policy in the Netherlands. For a proper understanding of the analysis presented here it is important to realise that, contrary to a country like France, in the Netherlands there has been hardly any input and/or output regulation at the national level regarding the goals and contents for primary and secondary education. This curriculum policy tradition has existed for about four hundred years (Van Damme, 2011), with the examination system at the end of upper secondary education (originating from the middle of the nineteenth century) as a striking exception. So, restraint in regulation regarding curriculum issues is deeply rooted in Dutch society. The same is true for school autonomy, formally dating back to a constitution legislated in 1848. Part of this constitution is a prominent article declaring the so-called 'freedom of education', pertaining to the freedom to found schools, the freedom of school policies, and the freedom of school organisation. This principle of freedom of education provides schools with ample room for site-specific curricular choices.

Three episodes

The purpose of the analysis described in this contribution is to disentangle, interpret and discuss the complicated balancing act (at mainly the macro level) between input and output regulation concerning the goals and contents of (compulsory) education and the statutory freedom of education during the past 40 years. In the next three sections, the three episodes of the past 40 years of Dutch curriculum policies will be described.

Episode 1: Slight swing towards input regulation (1970-2000)

During the 1970s and 1980s, the Government pursued a 'constructive' education policy, featuring central steering of large-scale innovations. From 1980, the Inspectorate of Education started formulating observation criteria to make objective judgements of the quality of the education process possible. In order to support schools, an extensive school support system was created, including national institutes for educational measurement (CITO) and curriculum development (SLO). The task of SLO was to design and develop exemplary, non-prescriptive 'models for' curricula at various levels. The phrasing 'models for' was crucial, as – because of the constitutional freedom of education – any appearance of centralised curriculum policy had to be avoided.

Although there was no statutory programme of age-based achievement testing at the end of or during compulsory education, there were influential exit examinations (output regulation) after that period of schooling at age 16 (vmbo), age 17 (havo) and age 18 (vwo), exemplifying Hopmann's examination model. The goals to be attained and tested in these high-stakes external and internal exit examinations had been laid down in examination programmes (input regulation). Many primary schools started participating in a standardised test that was administered in the final grade of primary education (age 12). This was a non-mandatory but very influential test, developed by CITO and meant to help teachers, students and their parents with choosing the appropriate secondary education track (basically some kind of output regulation).

Nevertheless, the content of education seemed to be fairly stable and was not an object of great dispute. However, from the 1970s to the 1990s the Government's commitment to the content of education gradually increased –

reflecting an inclination to try to regulate a bit more at the input level – in order to stimulate the continuous development of students as well as equity. The lack of clarity about what should be taught in education also became an issue of concern because of the international tendency of developing 'core curricula', prompted by the effective school movement (see Brookover & Lezotte, 1977), and reports such as 'A Nation at Risk' in the United States (Mortimore et al, 1988). The Netherlands embarked on this movement, although the process turned out to be extensive and lengthy, leading to first sets of more than 400 attainment targets ('goals to strive for') for primary education as well as for lower secondary education. The parliament did not approve these two sets; the number and detail needed to be revised. Finally, in 1993 much smaller sets – 122 for primary education and about 300 for lower secondary education – of goals 'to strive for' were laid down by law (Letschert, 1998; Thijs et al, 2005). A further review (i.e. reduction and de-specification) took place in 1998.

Parallel to this slight swing towards input regulation, a widespread dissatisfaction was being felt concerning several large-scale curriculum change efforts in secondary education. First of all, a strong and lengthy debate concerning the desirability of a comprehensive school system (eventually) in 1993 led to a political compromise of introducing a core curriculum for the first years of secondary education, but without changing the tracked educational structure. This ambivalence in decision-making negatively affected the chances of the reform's success. In 1998, a curriculum reform was initiated for upper secondary education, containing a new set of aims and contents as well as suggestions (inspired by constructivist approaches) for teaching and learning methods. In practice, the substantive reform (the 'what') led to curriculum overload and fragmentation. The suggestions for the teaching and learning methods suffered from conceptual unclarity and resulted in discontent among teachers concerning the interference of government with classroom pedagogy. This dissatisfaction with large-scale curriculum change efforts led to a greater awareness of the complexities of curriculum change and the processes and time frames that introduce, realise, and sustain such changes at the policy level. In 2007/8, a parliamentary research commission studied these and other large-scale change efforts of this period and concluded that government should not interfere with daily school practices and should leave this to the schools and teachers (Dijsselbloem, 2008).

Episode 2: Deregulation (2000-2007)

Times were changing, to a large extent also due to political changes. Rather than trusting government-initiated large-scale change, the focus shifted towards an emphasis on site-specific commitment and ownership, initially regarding school administrative issues, but increasingly also pertaining to the process and outcomes of education. A strong movement towards autonomy and market forces emerged – not only in education but also in other societal sectors – starting from the assumption that local ownership fosters commitment to curriculum renewal. However, concerning curriculum policy there was still some ambiguity. On the one hand, schools were given ample room to make site-specific choices, which resulted in more variation across schools, especially in lower secondary education. On the other hand, there was still a tendency to safeguard quality by means of (increasing pleas for) standards, the obligation of accountability, as well as external evaluation by the Inspectorate of Education.

Nevertheless, curriculum policy was deregulated. Schools received more space for (re)designing their site-specific curriculum. The attainment targets substantially decreased in number as time went by (for primary education, from 122 in 1993 to 58 since 2005; also, for lower secondary education [ages 13-14] the number of attainment targets decreased to 58). Moreover, they were much less detailed and did not specify any teaching methodologies. They were meant as a source of inspiration for schools and teachers in making site-specific choices as well as a frame of reference for public accountability as regards choices, efforts and outcomes. Schools and teachers were and still are held accountable for the way they give 'freedom within boundaries' a site-specific interpretation. Deregulation also led to the expectation that schools could evaluate their own educational process. Based on a 2002 Act, the role of the Inspectorate of Education became twofold: (i) inspection to assess the quality of education in terms of the education a school provides as well as its output and to report on it, and (ii) inspection for improvement, by fostering the self-regulative power of a school. A school's self-evaluation report is the starting point for an external quality review by the Inspectorate every four years, as such reflecting an educational governance system (Janssens, 2005). Inspection is proportional to the quality of the education a school provides.

At the school level it should be noted that curriculum deregulation turned out differently among education sectors. Curriculum autonomy in primary and lower secondary education is greater than in upper secondary education. The freedom for curricular action drastically decreases – or is perceived as drastically decreasing – as high-stakes school-leaving examinations at age 16 (vmbo), age 17 (havo), and age 18 (vwo) come closer. Secondly, several schools for primary and lower secondary education have tried to enact the freedom offered, but by sticking to the textbook much 'strategic space' still stays unutilised. In addition, from a monitor study on curriculum (re)design efforts in lower secondary education (Onderbouw-VO, 2005) it appears that schools have taken up the gauntlet, but that there are still large discrepancies between innovation rhetoric and actual functioning of schools, as well as between beliefs and perceptions of school leadership and those of teachers. Thirdly, the 58 attainment targets for lower secondary education have been formulated so broadly that in the opinion of teachers the targets are perceived and used neither as guidance nor as inspirational. Instead, they are used as a control and accountability device afterwards, in the context of external evaluations conducted by the Inspectorate (Nieveen et al, 2011). Fourthly, a generally perceived trend in primary and secondary education is that the national government's decentralising policy is gradually being counteracted by guidelines provided by the Inspectorate, municipality services, and last but not least, so-called 'school overarching managers'. The latter especially – appointed by large school boards – appear anxious to play the role of 'mini ministry'. So, curricular autonomy offered does not necessarily imply that room for site-specific curricular choices is and can be taken up by teachers.

Those schools and teachers that did embark on changing their curriculum were confronted with many common concerns. School-based curriculum development turned out to be a complex endeavour (Nieveen et al, 2010, 2011). Teachers who were used to working by themselves were challenged to share their goals in and perspectives on learning and teaching. Moreover, socio- political concerns also surfaced, including who should be involved in the redesign process and how to activate and include teachers and team leaders. Moreover, teams were confronted with questions on the actual redesign of all interlinked curricular components, such as the selection of learning activities, materials, assessment instruments, acquisition of new teaching roles, and setting out of time frames and equipment in the new learning environment. Teachers reported a lack of confidence in their curriculum design skills, which, in most cases, led to either minimal changes or an unbalanced curriculum with many loose parts. This lack of curriculum competency and the struggle to fully utilise curricular freedom was also found in a survey of a representative sample of teachers in junior secondary education (Onderbouw-VO, 2008).

Episode 3: Slight swing towards output regulation (2007 onwards)

Recently, the pendulum has been slightly swinging again, influenced by alterations in the political climate due to a change of government in 2010 and the rhetoric at the policy level of striving for a top five position in the rankings based on international comparative studies like the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) and the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS). Although commitment from schools and teachers has proven to be conducive to the effectiveness and sustainability of improvement and renewal efforts, school autonomy also appears to have its limits – like tight government steering has. There are considerable challenges of major public importance and beyond individual schools (e.g. careful decision-making about the curriculum classic of what should be learned) that call for a combining of forces and a regulating role from the national government. A government that wants to promote diversity is at the same time responsible for stimulating substantive and social cohesion, fostering equity, and promoting collective socio-economic interests.

The solution to many of the issues is now being pursued through a more detailed specification of education outcomes: thus, input regulation. The Education Council – the most authoritative counselling body as regards education policy in the Netherlands – made a plea for the formulation of standards (minimum achievements required), to be implemented in Year 4 (age 8, the middle of primary education), Year 8 (age 12, end of primary education) and Year 10 (lower secondary education). The Council considered those standards – strikingly resembling Finland's implemented 'descriptions of good performance' – as a proper device for providing schools and teachers with operational instructional objectives in order to counteract the underperformance of students, in particular with regard to Dutch language and mathematics ('the basics'). On more or less the same line of reasoning the Ministry of Education commissioned the development of a reference framework for Dutch literacy and mathematics. This

framework (formally legislated in 2010) consists of standards ranging from Years 4, 8 and 10 to the final years of junior general vocational education, senior general education and pre-university education. As operationalisations of the current attainment targets (for primary and lower secondary education) and the prevailing exit examination programmes (at the end of secondary education) they are meant as a guiding frame of reference and entrance requirements for subsequent education programmes.

In recent ministerial policy agendas, stronger guidance is expected from outcomes-based education, along with an obligatory final test at the end of primary education and a mandatory diagnostic test for Dutch language, mathematics and English at the end of lower secondary education. So, here output regulation enters the scene. Also, initiatives to study the added value of schools to learning growth in (especially) the basics are in line with a move towards output regulation. Based on a new Act in 2012, the Inspectorate is concentrating its efforts on those schools that show insufficient quality, and can get the mandate of the Ministry of Education to impose penalties. Still starting from the assumption that local ownership fosters commitment to curriculum renewal, the support infrastructure is becoming increasingly market-driven. Schools are being lump sum financed for the support and professional development they need in order to keep up their performance results.

Discussion: performing a balancing act

The analysis shows, in retrospect, that regulating goals and contents of (compulsory) education has been – and still is – a balancing act in the Netherlands taking place on the right half of a continuum that goes from regulated on the left to deregulated on the right end of the continuum. Against a background of a long-standing statutory tradition of freedom of education with a strong trust in the teachers as professionals (e.g. Ekholm, 1996), governmental decisions about 'what knowledge is of most worth' have been delicate. Although for about two hundred years output regulation has been in place for upper secondary education by means of high-stakes exit examinations, the Dutch Government has left the answer to the key curricular question (of what knowledge is of most worth) largely open-ended.

From the 1970s onward, influenced by the international school effectiveness movement and optimism about bringing about social change through large-scale educational changes, the then Dutch Government started the debate on input regulation. This shift towards a results-oriented steering model (see Ekholm, 1996) can be found, for instance, in the development of attainment targets that primary and lower secondary education should strive for.

However, at the start of the new millennium, due to a change to a government aiming at deregulation and market forces, the focus shifted towards site-specific commitment and ownership. This led to an unambiguous reduction in the number and detail of attainment targets, implicating less input steering. Based on this renewed trust in teachers as professionals (see Ekholm, 1996), schools and teachers were expected to make their own site-specific curricular choices. In many cases this resulted in innovative school profiles, but also into concerns with the complexities that school-based curriculum renewal brings about.

From 2007 onward, again also due to international-related forces (such as PISA and TIMSS ranking lists) and a change of government, a shift towards a results-oriented steering model becomes visible (see Ekholm, 1996). Input regulation has been revitalised by converting the attainment targets ('goals to strive for') for Dutch literacy and mathematics into standards ('goals to attain'). Moreover, for the first time in Dutch history, educational policy is favouring output regulation for primary education and lower secondary education by means of mandatory achievement tests for mother tongue and mathematics at the end of primary education and for mother tongue, mathematics and English at the end of lower secondary education, to be implemented from 2014 and with a diagnostic purpose as regards lower secondary education.

The Dutch situation shows the difficulty in striking a good balance between school autonomy (freedom) and regulations (boundaries). Both prescriptive and flexible models have their pros and cons (Hargreaves, 2003; Fullan, 2008). In short, the dilemma is that models with prescriptive regulations obtain better short-term results but do not last, while flexible models with more freedom for schools and teachers seem to last longer but often lack focus (Fullan, 2008). Flexible models last longer because, as exemplified by the provision of curricular space, at their heart is

trust in schools and teachers leading the curriculum renewal (Hopkins, 2005). The latter is generally perceived as a prerequisite for securing sustainable change (Hargreaves, 2003; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006).

The recent Dutch policy shift towards output regulation by means of mandatory achievement tests brings about some key issues that need to be carefully considered. First of all, the rationale behind the formulation of standards in terms of 'descriptions of good performance' (cf. Finland) may provide teachers with more operational support and might help to counteract the underperformance of students (up to a certain level), also acknowledged by Scholl in this issue. However, at the same time it bears the risk of preserving 'the old school' (Carlgren, 2006) and opening the door to all the negatives of rigid assessment arrangements. In order to avoid this risk, Carlgren speaks of 'goals to attain while striving', emphasising that 'goals to attain' are subordinated to 'goals to strive for'. This goal model has been implemented in Sweden, as part of the 1994 national curriculum for the comprehensive school. Other examples are the general part of the Norwegian 1997 curriculum and the Illinois reform effort from the 1990s. To stay away from curriculum deadening (Herman, 2006) – the excessive focus on test scores for the basics to the neglect of other subjects – learning trajectories preferably should pertain to a wide range of subjects rather than only to literacy and mathematics and should also value cross-curricular skills (see, for instance, Brinkley et al, 2010).

Second, output regulation (framing the 'back door' of education) should not go without a proper democratic debate about what needs to be tested (framing the 'front door'). In other words, the question of 'what knowledge is of most worth teaching and learning' needs to be addressed first. This does not necessarily mean that all decisions about goals and contents ('front door') must have been made before decisions about assessment tasks and arrangements ('back door') can be taken. Backward design, in terms of the construction of assessment tasks, may be a useful means for operationalising and hence defining intended learning outcomes.

Third, as it discourages professional activity on the part of teachers (Kelly, 2004), it does not make sense to implement a major swing towards strongly regulating teachers' work via detailed standards along with stringent achievement testing. The major strengths of the curriculum policy period between 2000 and 2007 – fostering bottom-up renewal initiatives and appealing to teachers to their professional capacity – should not be discarded. Schools and teachers in the Netherlands are not looking for overly prescriptive frameworks. Rather, they would be inspired by promising and prototypical practical examples of how to (re)design their site-specific school curriculum in the context of the attainment targets (see also Standaert, 1998). For instance, procedurally and substantively specified educative materials that illustrate and support the essentials of the curriculum reform and that are adjustable to the local aims of the school will be more inspiring and of more support for schools and teachers than a detailed set of standards with accompanying achievement tests. At the same time, it should be noted that important lessons can be learned from experiences in some other European countries: some specification may provide teachers with the hold and support they say they need (see Finland), while over-specification may be perceived as a prescriptive straitjacket that works counterproductively (see England).

Future educational change efforts in Europe – including efforts at the policy level, initiatives at the school level and support from lateral partners on the side (such as support agencies, textbook publishers, test developers, inspectorate, school networks) – would benefit from a common inspiring and inclusive vision that draws people together in their efforts of uplifting common purpose. To follow up on this critical element (put forward by Hargreaves & Shirley, 2009), the Netherlands Institute for Curriculum Development (SLO) is taking initiatives to assist professional and public debates in order to foster an inspirational common sense of direction as regards the goals and contents of compulsory education. In doing so, important lessons can be learned from, and may be contributed to, more or less comparable curriculum initiatives in other (European) countries.

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CURRICULAR ARTICULATION BETWEEN PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION AND THE FIRST CYCLE OF BASIC EDUCATION: RELEVANCE AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

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Abstract

The curricular articulation between Pre-school Education and the first Cycle of Basic Education is a requirement, which acquires particular interest when it comes to the transition and adaptation of children to school, since the educational continuity is considered to be a successful factor in learning. This articulation is also consigned in various legal documents, from the Bases Law of Educational System (Law n. º 46/1986 of 14 October), to the Circular n. º 17/DSDC/DEPEB/2007, but it is not always concretized in practice.

This communication aims precisely to disclose an empirical study which intends to understand the importance and meaning that teachers of the 1st Cycle of Basic Education give to curricular articulation, if this is taken into account when preparing each class curricular project, their difficulties, how often, on average, they establish a connection with the previous stage, and which activities they perform.

A methodology of descriptive nature was employed, using the questionnaire survey, applied to a representative sample of teachers, teaching first year classes of the 1st Cycle of Basic Education in the municipality of Viseu (centre region of Portugal), comprising a total of 48 teachers.

The obtained data allow us to conclude that, in general, teachers perceive curricular articulation as "the performance of joint activities, involving teachers and students, inside and outside school" and give it a lot of importance. However, the most frequently performed activities are related to the holding of parties/celebrations, being much less mentioned activities such as reading, dramatization of stories or the development of common projects, which could benefit the two levels of education.

The data have clear implications for schools and teachers, namely the interest in prioritizing, in the planning of their curricular activities, projects that allow a more fruitful communication between the early childhood educators and teachers, leading to an effective curricular articulation.

Keywords: Curricular Articulation; Pre-school Education; First Cycle of Basic Education; Educational continuity.

1   Introduction

The adaptation of children to different school contexts is an essential requirement for the success of their learning. So it is important to understand how adaptation of children arises, in the transition from Pre-school Education to the 1st Cycle of Basic Education (CEB), and how is the established curricular articulation between these levels. Therefore, we carried out an investigation that focused on a key question: "What is the perspective of the teachers of the 1st Cycle of Basic Education on curricular articulation between Pre-school Education and the 1st Cycle of Basic Education?".

Pre-school Education is the first stage of basic education in the process of lifelong education and it helps to supplement the educational activities of the family, although its frequency is facultative. However, the Portuguese State actively contributes to universal provision of Pre-school Education (Law n.º 5/97 of February 10 - the Framework Law on Pre-school Education).

Basic Education is "the segment of the educational system responsible for ensuring all citizens with a solid and qualified basic education" (ME, 2010, paragraph 1). In it falls the 1st Cycle of Basic Education which has a universal character, free and compulsory (Article 6 of Law n.º 46/86 of 14 October – Bases Law of the Educational System).

But having these two levels of education of different attendance requirement, it is possible that the transition from one level to another can be done in an articulated manner so as to facilitate the transition from one level to another in view of the continuing education? And what can one do to make this articulation actually happen?

Prior to, and more important, is to clarify the concept of the curricular articulation, which can be understood as "all school-sponsored activities in order to facilitate the transition between pre-school and 1st CBE, which can be activities inside and outside of school, with participation or not of the students" (Serra, 2004, p. 19).

When we talk about curricular articulation, we cannot forget another idea associated with it, that of educational continuity, since the relationship between the various stages of education implies "a progressive sequentiality, giving each step the function to complete, deepen and extend the previous step, in a perspective of continuity and global unity of education/teaching" (Circular n.º 17/DSDC/DEPEB/2007).

Although educational continuity between Pre-school Education and the 1st Cycle of Basic Education should be established, it matters that do not take the first level as preparation for the next level, because given the OCEPE (ME, 2009, p. 17), "it is not intended that pre-school is organized to a preparation for compulsory education, but that it be oriented towards an education throughout life, however, shall the child be able to successfully address the following step".

For educational continuity to effectively exist, it is necessary that early childhood educators and teachers take into account the next and previous stage, respectively, in order to best contribute to the development of the child. As stated by Vasconcelos (2002), the continuity "begins with getting to know each other, to know what each of us are doing" and "only learning and living with each other's differences is it possible to work together, in real continuity" (p. 5) .

It is through this mutual knowledge that teachers from both levels can perform curricular articulation projects, because as mentioned by Bravo (2010), this "is not an end in itself, but a means of making the school more effective, based on projects supported in questioning, in sharing, and in critical analysis. On the other hand, the articulation considers transitions with meaning between levels of education" (p.43).

Although recognized the importance of effective curricular articulation and advantages arising there from, there are notorious difficulties at this level, beginning by the fact that Pre-school Education does not have a mandatory character.

Other constraints referred are "the rigidity of the curriculum of the 1st Cycle and the failure of programmatic goals stipulated, the difficulty in adopting different methods from the usual, the fear of change that is intensified by the lack of training" (Bastos, 2007, p. 39), or "isolation of educators, which does not favour group work, (...) and the lack of educational supervision" (Vasconcelos, 2009, cited by Costa, 2010, p.7).

However, despite the difficulties, it is necessary to promote educational continuity/sequentiality, whilst affirming the specificity of each step, so that the curricular articulation is a reality in several educational institutions. This process depends not only of early childhood educators, or teachers of 1st Cycle of Basic Education, but both. Both compete to have a proactive attitude, programming and developing together, activities that facilitate the transition of children from one level to another.

2 Methodology

2.1 Design of research

To understand what is the perception of teachers of the 1st Cycle of Basic Education about curricular articulation between Pre-school Education and the 1st Cycle of Basic Education, we decided to conduct a descriptive research (Fortin, 1999), using the questionnaire survey.

To this end, we have formulated some objectives: *i)* to understand what teachers of the 1st Cycle of Basic Education mean by curricular articulation; *ii)* identify the main difficulties in the process of articulation between the Pre-school and 1st Cycle of Basic Education; *iii)* analyze how it is being done the curricular articulation between the two levels of

education; and *iv)* identify actions that can help promote articulation between teachers of the 1st Cycle of Basic Education and early childhood educators.

2.2 Sample and its characterization

The target population of this study consists of teachers of the 1st Cycle of Basic Education, teaching classes of the 1st year, of the various groupings of public schools in the municipality of Viseu, an estimated total of 70 teachers.

Of this total, we obtained valid response to the questionnaire of 48 teachers. This is a sample, mostly female (95.8%), aged between 35 and 59 years, in which more than half are between 50 and 59 years, with the predominant academic qualification degree (93.8%) and with considerable experience, since most faculty (52.1%) has more than 25 years in service.

2.3 Instrument of data collection

Data collection was conducted through a questionnaire prepared for this purpose. This divides into two parts: the first consists of closed answer questions, referring to data characterization personal and professional. The second part consists of multiple choice questions and also of open answers.

A preliminary version of the questionnaire was submitted to pre-test to a few teachers who were not part of the sample, so we could detect any ambiguity or error. This revealed a clear understanding of the form.

2.4 Procedure

For the implementation of the questionnaire at school, we requested authorization from the Directorate-General for Innovation and Curriculum Development (DGIDC), which request was readily granted.

Then, we asked for permission to the direction of the several school groupings of Viseu, so that, they too, authorize the application of the questionnaire. Since we had the approval of the groupings, we moved to the closer schools and we addressed the teachers of the first year personally, inviting their participation. As for the more distant schools, the questionnaire was sent by post.

2.5 Analysis and processing of data

The quantitative data analysis was performed using descriptive statistics, including the analysis of absolute and relative frequencies. For the data from the open-response questions, we resorted to content analysis, "a set of analysis techniques to obtain communications by systematic and objective description of message content" (Bardin, 1977, p. 42).

3 Presentation and analysis of results

3.1 Importance attached to curricular articulation

Teachers show very favourable perceptions regarding curricular articulation: it is considered important (39.6%), quite important (23%) or very important (37.5%). No teacher mentioned that it is of little or no importance).

It is advisable that teachers value the curricular articulation and take into account in their teaching practices, because, as stated by Aniceto (2010), "to articulate these two levels of education is to increase the credibility of one, overcoming the idea that still persists about preschool as an area of mere occupation of children, providing the following improvement of the internal management of schools and curricula so that there is continuity between the two" (p. 74).

3.2 Meaning assigned by teachers for curricular articulation

Concerning the meaning of the articulation between the both levels of education, the options that have been more consistently identified in the curricular articulation definition are "a process that must be promoted by all teachers", which "facilitates the transition from education Pre-school to the 1st Cycle of Basic Education" and consisting of "joint activities involving teachers and students inside and outside of school".

By agreeing with the statements above, teachers share the view of Serra (2004), which advocates the curricular articulation as "all school-sponsored activities in order to facilitate the transition between pre-school and 1st CBE, which can be activities inside and outside of school, with participation or not of the students" (p. 19).

3.3 Main difficulties in the process of curricular articulation

Another topic concerns the difficulties that teachers encounter to establish curricular articulation with Pre-school Education. In this sense, and similarly to the previous question, the teachers had several options; however, was the "distance between the different schools" which received the greater agreement (77.1%). Another difficulty pointed out, although to a lesser extent, was the "greatest workload of meetings to prepare the articulation" (45.9%).

These results are understandable, because despite the effort to reorganize the school network in the municipality of Viseu, there are still many schools dispersed, making it difficult to establish effective communication between the two levels of education.

3.4 How curricular articulation is being made

A large part of teachers (85.4%) stated that the School Educational Project reveals concern in promoting curricular articulation between grade levels, with the main evidence of them being the meetings of articulation between Pre-school Education and 1st Cycle of Basic Education and the holding of social events/celebrations.

When asked how often, on average, they proceeded to the curricular articulation with the previous step, during the school year, most teachers refers three times (35.4%), four times (16.7%), or five or more times (22.9%). Nevertheless, 25% of teachers stated that they only proceed with the curricular articulation once or twice a year, which shows that although the teachers assign importance to curricular articulation, it has few achievements.

Be noted, too, that there are many teachers (37.5%) who say that they do not include articulation activities in the Class Curricular Project, but consider that the curricular articulation is important.

3.5 Undertaken activities to promote the articulation curricular

We still tried to know the type of curricular articulation activities that teachers held in conjunction with the early childhood educators through an open question. Responses were grouped into six categories, listed in descending order of the number of indicators: *i)* the holding of social events/celebrations; *ii)* reading and dramatization of stories; *iii)* activities in specific areas (experiments with various materials, plastic and musical expressions, experimental activities, etc.); *iv)* games; *v)* specific meetings; and *vi)* other.

The activities most frequently mentioned by teachers concerning the holding of parties/celebrations, especially in this context, the Christmas party, Carnival parades and parties at the beginning and end of the school year. Comparatively, they were less often referred to activities such as reading and dramatization of stories, or the development of common projects

4 Conclusion

The Pre-school Education is seen as the first stage of education throughout life, yet it is optional attendance which means that not all children go through this step. This represents a constraint to curricular articulation that we can join other difficulty pointed out by most of the inquired teachers of the 1st Cycle of Basic Education, "the distance between the different schools".

In this study, we also concluded that the curricular articulation is perceived fairly positively by teachers, who usually claim to materialize it three or more times per year. Nevertheless, more than a third of respondents admit that it is not included in their Class Curricular Project.

The vast majority of teachers faces the curricular articulation as a "process that should be promoted by all teachers" and that includes the "joint activities involving teachers and students inside and outside of school", in line with the definition proposed by Serra (2004).

The articulation activities most often mentioned by teachers are parties/celebrations. This aspect applies to both the activities that teachers claim to have already done so to establish connection with the early childhood educators, as in those which they present as evidence of curricular articulation in the School Educational Project.

On the one hand this is a positive factor, in that it reveals interest from teachers of the 1st Cycle of Basic Education concerning the link with the previous level of education, on the other hand, it shows that one can reach further in this field, giving attention to other activities.

The reading, the dramatization of stories, or the development of common projects are examples of activities that can provide a more fruitful communication between these two levels of education, to which it should be given more priority. It is up to the school and the teachers, in particular, suggest and support such initiatives.

These data reflects, in general, the views of teachers of the 1st Cycle of Basic Education that teach classes of the first year in public schools in the municipality of Viseu, since the sample covers the vast majority of the population, having granted the opportunity for all teachers to participate in this study.

However, it would be interesting to extend the investigation to other populations in order to verify if these results are confirmed, including early childhood educators, the teachers in other years of schooling, or belonging to schools in other districts of the country.

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Experiencing Curriculum through Body: Insights from Chinese Body Thought

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Abstract

"Body" has recently become a site of intense inquiry in various academic fields including curriculum, which is exemplified as embodied curriculum study. Out of a critical review of these well-established researches, it is brought to the fore that the current prevalent embodied curriculum discourses are primarily based on the western understanding of body, where classical Chinese body thought seems to have little voice. This paper critically assesses the possibilities for expanding embodied curriculum with the insights of classical Chinese body thought, which includes body thinking and thinking body. Enabling us to appreciatively delineate the bodily nature of students' thinking and the thinking nature of their body, Chinese body thought allows for new insights on how to understand students' bodily roots of subjectivity exploring and how to performance a embodied curriculum. Instead of offering a practice routine of embodied curriculum, the current paper presents a coherent description and an alternative understanding of body in curriculum, all too often undeservedly neglected, through examining the significance of classical Chinese body thought to embodied curriculum study, identifying the peculiar meanings and features of the its "body" notion, and articulating its rich curriculum implications.

This is considered in the following manner: One, Etymological meaning of "shen" and "ti": In trying to evaluate the position and potential of Chinese body thought for positive rethinking and opening up new possibilities to bring body back to curriculum, this part carefully analysis the special notion of body through etymological examination of shen and ti; Two, Aesthetical significance of "shen" and "ti": Part Two concerns the strong aesthetic dimension of children's thinking body, that is to illustrate the characteristics of children's bodily thinking. Three, Curriculum Implications of Chinese body thought, which considers the practical implications of Chinese body thought. In so doing, the author hopes to learn from European listeners and conference participants to explore further the cultural and historical specificities and significances of the body and curriculum.

Keywords: body; Chinese body thought; embodied curriculum;

1   Introduction

The "body" has recently become a site of intense inquiry in various fields including curriculum, which is exemplified as embodied curriculum study. This paper, and the study from which it draws are based on the crucial understanding of curriculum as the exploring process of subjectivity (Pinar, 2005), which takes forms and shapes in bodily experience and ultimately becomes new part of their lived experience. In considering the body and lived experience is crucial to the understanding and subjectivity construction, especially in a so-called "Posthuman Education Era", where technology over body has reached an implosive peak, many scholars in curriculum (and education) field have been endeavoring to acknowledge the theory and practice of embodied curriculum, which can be traced in the progressive history of integrated and core curriculum argued by John Dewey in 1902 (Christodoulou, 2010). Most recently, ample research have been carried out to demonstrate the importance of feelings, meanings, expressions, imagination, sensory-motor, and spatial experiences in understanding the world and how lived experience plays out in people's lives and how it becomes part of their curriculum (Springgay & Freedman, 2007, 2009; Springgay, 2008, 2009; Barnacle, 2009; Perry & Medina, 2011; Blumenfeld-Jones, 2012, Snowber, 2012). While these embodied curriculum studies indisputably provide an essential mean to disrupt Cartesian dualism and materialize a link between body and curriculum, they limit themselves to western notion of body. Having observed that body has been located as a locus of

investigation, Gaudelius & Garoian (2007) are concerned that, "while important, it had the effect of inadvertently enforcing of mind/body split". A central question at stake related to this is whether there is an alternative understanding of body beyond the western body thought that can help us better avoid this risk? Departing from such urge, this study attempts to bring about the classical Chinese concept of body, which per se refuses to separate body from heart-mind (xin), but takes body as a holistic concept that integrates mind, as expressed in the concept of "body-mind oneness" (shenxi yiru).

In this study, classical literatures of Confucianism and Taoism serve as the main theoretical sources, which mainly include: (1) Confucian classics: Analects, Mencius, the Great Learning, and Doctrine of the Mean; (2) Taoist classics: Laozi and Zhuangzi. Besides, a critical scope of current hermeneutical literature on elucidated classical Chinese body thought of Chinese scholars as well as western Sinologists (Yang, 1993, 1996; Wu, 1997; Tu, 1978; Kasulis, Ames & Dissanayake, 1993; Schipper, Duval & Girardot, 1993; Zito & Barlow, 1994) will also be considered as important sources for the current study.

Hermeneutics, as a method of textual analysis and meaning-making, serves as the primary inquiry mode in delineating, analyzing, interpreting, as well as extracting meanings from both ancient texts on Chinese body thought and current Neo-Confucian contributions. The meanings and insights draw from the data sources will be carefully contextualized within curriculum study field.

2   Etymological meaning of "shen" and "ti"

Although Chinese worldview is, to a great extent, articulated in the expression and the "performance" of "body", and even Chinese philosophy is taken as the philosophy of body (Zhang, 2008), the perception of "body" in the broad sweep of Chinese tradition is one of those cultural elements which on the surface might seem to be familiar but which, on investigation, proves to be not so, suggested by the great American Sinologist Roger Ames (1993a). It is interesting that the term "body" in English has a speculated etymological association with the Old High German, botahha, hence, the expression, a "tubby" person. Consistent with this etymology, as Eliot Deutsch has pointed out, the dominant metaphors in the Western tradition have been "container" images: the prison-house, the temple, the machine (quoted in Ames, 1993b). By contrast, the notion of body in the Chinese tradition tends to be couched in "process" rather than substance language (Ames, 1993b).

Despite that in modern Chinese the term "Body" is usually equal to the phrase "shen ti"（身体）, which apparently is comprised of two characters of " shen "(身, body, person) and " ti "(体, embody, embodiment), it is not found in traditional Chinese literature, where the two characters are usually used separately (Xiao, 2008, p. 27; Chen, 2012). However, if we take a close look at the differences between "shen" and "ti", the ways and contents of subjectivity cultivation are indicated. Neither the western expression of "body" nor the modern Chinese concept of "shen ti" can unveil the extremely rich meaning of "body". In order to further reveal the profound connotation and multiple values of Chinese body thought, efforts have been made to identify and articulate the peculiar meanings and features of the Chinese concept of body through etymological examination of "shen" and "ti".

2.1   Shen

As a keyword in ancient Chinese philosophy, the character for shen (身) has undergone the following evolution process (Figure 1-5):

Figure 1-5: calligraphical styles of shen as in inscription on bones; inscription on bronze; big seal character (dazhuan); fewer-stroke seal character (xiao zhuan); lishu (official script) from online Xinhua Dictionary (www. xh. 5156edu.com)

As it is shown in the Figure 6, the pictograph of "shen" was originally a pregnant woman, based on which, the etymology origin of shen is believed to be "being pregnant". This can be seen, for instance, in the chapter of Taiga in Book of Songs (shijing), the first poetry collection in China: [Then] Da-ren became pregnant (appears as shen in the text), and gave birth to our king Wen. Although this original meaning a number of other means of "shen" has derived from this close relationship between shen and being pregnant besides its basic meaning of physical body, such as self, life, social status.
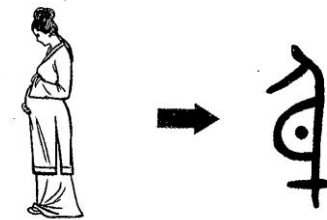
Figure 6: Original meaning of shen

From Xu, S. & Wu, S. (2011). A sketch of Chinese characters. Xian: Shangxi Normal University Press.

Considered from the outside, shen does play a role as to be a carrier of the corporeal attributes of body, but the original meaning of conceiving, which has gradually declined and been replaced by the word Yun (conceive; being pregnant), also suggests its incomparable precious and deep meaning that cannot be inclined to physical structure. Traced back the meaning of "shen" in ancient Chinese literature, it often refers to "self" (Zhang, 2008, 4; Zhang, 2007, 4). For example, according to one of the classical Confucian literatures, also the oldest surviving dictionary in ancient China Erya, "shen" means "I" (*Erya, Shiyan*). The famous words of Confucius's disciple Zengzi in the first chapter of *Analects* can also provide a glimpse of this thought: "Every day I examine myself on three counts." (Analects, 1:4). "Myself" here corresponds to "shen" in the original text. In terms of Chinese concrete thinking (Huang, 2008, 301), my subjective feeling of being-there is "my body, my living-my-body" (Wu, 1997, 236).

Furthermore, as we can note that in most Chinese phrases that translated into English phrases where the ideas of "person", "life", or "lifetime" are used or implied, the word shen appears (Elvin, 1993). Some examples will make this clear: an shen=make one's body peaceful="settle down in life"; chu shen (处身)=put forth one's body="project oneself into some situation/world"; chu shen（出身）＝the body come from="class origin" or "personal status"; shenshi=body's world="one's lifetime's experience".

2.2   Ti

Ti is one of the most basic, earliest, and most essential concepts in Chinese philosophy, which derives its meaning from intimate understanding of reality, self, and practice (Cheng, 2002). The modern simplified character (体) of ti can directly indicate this position with its left radical of person, and right radical of root. However, in order to find out richer meaning of this word, we have to go back to its traditional style (see in Figure 7).The etymology of the character ti clearly shows the structure of ti in its double aspects in the domains of the physical and the living, and the spiritual. As an associative compound[1], there are three elements in the character ti: the bone radical (骨) on the left side of the word suggests the physical structure of ti, whereas the two combined radicals on the right side in the form of the script (see in Figure 7) suggest the presence of spirit of reverence as symbolized by a vessel of food presented to spirits in the performance of a ritual (Cheng, 2002).

Figure 7: traditional character of ti

This notes us that ti extends its basic meaning of concrete corporeal body and organic system to vital spiritual function. A minor but significant point here, also observes Peter Boodberg, one of the most influential sinologist in

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[1] Associative compounds (huiyi), one of the six categories of Chinese characters, are formed by combining two or more elements, each with a meaning of its own, to create a new meaning.

20th century, is that only these two characters of ti and ritual share the same phonetic with liau, which means ritual vase (see in Ames, 1993b). The overlapping connotation of "organic form" between these two characters further suggests that ti in Chinese philosophy is not only physical body shape, but also an essential process of self-becoming through all kinds of ritual action and practice, which is not limited to religious activity, but extends to those educational activity to cultivate rites, propriety, decorum, as well as rightness.

3 Aesthetical significance of "shen" and "ti"

3.1 Shen as a way of interacting

Although shen conceived as a person with the connotation of self, it doesn't necessary mean that it is isolated with "other". In fact, in Confucian idea, shen is embedded in a dynamic and ongoing process of interacting with other shens/bodies, as shown in the following: "If you want to establish yourself, seek to establish others as well" (Analects, 6:28). During this course of encountering other bodies/selves, "the self transforms itself, like a flowing stream, rather than a static structure". (Tu, 1999) Given that lived shen is a crucial dimension of Confucian social body it is very frequently observed that shen is communicating and imparting meaning to the other shens/bodies. To give an example, Zengzi goes on his reflection on the "three counts" as: In what I have undertaken on another's behalf, have I failed to do my best? In my dealings with my friends have I failed to be trustworthy in what I say? Have I passed on to others anything that I have not tried out myself? All the questions manifest the strong inter-subjectivity that is deeply recognized by Chinese body thought (Li, 2008, 35). This has also led to the Chinese traditional understanding of body as fluid "process" rather than substance "thing".

3.2 Ti as a way of embodied knowing

As Wei-ming Tu notes, "Strictly speaking, I do not own my body. My body is never my possession. Nor is it simply a given. I try to become my body by learning to sit, stand up, walk, run, dance, talk, play, and act. Indeed, I learn to realize myself through my body" (2006). Here, our bodies become aesthetic expressions of ourselves through the action and practice of "ti", that is the verbal sense of "ti", such as "ti zhi" (body knowing), "ti yan" (body experiencing), "ti wei" (body appreciating), "ti wu" (body understanding), "ti cha" (body observing), "ti xu" (body sympathizing), "ti zheng" (body realizing), etc. Although none of these expressions can be translated into English accurately, as observed by Wei-ming, Tu (2012, 197), they can still indicate themselves as the essential way of embodied knowing with various body praxis, and manifest that subjectivity is in someone's active and experiential experience, meanwhile confirm the very fundamental position of "ti" in Chinese philosophy of knowledge. An analysis of one of these most prominent body praxis "tiyan" can bear this observation out.

Tiyan can be referred to as "experience" in English, which means experience something intimately and be aware of this intimate experience, where yan means "confirmed" or "confirmation." As Cheng Chung-ying explains clearly (Cheng, 2002), tiyan is to confirm by direct experience of one's own person. The important thing about this notion of tiyan is that there is no restriction as to what we could intimately experience. Not only can we intimately experience our life, or have an intimate experience of some event or situation, but we can also come to intimately experience life and its meaning in general, or the dao, or other properties of basic categories of reality as well. That this is possible is because we as human persons have the ability to experience intimately reality, both internal and external, on many levels. But we have to cultivate ourselves to enable this ability to experience to become active and productive. Hence, tiyan is a potential way of reading reality and understanding meaning, which is a source of visions, faith, and values. This does not mean that we have no way to check on the validity of tiyan. Tiyan has to begin with things at hand, and has to be congruent with our observations, thinking, and insights to form a system or a body of understanding and knowledge; it is not something to be understood in separation from a context of cognitive or moral understanding. In such context, we can speak of tiyan as "embodimental knowing /knowledge" or "to know by embodiment" (Cheng, 2002), or "embodied knowing" (Tu, 2012).

3.3   Ti as a way of embodied self-cultivation

Self-cultivation is the starting point and inspiration source of character-building in Confucian thought (Tu, 1999), as The Great Learning, one of the four cardinal texts in Confucian moral education asserts, "from the emperor to the commoner every person must, without exception, regard self-cultivation as the root." Although there are many different ways of self-cultivating in both Confucian and Taoist thought, it is suggested that the conception of body is integrally related to the fundamental project of self-cultivation (Ames, 1993). As we could easily see that Confucian paideia is mental, it is also very physical, a form of bodily exercise. All six arts—ritual, music, archery, charioteering, calligraphy, and calculation—involve the body, the "four limbs" (siti). They discipline the body so it can become a proper expression, or, more appropriately, a proper manifestation (tixian) of the self.

All the above understanding expresses active engagement and involves the body in the process of meaning making. Chinese body thought poses different ways of 'making sense' of the world, challenging the mechanisms of mind as the only way of knowing. This suggests the educational implications of Chinese body thought.

4   Curriculum Implications of Chinese Body Thought

Tracing and interpreting the original and etymological meaning of shen and ti gives rise to the significant implications for curriculum. As Pinar acknowledges, "[W]e are quite clear that understanding is simultaneously intellectual and emotional, and that it is always embodied" (2011, 7). According to Chinese body thought, there is unique significance consists in ti-- strong aesthetic dimension of students' body. This enables us to appreciatively delineate the bodily nature of thinking and the thinking nature of body.

On one hand, the idea of "shen" as self invites curriculum to rethink the bodily roots of students' subjectivity constructing. In Pinar's understanding, subjectivity is "wherein we begin to know ourselves and the world we inhabit and which inhabits us" (2012, 8). To provide the students with space of subjectivity cultivating, curriculum should first allow them to understand themselves in the world through the curriculum they study. In terms of Chinese body thought, curriculum, in order to do so, should first emphasis upon students' body, instead of numbers. Also, the notion of shen as a way of interacting implies the importance of establishing a continuous, interactive, and mutually supportive relationship between each other, which requires curriculum to cultivate student's affective attitude of care and regard, as well as an actual understanding of interdependence in life and vitality.

On the other hand, "ti" as way of self-cultivating suggests that curriculum, as an exploring process of subjectivity should also cherish the strong aesthetic dimension of body and provide the chance for such body praxis, or the subjectivity constructing process may degenerate into abstract universalism not at all germane to the lived concreteness of the student's life world. The emphasis upon "ti" here also underlines the situatedness of curriculum, a primary datum that must be foregrounded in a meaningful subjectivity constructing process.

Put another way, understanding curriculum through shen and ti seeks to bring back students' body into curriculum and makes it contribute to students' intellectual knowing and self-cultivation that leads to subjectivity informing. This provides a strategy for curriculum that such unique significance of students' body should be recognized and cherished as the main source of curriculum experience.

5   Conclusion

When, with these cultural lights shining, this paper attempt to look at the body in curriculum and curriculum itself through the windows of "shen" and "ti", it tend to foreground what is familiar in our own cultural experience but left behind educational reflections with the insights of Chinese body thought, which can be taken as a source of growth and enrichment of curriculum understanding. As we could see from above, both the western expression of "body" and the modern Chinese concept of "shen ti" erase the critical and rich meaning of these two related but distinguishing words. By refusing the dualism of body and mind, and identifying body as a comprehensive unity of body-self and embodied self-cultivation, Chinese body thought provides a way to avoid the risk of body/mind split and opens up new possibilities of embodied curriculum study.

To sum up, through this critical scope of elucidated body understanding in Chinese body philosophy, this study reinforced the very important concern of curriculum as the exploring process of subjectivity. That is, curriculum should take up to reduce the neglect of the body in our curriculum, and value students' bodily experience and that see their body is full of thinking, and thinking that is bodily.

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Curriculum development: Content, context and language learning in Estonia

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Abstract

Globalization processes and new political and social environments (membership of the EU, ICT use) have created new contexts for learning as well as problems; they have greatly changed the meaning of literacy and shifted the functional load of languages for regional and international communication which is directly reflected in the content of language syllabi in National Curricula for general comprehensive schools (NC).

The aim of the study is to specify the opportunities of using the educational heritage and present research for more adequate design of language syllabi for general comprehensive schools. The study is based on works by Allardt (1979), Popkewitz (1987), Goodson (1991), Pinar (2013) et al as well as earlier research on development of foreign language syllabi in Estonia (Poldvere 2003; Tomingas 2009).

As curriculum documents are constantly defined, redefined and negotiated at different levels, opinions of teachers as spokesmen of subject communities and school practice is of particular significance.

The methods used are documentary analysis (NC, syllabi, educational acts n=98), teachers' questionnaires (n=50) and semi-structured interviews (n=15).

Preliminary results showed what factors could be considered for selection of educational content for learning languages and for new supportive learning environments.

Estonia is an interesting example of educational policy making by paying attention to integration of immigrants and learning Estonian as state language. There are less desired developments regarding learning Estonian as mother tongue which is crucial for sustainability of small languages enriching the world cultural heritage and preserving ethnic identities. Informed decision making for rational and suitable language policies for a particular society requires regular research on demand for languages competencies in the region. We also need analyses of earlier curriculum documents and comparative educational research on using specific principles for selection of the content and organizing integrated learning within the language cycle of subjects in the NC.

Keywords: context for educational policy making, curriculum development for general comprehensive schools, content of learning languages, learning environments, language teachers.

1   Introduction

The design of curriculum and selection of content for general education are critical issues for educational systems all over the world. National curricula (NC) as the documents that determine the content of general education are of particular significance as they have to meet the personal expectations of individuals as well as the educational demands of society at large. Globalization processes and new political and social environments (membership in international organizations, such as the EU or OECD, etc.) with widespread use of ICT (Pinar, 2013) have created new contexts for learning. They have greatly changed the meaning of literacy and the value of specific knowledge for everyday life. Although the idea of becoming knowledge-based societies has captivated all countries, determining which knowledge is most useful to a millennial citizen (Muller, 2000: 41) is still heavily debated. The political question "Whose knowledge is worth learning?" is seldom asked. A suitable balance between the traditional and innovative in education has to be a cardinal principle of educational policy making, if we want to reduce uncertainty when designing and planning future education.

However, the educational needs of individuals to communicate locally, regionally and globally have influenced the position of language subjects in all NC. The functional load of languages is constantly changing according to political and social developments, which create demands for particular language skills that will enable labour market mobility, studies abroad, economic and cultural contacts, etc.

The research problem for this study was triggered by public dissatisfaction with the low quality of schooling and achievements as they pertain to students' language skills, especially in their mother tongue, as expressed in various media by universities, employers and parents. The question to be answered was: Why have young people born in independent Estonia acquired reasonably good English skills, but not acquired the expected proficiency in their mother tongue?

Although the decline in the traditional local tri-lingualism in Estonian, Russian and German can be traced to the aftermath of World War II, and especially to regained independence in the 1990s, the future of ethnic, cultural and political identities is nevertheless worrisome.

The aim of the study was to identify the factors influencing language learning by analyzing official historical documents, including all language syllabi according to the Estonian NCs, as well as earlier research on language demand. These materials could provide insights into the socio-political and pedagogical context that might be useful for designing future language syllabi for general comprehensive schools in Estonia and elsewhere.

The methods used were documentary analysis (of the Estonian NC 1917–2011, education acts, language policy and educational strategy documents), semi-structured surveys of teachers (n=50) and interviews (n=15). The documentary analysis was carried out as a historiographical study according to Edelmann et al. (2012) and the Hempel model of deductive-nomological explanation presented by Koller (Koller, 2012: 177–186). The *explanandum* — the event or content of analyzed documents — can be explained by the *explanans* — the factors providing the context for the issues studied. Such an approach reveals the influence of various historical factors on changes in curriculum design and selected content.

As curriculum documents are constantly defined, redefined and negotiated at a number of levels, the opinions of teachers, implementing the NC, were of particular importance as they provided insights into their perception of the NC and its syllabi as guidelines for organizing learning and establishing supportive learning environments, and how they make use of extra-curricular activities and the wider "hidden curriculum" outside of school.

2   How does context influence curriculum development?

The term *context* is generally understood as the situation within which something happens, and which can help to explain it (CALD, 2008: 302), or as circumstances in which something is to be considered (OALD, 1992: 254). The political situation with its constant fluctuations influences all social developments, in particular education.

According to Yates and Grumet (2011):

> "…school curriculum does not take place on some idealized plane, but is constantly informed by and reacting to events. The world that emerges from curriculum is always in conversation with the world outside schooling… And so the world that is named and fixed for the young, is first named and fixed by their parents and grandparents… Arranged and ordered by government directives, and by education bureaucrats, curriculum may appear clear and consistent; nevertheless within its documents, syllabi and practices flourish the contradictions and tensions of our history, our institutions and our politics… Curriculum visions and

practices, economic, social and cultural vulnerabilities generate demands that often thwart each other, or

mute one in order to address another." (pp. 239–240)

Accordingly, it also has to be recognized that the design of curricula is inseparably bound to the culture and period of history considering the knowledge and skills available at that time (Laanemets, 2003: 285–286). The same idea was expressed by Popkewitz (1988) who recommended to understand a curriculum as a political text reflecting social structures, as an institutional text, and as a biographical/autobiographical text in the context of its time (p. 379). When we are talking about causes and effects reflected in curricula at different times, we should try to identify the contextual factors that have proven to be and probably will remain influential in the future. The context is never neutral.

3   What did we learn?

3.1   Historical developments and laws related to languages and language learning

All legal acts serve to set the behavioural rules for the society, and represent the legislated values. The first *Law on Language* was adopted in 1934. Article 1 specified Estonian as the state language and the language of official communication to be used in all spheres of life and throughout the country. Article 5 guaranteed members of ethnic minorities (German, Russian and Swedish) the right to use their languages in school and for official communication.

During the Soviet period (1940–1941 and 1945–1991) Russian was the *lingua franca*, which limited the spheres in which Estonian was used. However, education in the Estonian language was provided at all levels. In 1961, after the Sputnik shock, a special decree was enacted for improving learning of foreign languages, even a network of language-specialized schools was developed in Estonia, which was in many ways regarded as the "Soviet West" and suited to educational experimentation. In 1978 the decree *Regarding further improvements in teaching and learning Russian* was a program aimed at developing Russian-Estonian bilingualism, and Estonian began to lose ground.

A new approach was initiated in 1988 under *perestroika,* and in 1989 *The Language Law of ESSR* was enacted, in which Estonian was declared the official language (Article1) and Russian was unseated as the pan-Union language of communication. The status of Estonian was entrenched in the new *Constitution of Republic of Estonia* (1992, Article 6) and its use in education and official communication was stipulated. The1995 *Law on Language* set the language norms and specified the use of other languages within the country. The aim of the most recent (2011) *Law on Language* is to "develop, preserve and protect the Estonian language" (Article 1). And since 2004, when Estonia joined the EU, Estonian is one of the Union's official languages.

According to the *Education Act of the Republic of Estonia* (1992, Article 4) everyone must be provided with an opportunity to obtain education in Estonian at all levels. The most recent *Law on General Comprehensive Schools* (2013) mandates Estonian as the language of instruction in basic schools and gymnasia. However, other languages can be used with the permission of the Government. In schools with instruction in Russian 60% of the curriculum must be taught in Estonian (Article 21).

3.2   Strategic documents and research related to language learning

Since the 1990s a new approach to formulating language policy has emerged, which is characterized by westernization, the development of wide international contacts, globalization, the use of ICT, and the need to support the linguistic integration of non-Estonians. All aspects of education, not only language learning, had to be altered when the Soviet system collapsed.

A new type of document appeared — strategic plans which often served as drafts for intended legislation and sometimes offered scenarios for action plans. *The Estonian language and ethnic culture 1999–2003* (1999) discussed how the language and culture of an ethnic group of one million could survive under the pressure of mass culture, the hegemony of English and a high proportion of immigrants (see Allardt 1979). The program *The Estonian language and ethnic memory 2004–2008* (2004) was directed towards the development of technological support and an electronic language corps (p. 2). The next iteration of the program *The Estonian language and cultural memory 2009–2013 (2009)* deals with how non-Estonians should use the language (p. 1.3).

Unfortunately, neither *The Estonian language strategy for 2004–2010* (2004) nor *The development plan for the Estonian language 2011-2017* (2011) focus on the activities and problems related to Estonians learning their mother tongue. The dual purpose of Estonian language policy is clear: *de jure,* the status of Estonian has been guaranteed by relevant and numerous legal acts; *de facto,* more attention and resources are dedicated to ethnic minorities' learning Estonian as the state language.

The most recent research on the demand for functional language skills was undertaken in 1988 (Laanemets, 1988), and the only analyses of the development of foreign language syllabi were made in 2003 and 2009 (Poldvere, 2003; Tomingas 2009). The syllabi for Estonian and the role of Estonian in personality development, identity building and as the vehicle for a common culture has not been studied.

3.3   Curricula of various periods, language syllabi and the hidden curriculum

The curricula of 1917–2010 clearly reflect the political changes, demonstrated by the lists of languages learned, the time allotted for learning, and the content. Until 1940 Estonian was taught as the mother tongue, and German, Russian, Greek, Latin, French and English were studied as foreign languages. The time allotted was adequate for acquiring the specified content. Learning a language primarily meant training in speaking, reading, and using basic grammar. At gymnasia classical literature in the language being studied was mostly read in the original (Poldvere, 2003; Tomingas 2009).

The period 1940–1941, when Estonia was occupied by the Soviets, was too brief for major change. The German period followed (1941–1944) during which more emphasis was placed on learning German and German literature. A longer Soviet period followed (1945–1991) during which Estonian remained the language of instruction, but Russian was the language of official communication, and English, German and French were studied as foreign languages. Curricula ceased to exist — the content of learning was specified in new subject programs, which were periodically updated as the political climate changed.

The period since independence was regained (1991–2013) can be described as a time of incessant innovation and educational reform. The NC of 1996, 2002 and 2010 have all reflected humanism, democratic values and freedom of choice. Schools only have to follow the mandatory lesson plan specified for compulsory subjects. Due to political priorities the time for learning Estonian in grades 1–12 has decreased by 490 lessons during the years 1984–2010, while the time for learning English has increased considerably. The changes in content are astonishing — there is no mention of language structure (grammar) or literature in the syllabi for foreign languages, and according to the Estonian language syllabi, language structure is mainly learned at the compulsory school level. At the upper secondary level, the diachronic approach to learning literature has been replaced by a "reader-centered approach" (NC 2010, Appendix 1, 1.3.1.), which is supposed to provide opportunities for individual choice, but also removes the basis for studying the cultural values that underpin ethnic and national identity. The aims expressed in the syllabi are unattainable due to excessive and non-integrated content.

The opportunity to blend the language syllabi in the NC with elements of the "hidden curriculum" also deserves attention in the context of the Estonian educational experience, as there are factors which can contribute to enrichment of learning and develop cultural as well as linguistic awareness. For this reason, visiting museums, attending theatre performances, meeting writers, participating in public speaking and literary competitions, festivals, conferences, etc. should be considered when designing NC (Kalamees-Ruubel & Laanemets, 2012: 216–226), if learning at school is to have meaning for young people.

3.4   Teachers' opinions of language syllabi in NC

The research project on teachers' opinions (2010–2011) focused on their comprehension of the syllabi in the NCs. They evaluated how well the general goals of education corresponded to the aims stated in the syllabi and how the selected content of studies reflected the reality of the language situation and students' interests. Teachers also described how prepared they were to implement the new NC and how useful they considered the support provided by the state.

The answers indicated that teachers felt uncertain about the NC. The responsibility and competence to develop integrated curricula at the school level is a matter of controversy. As 66% of respondents were delivering up to 30 lessons per week, they often considered school curriculum development additional unpaid work. 45% of respondents reported having to write formal documents that had to be handed in.

Teachers were quite critical of the selected content (38%), the inadequate number of lessons allotted to reaching the learning targets (90%), dropping learning language structures at the upper secondary level (70%), and rejecting the diachronic approach to learning literature (75%). They also worried about missing opportunities to integrate language subjects with other arts (55%). 95% of respondents having priores experience of extra-curricular activities recommended wider blending of formal and informal learning. 40% were critical of the content of in-service training provided.

Despite the small sample of respondents, there seem to be clear indications that something is wrong. Considering introduction of new curricula, we might agree with Widdowson (1990): "Individual teachers may be highly effective in making their own way by an intuitive sense of direction" (p. 1), but NC reform cannot be undertaken by shifting all the responsibility onto teachers, who lack the time, energy and competence to perform tasks beyond their powers.

4   Conclusion

Identifying the context in which learning is organized and takes place is essential to the design of NC and language syllabi. The factors and elements that comprise the context must be regularly researched. The heritage of the past, influences such as globalization, ICT, political aspirations, and the social and cultural values of a society reflected in the learning content, the opportunities of the hidden curriculum, and the professionalism of teachers are the important factors, which, if competently analyzed, could contribute to informed decisions about education and reduce uncertainty about future developments.

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Towards competency curriculum. The large-scale process at a private mexican university

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Abstract

Higher education founded the transmissive view of learning and disciplinary cumulative knowledge has been exceeded by a dynamic and complex reality that requires comprehensive formation of competent and innovative professionals. In this context some universities in Mexico redesign their curricula under the competencies approach according to identified needs and the mission of the university, from a constructivist vision, emphasizing the achievement of generic, discipline-specific and professional competencies.

This document explains the process of redesigning 20 degree programs in a university with about 100 thousand students in higher education. The process had three phases: diagnostic research, curriculum design and validation.

In the first phase we conducted a comprehensive diagnostic about professional development, labor market, and educational offer to establish the key issues that each profession solves and design socially relevant professional profiles. Was analyzed technically the curriculum in operation, its consistency with indicators of professional quality and were conducted national surveys with graduates to identify the strengths and weaknesses of programs.

In the second phase we worked collaboratively with faculty from more than 20 campus for nearly two years to redesign the purposes of each program and the competencies, as well as in the definition of curricular maps. Were proposed constructivist teaching and learning strategies, centered on the student, consistent with authentic assessment strategies based on evidence of performance.

In the last phase, the programs were validated with experts from the areas of knowledge, as well as external curriculum designers and professional associations by applying different validation tools.

The curriculum redesign has triggered a process of institutional change regarding the implementation of the curriculum, teacher training, professional practices and decision making in different areas of the university.

Keywords: curriculum change, competency-based approach, higher education.

1   Introduction

The process described in this paper was undertaken in the Universidad del Valle de México, founded in 1960 in México City. The UVM trademark and its 11 campuses were acquired in 2000 by the Laureate International Universities, (before then Sylvan International Universities). Since then the International Formation is emphasized, English language dominion and a strong reinforcement as a Global University. 38 campuses located throughout the national territory with more than 120 thousand students in medium superior and superior education conform it.

In this context and in fulfillment with the Superior Education Regulatory Agreement, in each Bachelor's Degree generation graduation a curricular actualization is undertaken. In 2011 and in accordance to curricular changes that are taken into account nowadays in the National Education System in all of its levels, it was decided to change the curriculum focus to Competencies, and it was declared as the Institution's Educational Model in 2009.

The re-designed educational programs are organized by knowledge area in accordance to the next table:

Knowledge Area	Bachelor's Degree Program	Master's Degree Programs
Art, Architecture and design	- Graphic Design - Industrial Design - Fashion and Fashion Industry Design	-
Social Sciences	- Communication Sciences - Law - Pedagogy - International Relations	- Competencies based Education - Andragogy - Educational competencies - Tutoring - Management of educative institutions - Educational innovation and technology - Teaching practice - Tax law - Criminal science
Hospitality	- Gastronomic Bussiness	
Engineering	- Civil - Industrial and Systems - Industry Mechanics - Computing Systems - Telecomunications and Electronics	
Bussiness	- Bussiness Administration - International Commerce - Public Accounting and Finances - International Bussiness	

Table 1. Redesigned programs

From this key decision the curricular change began with programs with greater enrollment, and through complex processes incorporating strategic actors from the educational organization and it is described in detail here fore.

2   The Competencies Focus and the Curricula

We understand competencies as the ability to move diverse cognitive resources to affront different kind of situations, (Perrenoud, 2007) and even if the author emphasizes in the competencies cognitive aspect they are not circumscribed to it. The same author outlines four key aspects in its definition:

-It is a knowledge, skills and abilities orchestration.

- Are tightly attached to the context on which are developed, they are situational.

-They imply complex operations in order to articulate three elements in relation to defined situations.

- They are developed in the training and in practical work in real situations.

Le Boterf (2001) defines them as "knowing how to act in a work context, combined and moving the necessary resources to the achievement of an excellent result and its validation in a work situation".

For the Educational Model purposes, competencies were classified in (1) generic: transversal and specific to each profession; (2) professional basic: those that are proper to one knowledge area; (3) professional specific: particular of each profession.

On reference to the curriculum concept, we understand with Pinar (2012:31) that "this happens through conversation within and across the school subjects and academic disciplines". Nevertheless it's clear that curricular conception is attached to economic and social development and technical formation and for the workplace, (Moreno, 2010). The competencies focus does not suppose on itself the curricular subordination to technical formation or the neglect of the profession's theoretical and methodological knowledge, which is one of its main challenges.

The change into a competencies model implies also a redefinition of the academic process, the teachers' preparation and the rethinking of the University's organization. With this renovation on sight it was proposed to develop a gradual advance from non-competencies based focus to a model completely based on competencies. In accordance to Wesselink, Biemans, Mulder and Van den Elsen (2007) the road must be progressive and implies at least two intermediate phases of the development between both extremes.

3   Methodology and Design Process

The methodology followed for the curricular design was developed from (a) a systemic focus that implied the visualization of not only the studies plan, but the profound study of the employment alternatives, the characteristics of professional profiles that graduate from the university classroom from different universities, as well as the institutional communication model and the teacher's formation from the adopted focus. (b) It is participative because it incorporates different organizational actors from the central areas up to faculty from at least 20 campuses, as well as graduates and undergraduates interested in graduating from the university. (c) Integral and (d) continual as it is carried out periodically incorporating the university formation in it's wholeness.

The stages that constitute the curricular methodology begin with (1) research and curricular evaluation followed by (2) collaborative work for the development of the career foundation, professional's profile determination, organization and curricular structure to finally (3) validate the curricular proposal with external experts.

3.1   Research and Curricular Evaluation

The curricular process based upon Frida Díaz Barriga and other's (2010) methodological proposal was initiated with internal and external evaluation from which the foundation of each career was re-evaluated from its foundation as well as the professional profile, the organization and curricular structure.

Through the internal evaluation it was possible to identify:

a)   Pertinence and validity of plans and programs linked to society's needs, in comparison to the study plan with competencies and profiles identified by professional colleges, and also by certifiers and accreditors organisms.
b)   The student's knowledge, abilities, skills, attitudes and values acquired through the analysis of standardized national examinations dimensions and the results obtained by them.
c)   The objectives, competencies and contents coherence and congruency in the curricular plan, and also subject order content consistency and its horizontal and vertical sequence through curricular analysis.
d)   The existence and application of technological resources and campus infrastructure to obtain results in each plan.

The external evaluation stated:

a)   The impact of the professional practice through different in depth interviews and surveys to graduates developing their work in the professional field.
b)   The work field, actual and prospective situation of each career, its graduates absorbing capacity, the demands of potential employers through the documental and statistical analysis and from the application of on-line questionnaires and industry leaders focus groups.
c)   The status of the educational environment through the identification of similar programs attending the same social needs.

The initial research allowed a clear identification of the social needs through the consultation of its actors and beneficiaries, the academic community, professionals and guilds (Díaz Barriga, 2009), and the pose of a realistic set in accordance to the services given to society by the educational programs as well as its relation to the graduate situation and the developing possibilities of each and every professional career.

3.2   Collaborative Work

In the second phase the work was undertaken in a collaborative way with the faculty from at least 20 campuses beginning with the data analysis from the previous research. Career committees were constituted integrated by expert teachers, the accrediting organism representative, external professionals coordinated by curricular experts. The committees worked in collaboration with the division directors (knowledge area) and Academic Regional Deans.

The committees worked trough out the professional field notion (Chan, 2003), defined key problems solved by each profession and the competencies that must move for it, establishing this way, the graduate 's professional profile in accordance with the competencies matrix that related the latter with specific subjects trough the formative path.

Teaching-learning strategies were established as well as learning based upon problems, case method and situated projects that wage upon the development of critical thinking and for promoting intrinsic motivation and an in depth learning focus that answers to new demands from the knowledge society, as it also allows competencies development, facilitates the link between real life learning and academic life; and outlines the role of others, mediation and communication in the learning (Coll and Monereo, 2008).

The evaluation strategies were proposed from a formative focus that allow students to have a continual and quality feedback in accordance to their performance and that through this range via they reach the competencies outlined by the graduate profile.

3.3   Validation

Once defined the social problems that the graduate must solve, graduate profiles, competencies to develop, curricular map, and study plan we validated the proposals with external experts from each knowledge area, as well as with an external team formed by four experts in curricular design. Seven Bachelor's Degree programs were redesigned as a total sample, and were selected for its high volume demand that group and these were: Business Administration, Marketing, Systems Engineering, Computing Systems Engineering, Communication, Graphic Design and Psychology. On the other hand the Masters in Competencies Based Education as the orientations in Andragogy, Management of Educative Institutions; Tutoring, Educational Innovation and Technology and Basic Education were validated.

The validation comprehended the revision of 20 aspects separated into 69 indicators for the evaluation of the study plan in accordance to congruency, relevance and sufficiency of the study cycle, objectives, graduate profile, time of independent study, class work, practice, curricular flexibility and 58 subject program indicators, such as precision, focus and objective integration content, strategies, evaluation and study materials.

Evaluators presented qualitative and detailed informs with suggestions for the plan's improvements previous to the handing to educative national authorities.

4   Conclusions

The upgrading of the university curriculum is a continual process that aims in first place, to keep on with the social change and the developing needs it arises, that is why educational institutions establish continuing improvement programs that incorporate innovation to the study plan.

The curricular change to a competencies based focus demands first of all the standing of the university towards innovations and assuming such focus not only to its educational model expression, but in the elaboration of its plans and programs that reflect the career approach from a complex vision that encircle the different social needs in a continuing and dynamic.

Although the curricular change begins with the curricular conception and design implies as well an adapting and change process that obliges the organization to work in each and every dimension and levels under this focus. That is why the change in the curriculum management and the administration of the university's space and its resources must focus in the achievement of the proposed professional profiles and to lead students to a successful development in the professional and citizenship fields.

Likewise the curricular change towards competencies implies the teacher's formation, first of all, sensitizing to the change and shaping them in the teaching-learning strategies and the evaluation that these new focuses demand. And on the students behalf it is required that they must understand the educational model, the profession on which they are forming and that they acknowledge the new way of learning in the University, (Díaz Barriga & Martínez, 2011).

The curricular change process at the UVM achieved in this first stage the updating of 18 Bachelor's Degree and 9 postgraduate programs towards the competencies focus, alienating itself institutionally with the tendency in education in the Mexican context. The process involved a strong curricular evaluation as well as a social needs research and at least 200 university teachers participated in the process sharing their experience and knowledge on the professional field and some external actors that enriched with their input the development of programs and plans.

During the external evaluation of this first stage some problems were detected regarding the precision of professional profiles, as well as in relation to competencies to be reached. Due to the fact that this is a process in continuous revision, work in the next curricular concretion and its updating and correction is continually needed. Simultaneously teacher's formation in teaching-learning strategies is being developed based on this approach.

The re-designed programs began their operation in august 2012 with students in 37 campuses, and nowadays the curricular evaluation strategy is being worked on and the continuation of its implantation on the classroom.

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Bringing Disability Awareness into the General Curriculum

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Abstract

The increased movement fostering inclusion of students with additional support needs into general education classrooms raised the need to introduce discussions about issues concerning the full participation of students with disabilities within educative contexts. The expansion of interaction opportunities resulting from the inclusion of students with disabilities in regular classrooms was expected to guarantee itself the conditions for the development of positive attitudes in typically developing students. However, evidence seems to contradict such claim. Considered as one of the main constraints to inclusion, negative attitudes manifest themselves through events such as interaction avoidance, bullying and teaser behaviours towards students with disabilities, compromising their social and academic development. In order to face this problem, several initiatives emphasize the advantages of infusing disability awareness programs into the general curriculum, due to its potential as a privileged instrument to promote learning and the development of positive values as well. Disability awareness programs are grounded on the postulation that behaviours can be changed through interventions that consider cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions of attitudes. Programs evaluation results show improvements in attitudes, knowledge and social acceptance of students with disabilities endorsed by typically developing peers. Thereby, reflecting on evidence from international empirical experiences, this paper aims to draw a framework for developing a disability awareness program that can help teachers to address disabilities issues in their lessons. Particularly, based on the exploration of disability awareness programs as an effective strategy to improve attitudes towards students with disabilities, we will consider the following questions: (1) Why should we teach about disabilities in the general curriculum? (2) To what extent are teachers being prepared in their initial education to deal with disability issues within classrooms? (3) What contents are commonly approached in disability awareness programs? (4) What types of disability awareness interventions demonstrate higher levels of efficacy?

Keywords: inclusive education; children with disabilities; disability awareness; general curriculum; peers' attitudes

1   Introduction

The demand to include students with disabilities into the regular classroom with opportunity to access the general curriculum raised the need to introduce, in that same curriculum, topics about the meaning and experiences of disabilities within educative contexts. Such need seems to be specially relevant since empirical evidence has been demonstrating that – despite the confirmed educational and social benefits of inclusive education for students with and without disabilities (Mrug & Wallander, 2002; Pijl & Frostad, 2010) – equity in access to education doesn´t automatically ensure the full participation and social acceptance of students with disabilities (McDougall, DeWit, King, Miller, & Killip, 2004). The quality of educational contexts (Nilholm & Alm, 2010), attitudes from teachers (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002) and typically developing peers (Vignes et al., 2009), as well as teachers' initial and continuous training (European Agency for the Development of Special Needs Education [EADSNE], 2010) gain emphasis among the most studied factors impacting on the inclusive school development. In particular, this paper aims to draw a framework for developing disability awareness programs that can help teachers to address disability issues in classrooms, constituting therefore an effective resource to improve positive attitudes in typically developing peers.

1.1   Need for teaching about disability issues within the general curriculum

According to Allport's *contact theory* (Slininger, Sherrill, & Jankowski, 2000) and Zajonc's *mere exposure theory* (2001), the inclusion of students with disabilities in regular schools is expected to guarantee itself conditions for the development of positive attitudes in typically developing peers resulting from the expansion of interaction opportunities between students with and without disabilities. However, research showed that the access of students with disabilities to inclusive contexts doesn't ensure spontaneous interactions (Diamond & Tu, 2009), nor the development of positive attitudes (Rillotta & Nettelbeck, 2007). Indeed, typically developing peers commonly don´t establish interactions with students with disabilities, unless they are prompted to do so (Frea, Craig-Unkefer, Odom, & Johnson, 1999) and, without intervention, they tend to show reduced levels of social acceptance and negative attitudes towards students who have disabilities (Favazza, Phillipsen, & Kumar, 2000). Considered as one of the major constraints to the inclusion of students with disabilities (McDougall et al., 2004; WHO & World Bank, 2011), negative attitudes manifest themselves through events such as social interaction avoidance, bullying and teaser behaviors (Llewellyn, 2000). In these circumstances, students with disabilities are likely to experience reduced feelings of belonging, security, and acceptance, leading to maladaptive social skills, withdrawal socialization (Hogan, McLellan, & Bauman, 2000) and problems in academic achievement (Cook, 2002). Students with disabilities report several attitudinal barriers, including inappropriate comments and behaviors endorsed by others as the worst aspect of their scholar experience (Hogan et al., 2000).

In order to face this problem and promote the full participation of students with disabilities, several initiatives have been taken to change negative attitudes endorsed by typically developing peers through the implementation of disability awareness programs in regular education classrooms (e.g., Ison et al., 2010; Yu, Ostrosky, & Fowler, 2012). Ferguson (2001) went further and discussed the importance of making disability awareness instruction part of the general curriculum, through which students should be taught about disability and the importance of valuing individual differences. The underlying core idea relies on considering the curriculum a key instrument for the promotion of learning and developmental experiences (Pacheco, 2005). Therefore, bearing in mind the role that education can play in challenging disabling attitudes and in building inclusive societies (Beckett, 2009), the infusion of disability awareness programs into the general curriculum would represent a preventive approach to reduce negative attitudes and barriers to the inclusion of students with disabilities, as well as it would prepare all students to adopt ethical and moral principles of valuing individual differences.

1.2   Attendance for teaching about disabilities issues in teachers' initial education

Due to the responsibility for implementing the curriculum in the classroom and given the daily contact with students with and without disabilities, teachers are in a privileged position to foster positive attitudes in typically developing students towards people with disabilities. In this sense, Forlin (2008) points out that the teachers' role concerns not only to inform and facilitate learning but also to behave as a model for guiding the ethic and moral development of their students, acknowledging that the way teachers interact with students with disabilities influences students' behavior and attitudes towards their peers with disabilities (Cook, 2002). Although, in order to potentiate the inclusion of students with disabilities, teachers need to feel able and competent to create a classroom environment that facilitates the learning of all students (WHO & World Bank, 2011). In a recent national Portuguese survey, Sanches-Ferreira et al. (2010) noted that regular teachers report a lack of knowledge to deal with students with disabilities inside classrooms. In the EADSNE *Teacher Education for Inclusion* report (2010), initial teachers' training in inclusive education was identified as an important variable for facilitating the progress of inclusive education efforts in schools. However, despite the developments in special education systems, it is still common to graduate in teaching without having any theoretical and practical training on inclusive education (Sanches-Ferreira & Micaelo, 2010). Within this context, the infusion of disability awareness programs into the general curriculum can be seen as an instrumental tool to evaluate the fit of initial teachers' training curricula in fulfilling the role of preparing professionals – with knowledge, skills, values and attitudes – to teach all students.

1.3   Contents of disability awareness programs

The contents of current disability awareness programs vary as a function of the identification of students' needs. In 1994, Raabe proposed a set of guiding questions to build disability awareness programs, including: "*are there physical and attitudinal barriers that need to be broken?*": "*are students aware of similarities. as well as differences?*": "*do*

students know how to interact with their peers with disabilities?"; *"do students realize that people are more alike than different?"*; *"have students learned to celebrate the unique disabilities of each individual?"*. Two nuclear contents can be protruded beyond these questions: (1) understanding what means to live with disabilities; (2) accepting individual differences (Beckett, 2009; Diamond & Tu, 2009). There exist a number of disability awareness teaching resources which commonly include the aforementioned contents addressed through activities that focus on: factual information about particular disabilities; exploring myths and stereotypes about disability; understanding the effects of disability in daily activities such as moving around; understanding similarities and differences between everyone; rights and responsibilities, including UN Human rights (e.g., "Just Like You", "Friends who care", "Count Us In! Curriculum Support Package").

Moreover, an emergent debate on disability awareness programs points out the importance of promoting students' understanding of disability framed by the Social Model of Disability. In this sense, the conceptualization of disability should reflect the most suitable approach to promote the full participation of students with disabilities in regular schools (Beckett, 2009).

1.4 Types of disability awareness programs

The assumption behind the development of disability awareness programs is that the attitudes from typically developing peers towards students with disabilities reflect their beliefs about persons with disabilities and predicts behaviours endorsed towards them (Ajzen, 2005). Attitudes are often described as having three related components including: the cognitive domain of ideas and beliefs upon which the attitude is based; the affective domain of emotional feelings about the object; and the behavioral domain of intended actions that corresponds to assumptions or beliefs (Triandis, 1971). Thereby, disability awareness programs incorporate techniques to modify attitudes towards persons with disabilities. In this sense, Triandis, Adamopoulos and Brinberg (1984) identified three broad strategies for changing attitudes: (1) information – providing accurate information about disabilities; (2) behavioural modification – setting up situations in which the target person is rewarded when she/he makes a positive response to a person with disabilities; (3) experiential – creating conditions and situations in which the experiences of the target person in the presence of people with disabilities would be positive. Supported by the premise that behaviors can be changed through interventions that reflect the multidimensional nature of attitudes, disability awareness programs are described as more effective for successful attitude-change when using a combined approach, which promotes positive contact experiences with persons with disabilities and provides information and knowledge about disabilities (e.g., Krahé & Altwasser, 2007). It seems that a combined approach is an effective strategy to foster positive attitudes towards students with disabilities. The challenge relies on the infusion of such programs into the general curriculum, so that disability awareness activities turn out to be intentional and systematic rather than episodic practices.

2 Conclusion

The infusion of disability awareness programs into the general curriculum was presented as a relevant strategy to foster inclusive education through the enhancement of knowledge about disability, the improvement of positive attitudes towards people with disabilities and acceptance of peers with disabilities. International experiences report disability awareness programs addressing two main contents: (1) understand what means to live with disabilities; (2) accept individual differences. Supported by the premise that behaviors can be changed through interventions that reflect the multidimensional nature of attitudes, disability awareness programs are described as more successful when using a combined approach merging the promotion of positive contact experiences with the provision of information and knowledge about disabilities. As stated, teachers have a critical role in the process of modeling attitudes of typically developing peers towards students with disabilities and consequently in the process of maximizing their inclusion. However, some existing reports suggest that this nuclear role is not being conveniently addressed in initial teacher training programs.

Based on the presented arguments, it is our belief that bringing disability awareness into the general curriculum is a basic condition for the sustainability of inclusive education.

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Prescribed outlook to change:
A critique of the newly devised National Curriculum (NC) in the Iranian educational context

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Abstract

Over the last 30 years, efforts to raise educational standards and improve schooling in I.R. of Iran have been a matter of great concern to policy makers and educators. This has generated a state of constant alteration to schools and has at times led to the initiation of dramatic changes and reforms in the education system. In this line of prolonged endeavor, recently (March, 2013) and after 5 years of concentrated study and deliberation, the first Iranian National Curriculum was formally introduced and made available to the public and, as a macro policy document, would be expected to have significant impact on Iranian schooling and educational settings in upcoming years.

This article focuses on the Iranian national curriculum and by examining its structure and orientation in its socio-cultural background, find how this document attempts to enact the multitude and sometimes contradictory policy directives embedded in the document. To be more specific the article detects and highlights tacit perceptions of the curriculum document designer and policy makers with respect to teachers as policy subject and policy actors, and will also try to show how they can interpret the document and translate it into practice.

Keywords: National Curriculum, education policy, teachers' involvement, curriculum reform, policy into practice.

1   Introduction

Over the last 30 years, efforts to raise educational standards and improve schooling in I.R. of Iran have been a matter of great concern to policy makers and educators. After the Iranian revolution in 1979, education regarded as a major infrastructure by the leaders and governments, has been one of the highly controversial public issues in the Iranian new society. But educational policy debates, due to economic and social conditions, were visionary and utopian; and so, educational changes have never been more than restructure, often including somewhat dramatic structural alteration with little substantive change in direction and the content of policy and practice. They were more pedagogical than educational, and usually have ignored the culture in which they were embedded. As a result in the early 21th century, the Iranian schooling was still old-fashioned, curriculum was understood as just prescribed texts, educational goals and aims were narrowed down to objectives, teachers' role was just to transfer formal knowledge by controlling the student through straight instruction, and evaluation, based on the combination of standard and non-standard pen-and paper final exams, was a judgment for assessing the academic achievements and not the educational progress.

Therefore, it is not surprising that, this kind of ineffective and old-fashioned educational system couldn't persist longer, and opened the possibility to envision a future of educational excellence. Thus, the new Iranian education system results in development of the first Iranian National Curriculum (INC) which derives its attributes from a group of contemporary and mutual demands and initiatives, including (1) the first Iranian educational constitution, named "the Fundamental Reform Document of Education (FRDE) in the Islamic Republic of Iran"; (2) global concerns and

issues; (3) demands for progressive pedagogy among scholars and academics; (4) policies of the government for inclusion and social accountability; and (5) economic needs, interests and capabilities of a developing country.

This paper consider key features of the Iranian National Curriculum (INC) and its key features are rooted on these demands and initiatives. Particularly, it examines the voice and agency of the teachers and challenges confronting their roles in the INC's policy implementation. Accordingly, it also seeks to examine how much and to what extent the INC can be successful as expected by its founders. The paper argues that, contrary to all stakeholder (civil and/or government) expectations, the role and ability of teachers as key agents to implement the policy confronts with great problems. Consequently, the effectiveness of the INC at this point, we hold, is open to question.

2   The Shape, Structure and Key Features of the Iranian National Curriculum

the Iranian National Curriculum (INC) provides backdrop for "the planning, implementation and evaluation of the curriculum development both in national and local level in the Islamic Republic of Iran based on educational Islamic philosophy" (INC 2013, p.4). The INC is assumed to furnish "the comprehensive road map of learning, and widespread, deep and multidimensional groundwork of reform in educational contents and concepts" (INC, 2013, p.3). It has been enacted by the Islamic Republic of Supreme Council of Education in 2013. The INC is responsible for a national curriculum from preschool (6 years old) to Year 12, in eleven specified learning areas. These are regarded as tools to encompass traditional separate-subject matters of school, to make connection between them, and to envision integration within and across the different disciplines as well as developing and organizing the core curriculum. The aforementioned learning areas include Islamic Knowledge and Philosophy; Quran (Holly Islamic scripture) and Arabic language; Farsi (Persian) literature and language; Arts and Culture; Health and Physical Science; Work and Technology; Humanities and Social Studies; Mathematics; Basic Science; Foreign Linguae; and Life Skills and Family Foundation.

The establishment of the INC can be seen as an outcome of many years of national collaboration in education. Initial attempts to develop such document started in 2006 by Ministry of Education. Later, a team of scholars, supported by the expert advisory groups drafted the first version of the INC. After 2010, its development is informed by "the Fundamental Reform Document of Education (FRDE) in the Islamic Republic of Iran", which is formally introduced by the Supreme Council of Cultural Revolution (SCCR) and the Supreme Council of Education (SCE). The key contribution of FRDE to the INC can be fully understood in the notion of Hayat Tayebah (the ideal Islamic life) which try to demonstrate the notion of educated person in the new educational setting as its noble aim and aspiration:

> An ideal condition for all dimensions and stages of human life, based on Islamic system of norms (foundations and values accepted by the divine religion of Islam), realization of which shall lead to the ultimate goal of life, i.e. to draw near to God. Such a life requires a conscious and volitional relationship with the reality of creation (Almighty God) and intensification of such relationship at all individual and social dimensions commensurate with such system of norms. Thus, one of the major characteristics of *Hayate Tayyebah* is to emphasize the ultimate values of life (Drawing near to Allah) and its relevant system of norms i.e. the values and principles accepted by Islam. Since, considering the necessity of the submission to Almighty God, as the sole creator of the world and human being, this system of norms defines the basic direction towards the achievement of *Hayate Tayyebah* at all the relevant stages and dimensions. Hence, the optional and conscious adoption of divine system of norms and adjustment of all dimensions of life with this system (virtue) is the distinction between *Hayate Tayyebah* and the prevalent secular life, the zenith of the former is achieved in the promised Mahdavi society (Belief in Mahdi, the prophesied redeemer of Islam who will rule the world before the Day of Judgment and will rid the world of wrongdoings, injustice and tyranny), discussed earlier in the introduction section of this document (FRDE, 2011, p.13).

As a result, in 2011 the third draft released for a round of public consideration and review, is evaluated and critiqued by academics among which was the Iranian Curriculum Studies Association (ICSA) (e.g. Mehrmohammadi, Hassani, & Sabaghzadeh, 2011) which resulted in the publication of a subsequent version of the document. The fourth draft, in 2012, is introduced to the decision making body (HCE) for adoption. The INC, finally, was approved with some minor corrections and formally adopted as a policy document in 2013.

The INC is promoted with 11 far reaching principles that highlight main concerns and visions, and guides all deliberations with respect to "policy making, organizing, and administrating curricula and educational programs from national to school level" (INC, 2013, p.9). These far reaching principles include religious orientation (which has priority over others); national identity improvement; pivotal role of the learner; recognition of the authoritative role of the

teacher (educator); pivotal of the basic role of family; holism or rounded education; legitimation of differences; balance; lifelong learning, being participatory and collaborative, integration and inclusion.

The conceptual model guiding the identification of educational goals is the first key element of the INC which contains a matrix table of 5 elements (Wisdom, Faith, Knowledge, Action, Ethics) and 4 arenas (Self; God; People; Creature), that incorporate common educational goals to be pursued through 11 learning areas.

arenas / elements	In relation with Self	In relation with God	In relation with People	In relation with Creature
Wisdom				
Faith				
Knowledge				
Action				
Ethics				

Table 1- the INC conceptual model of educational goals; Wisdom has priority to other elements (INC, 2013, p.15)

The second key element is the notion of common competencies, assumed to be the shared repertoire of all students to be acquired within the 12 years of schooling. The basic competencies are "extended definition of main goals of curricula" (INC 2013, pp. 16-19). Overall, INC include 33 basic competencies which are divided through 5 elements of the conceptual model of educational goals and try to restates the educational goals and objectives in the light of *Hayate Tayyebah.*

The 11 areas of learning, as the third key elements, express "contents, methods, processes, and key elements of learning" (INC 2013, p.19) and are described with an independent statement containing rationale, domains and the main orientation of content organization and instruction which are suggested to be highly integrated especially in general education stage, that is through 9th grade. The schooling structure is divided between 2 sections, elementary and secondary, each section is further divided into two stages, First (junior) and Second (senior), that in total represent the school years from year 1 to year 12. The elementary and the junior high school comprise the general education, and the senior high school (year 10, 11 and 12) is the part of semi-professional education. The pre-school education is formal but not yet mandatory and is included in the INC.

The INC sets out the sequence of learning experiences, core curriculum, and instruction methods offered by schools. The core curriculum is based mainly on the INC and partly on state, district and school-made curricula and contains prescriptive (mandatory or core), semi- prescriptive (elective) and non- prescriptive (optional) parts Moreover the evaluation process for "conduct, decision making, and accountability with regard to the extent of effectiveness, implementation, achievements and outcomes," takes place based on "continuous monitoring and evaluation of data, gathered from quantitative and qualitative evaluation cycles done each 2 or 3 years". The evaluation findings may be counted toward "changes and revision in each 5 to 10 year interval" (INC, 2013, pp. 49-50).

3   Teachers' Voices and Agency

According to the INC, teachers' agency is the most important factor in the implementation of curricula and educational programs in the new educational context. The INC envisions the teacher as a "learner and educational researcher", as a "guide and learning facilitator", as a "symbol of righteousness and insight in the path of holly prophets and immaculate Imams". the teacher has the responsibility of "adjustment, development, implementation and evaluation of curricula and the educational program in classrooms" and have to "build-up the growth of wisdom, faith, knowledge, action and ethics in them" by "recognizing and developing the existential capacities of students and creating educational and instructional opportunities to understand and engage the ongoing modification of their situation" (INC, 2012, p.12). The INC also, articulates that, "the curricula and educational programs must prepare continuous development of teachers' ideological, ethical, vocational and professional qualifications and competencies" (INC, 2012, p.9).

Although the INC regards teachers as major agents for a successful implementation, it may lead to certain problems and complications. The most and major one is the "danger of over-politicizing educational issues" (Young, 2000).

Teachers' agency in the INC is seen from a political standpoint, rather than an educational one. As a result, the language of the INC hardly makes sense and is comprehensible for teachers and other practitioners. The main concepts and features of the INC are mostly rhetorical than practical. For instance, envisioning teachers "as a leader and a symbol of righteousness and insight" for "building-up the growth of wisdom, faith, knowledge, action and ethics in the students" does not reflect the educational roles of a teacher which are facilitating critical thinking, engaging students in the learning activities, transmitting the formal knowledge, transcending the objectives and skills to acquire competencies, and constructing the self or social knowledge.

Moreover, the INC exceeds all expectations, but make little room for teachers' creativity and autonomy. In other words, while teachers are assigned a crucial agency for the "adjustment, development, implementation and evaluation of curricula and the educational program in classroom", they are not in a position to perform such tasks. It is worth noting here, they are expected to teach prescribed textbooks which are provided by experts. Their tasks especially seems hard enough, if we consider the INC's conceptual model of educational goals which implies 33 basic competencies in each of 4 arena in 11 learning areas by integrative educational approach. This task seems hard enough, to give a sense of disability to even professional teachers and leave no room for the exercise of their personal visions and creativity. Additionally, in the non- prescriptive (optional) part of the curriculum (which is from 10 to 20 percent of curriculum), supposedly reflecting the autonomy of teacher and school, district, and state, the INC is silent as to what extent each stake holder is permitted to intervene. This practically results in marginalizing the autonomy of the teacher in an educational system that suffers from a historical record of being closed and centralized.

The next factor that marginalize the teachers' voices and undermine their agency lies in the notion of change and reform itself. The dramatic change of schooling culture, as it is required by the INC, only occurs when commonly held assumptions, norms, values, and practices of participants and stakeholders change. This kind of change demands more than just partial alterations and modifications. It demands *reculturing,* and, thus, is a transformation to something quite different. It breaks with the past and requires new learning, and calls for collaborating of stockholders (Joseph, 2011, p.55). Reculturing curriculum has its own obstacles, and one of the most powerful ones is teachers resistance, as Russel argues even experienced teachers may depend upon the memory of their own days as students, putting into action the conservative, familiar images of what is proper, possible, and efficient in a classroom setting (Russell, 1993, cited in Joseph, 2011). Reculturation needs its own prerequisites such as supportive policy and changes that are not embedded in the INC, it needs to reconsider schooling, change organizations and reestablish settings. It is worth to take Eisner's "ecological character of schools" notion into consideration:

> it is important to redefine the scope of professional work for a teacher: to diversify the sorts of responsibilities that a teacher can have in the course of a career, to make available to teachers opportunities to perform services, and to pursue professional visions within the school that would enhance the quality of education for the students who attend (Eisner, 1995, p.108).

4   Conclusion

Following attempts to raise educational standards and improve schooling in I.R. of Iran, Iranian National Curriculum, has been developed in light of fundamental reform in educational system for "realization of the lofty values and ideals of the Islamic Revolution requires all–round efforts in cultural, scientific, social and economic dimensions." it is resulted in the Iranian National Curriculum (INC) as a macro policy document. The INC departure from a traditional, old-fashioned, teacher oriented, behavioristic and secular education, to the Islamic, modern, more learner oriented, plural and democratic education by radical changes. The INC seeks to give an active role and great autonomy to the teachers' agency for implementation of policy.

However, due to some obstacles, the agency of the teachers can be lowered and marginalized to somehow policy worker or change broker. We argue while the INC seeks to redesign and modification the context and content of the curriculum and schooling, its expectations of the teacher's role is exceeding and contrary at the same time.

We believe any transformative educational reform shouldn't assume the pedagogical, curricular and educational issues as given. The development of a national document is not achieved just by conversations among scholars and policy makers, or among practitioners and stakeholders. It requires an involvement of all voices and aspirations through ongoing debates and deliberation. Moreover, a national document should be able to make sense for all involving parties by choosing a clear theoretical and educational language, and avoiding the vagueness and ambiguities. It has to support and guarantee the autonomy of its agents, especially teachers, and support their roles and meet their needs by a take a holistic and comprehensive notion of change into consideration. Simply, in an

educational reform, the more that change policies be clear and geared to implementation, the more make a success is realistic.

Acknowledgement

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Improving curriculum through pupils consultation. Outcomes of an ongoing research developed in Cantabria (Spain)

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Abstract

This paper arises from a research project that has been developed since the 2010-11 academic year to date by the University of Cantabria (Spain)[1]. The core objective of this project is to improve the curriculum and the organization of schools by increasing student participation in the construction of more democratic learning communities. From the methodological point of view, the project is recognized in the qualitative research paradigm, clearly inspired by ethnographic techniques. It has been developed through 5 stages: 1) Entry in the school, 2) Needs assessment and return of information, 3) Pupil consultation, 4) Improvement activities and 5) Assessment. We have worked with different schools from all levels of compulsory education (pre-school, primary and secondary) and so-called "second track" programs. In this paper we will make a comparative analysis of the different formats and themes that have articulated the stage known as "pupil consultation". This stage of the project aims to develop activities based on democratic attentive listening to what students have to say about educational processes which are already taking place in the school in order to understand and listen to their experiences, perceptions and opinions about what could be improved about the curriculum and pedagogical practices. This work will allow us to reflect on the different languages, methodologies and contents that have shaped the consultation stage. From this knowledge, we conclude that the curriculum can be improved by articulating different channels to listen and increase student participation as an "expert agent" in school live as well as teaching and learning processes. Thus, we will find out what format is the most appropriate to consider all voices, even those that have traditionally been ignored.

Keywords: Democratic curriculum, School improvement, Student voice.

1   Introduction

The work we describe in this paper is framed within a wider research project carried out in the University of Cantabria. The aim of the project is to accompany participant centres in undertaking improvement activities that arise from student voice and are built upon the pillars of inclusive education. Thus, our research is recognized from the theoretical perspective, in contributions to three educational movements: school improvement (Stoll y Fink, 1999; Bolívar, 2000), inclusive education (Ainscow, 2001; Sapon-Shevin, 1999)   and the student voice movement (Fielding, 2004; Rudduck & Flutter, 2007).

Precisely this last movement compiles a series of "activities that encourage reflection, discussion, dialogue and action about issues that concern students, and furthermore, involve professionals and the rest of the members that form part of educational communities" (Fielding, 2004). In this wide spectrum of experiences and activities very disparate practices exist which range from: support among equals to the creation of organizational structures and spaces in which the students are able to express their opinions as to the school; the syllabus;

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and possibilities for improvement (Martínez Rodríguez, 2010). Our research starts from the premise that the school curriculum will be more effective if it is conceived as an element of construction. It is understood that the decision as to what knowledge is considered to be more valuably transmitted in schools requires a process of local democratic deliberation.

The promotion of educational processes where young people participate and have their views and opinions considered entails recognizing that students cannot be conceived as passive receivers of a curriculum that has been designed externally. On the contrary, it will be the students who will finally determine the meaning of school experiences in processes that involve the acceptance, rejection or ignorance face to face with the messages offered to them by their school (Beyer & Liston, 2001). In this sense, participation is understood as being the most ideal medium for creating a democratic climate that allows citizenship to be carried out in school, since, as Silva (2001) points out, curricular decisions always involve the creation of a determined subjectivity, of a particular way of being subject and citizen.

From the methodological point of view, research which includes the experiences of student consultation here described in this paper is to be found in the qualitative-collaborative perspective (Cochram-Smith, 2009). In order to achieve this, we use ethnologically inspired techniques such as in-depth interviews, participant observation, field notes and documentation via photographic images (Díaz de Rada, 2006).

With respect to the design of the research, this paper revolves around five phases, described in some of our previous work. These phases range from (1) Field access, moving through (2) Detection of needs and the construction of shared meanings, (3) Student consultation (4) Development of improvement activities and (5) Evaluation (Susinos & Rodríguez-Hoyos, 2011).

This paper focuses the attention on a nuclear moment of the research process, the phase which we term as "student consultation".

2   Consultation stage. Description and analysis.

The student consultation phase is the third phase of our research. We refer here to a phase specifically geared towards knowing the views, opinions and perspectives of our students in terms of how they think school and work carried out in the classroom can be improved. For this purpose, different work methodologies are proposed that are incorporated in the curriculum in different degrees.

The most direct work with students is started once a mixed research team has been set up in the centre (made up of teachers from each school and researchers from the university). This is followed by the creation of a weekly work programme (stage 1) and the detection of needs (stage 2). This latter phase has allowed us to compare the opinions of the teachers and the researchers from the university as to school dynamics (classroom atmosphere, interrelationships, participation dynamics or lack thereof, teaching methods, forms of evaluation, and so on.) To carry this out we used different data compilation techniques such as interviews, photographs and observations.

Data analysis was carried out at different levels throughout the three phases of the research. This analysis permitted to share points of view, approximate meanings and to design student consultation.

Below (Table 1) we present a synthesis of the different consultations we have undertaken to date. As can be observed, we worked with a total of 9 schools, although the number of consultations was 12, given that in certain schools various classes and teachers were involved.

The target of the consultations were the students of all education levels, infants, primary and secondary. In this last education level we worked with students enrolled on programmes titled second way or second opportunity (Abiétar, 2012; Calvo, Rodríguez-Hoyos & García, 2012). These were students on a Curricular Diversification Programme (PDC) which granted them access to the title of Compulsory Secondary Education (ESO) and young persons on an Initial Professional Qualification Programme (PCPI). This latter programme is aimed at young persons who have not obtained the ESO and who thus receive professional training so as to be able to enter the labour market.

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Table 1.Consultation activities

	Academic Year 2009/10	
	Target	*Format and methodology*
CEIP BAJO PAS (Puente Arce)	3º Infants Education (EI) (5 years old)	-Group Assembly -Voting
CP JULIO BLANCO (Santander)	4ºESO (Compulsory Secondary Education) y PDC (Curricular Diversification Programme)	-Questionnaire -Assembly
PCPI (Camargo)	PCPI as "Shop Technical assistant and Warehouse hand "	-Interviews in pairs or threes -Assembly
	Academic years 2010/11 and 2011/12	
CEIP JUAN DE HERRERA (Maliaño)	6th Primary	-Online questionnaire -Debate and discussion of results - Assembly
CEIP MANUEL LLANO (Santander)	5th Primary	-Questionnaire in pairs -Assembly supported by a film
CP JULIO BLANCO (Santander)	3rd ESO and PDC	-Questionnaire -Group work and Powerpoint presentation -Assembly
PCPI ALISAL (Santander)	PCPI "Assistant in Hairdressing"	-The students photograph what they consider to be the best and worst of the centre's programme -Discussion and pooling of knowledge -Creation of Mural with all proposals
	Academic Year 2012/13	
ESCUELA INFANTIL DE LA UNIVERSIDAD DE CANTABRIA	-Three classes from the 1º cycle of Infants education -Families	-Assembly -Interviews in small groups -Observations of the teachers
CEIP MARINA DE CUDEYO (Rubayo)	6th Primary class	-Working in groups -Pooling of knowledge -Classroom assembly

3

CEIP JUAN DE HERRERA (Maliaño)	2nd and 6th Primary classes	-Working in pairs (6th year student with 2nd year student) and pooling of knowledge: -Photographing school areas -Interclass assembly
CEIP. JOSE ARCE BODEGA (Santander)	4º Primary	-Suggestion box for proposals -Assembly
	All primary groups (12 groups)	-Question posed to all primary groups -Class assembly -Meeting of delegates (from each level) with the director
	1st and 2nd cycle Infants : 2 classes of 2 year-olds and 1 class of 4 year-olds	-Video recording of all the activities and analysis on the part of teachers -Observations of teachers on breaktime and assemblies.

3   Results and conclusions.

In this section we focus on three core aspects of the consultation and deliberation processes carried out in the centres that have participated in the research. The three areas are: consultation topics or themes; consultation formats; and the methodology and strategies used.

3.1 Themes

At this point we asked what participation and student voice were aimed at, in other words, what the appropriate atmosphere is in which students can express their ideas, deliberate and form part of the decision making process. In general, the consultation carried out reveals deliberative processes about different aspects. An example of this would be the consultation on activities parallel to the curriculum, which if in essence are not modified, they are certainly enriched after consultation. This is the case of the end-of-year parties, school performances, extra-curricular activities or trips.

In other cases, however, student consultation has led to questions of greater significance, such as improvement of facilities: how to create new spaces for students' use or how to make already existing facilities more comfortable; how to improve toilets as well as controlling what occurs inside them; installing Wi-Fi for all the centre, vending machines and lockers. Another theme that is a cause for debate in different centres and at all education levels is the break and playtime space.

Likewise, we encounter causes for debate that affect the very core of the curriculum (Fielding, 2003; Rudduck y Flutter, 2007) such as: the process of choosing optional subjects; the type of activities they would prefer to carry out in the school; how spaces and times are managed; and how evaluation processes are carried out. One aspect that has been the object of discussion in various centres is the sense and use of school contents, to the point that students have become the builders of one or various subjects through research on their neighbourhood, classroom life and access to the centre.

A fourth aspect that we have observed that has become an object for consultation is that of student participation dynamics as the transversal element to all teaching activities. This way, students have gradually shown the need to increase these spaces and participation dynamics (as well as the possible strategies to follow) gaining more visibility in classroom and centre dynamics and placing special emphasis in giving voice to those with less presence in the classroom.

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3.2 Methodology

In this section we analyze three key aspects that are: consultation strategies; the extent of student protagonism and the reach of the consultation.

Consultation strategies have varied, adapting themselves to the characteristics and needs of the student group. This way, we can talk about direct or indirect consultation. In this second case it has been the families or their teachers who have acted as the children's spokespersons (Escuela Infantil UC). With regards to direct consultation, we can see how in most consultations individual work had been carried out previously, in pairs or in a small group, with the aim that every student had the chance to feel heard. At this first moment open questions were posed ("What would you like to improve in the school?") and others more focused on specific themes (breaktimes, workshops, and so on). Later in all cases knowledge was pooled on a large scale thus creating the necessary joint deliberation and decision-making space.

The extent of student protagonism refers to the presence and relevance of student voice, as well as the degree of teacher presence. Following Fielding's classification (2011) we find that there are two levels of student involvement in the consultation experiences that we are analyzing. One the one hand, the students have been considered as a source of information related to the theme questioned , while in other cases, a greater level of dialogue and deliberation has been reached with the students being considered as researchers.

Likewise, we can talk about different levels of reach of the consultation, considering the number of classes that participated, as well as the object of the consultation. Even though in most cases consultation was carried out at a classroom level, in the last few years new levels have been experienced, working with classes from a same education level (3rd year of primary at the Manuel Llano State Primary school) or with classes from different levels 1st and 3rd years of primary at the Juan Herrera State Primary school). In terms of the reach of the object of consultation we can highlight the fact that it revolves around improving the classroom or centre, as well as the community or neighbourhood.

3.3 Consultation format

In this section we refer to the format chosen in order to listen to student voice (oral, written, audiovisual, computerized, visual, scenographic, and other media) as well as means used for collating and systemizing the information.

The formats used by the researchers to compile and systemize student voice have been audio and video recordings, notes, observations, letters to the classroom mail box, minutes from meetings drawn up by the students or documents they have sent to the school director and /or the mayor.

As regards the most commonly used formats for listening to student voice we have concluded that these have been; spoken, written, audiovisual and visual. The choice of these media is geared towards the need to choose forms of expression that the students identify and feel comfortable with and which at the same time favour genuine dialogue. Special attention is paid to ensure that these media are not a way to legitimize the voices that are usually most favoured in the school (Susinos y Rodríguez-Hoyos, 2011), but rather that they are conceived from an inclusive perspective where the voice of all students has a place (Fielding, 2011).

In this paper we have analysed the results of the "student consultation stage" in the framework of a research project that accompanies schools in a process of improvement increasing student voice. Data reveals that student participation in the democratic deliberation process is a fructiferous strategy for improving the curriculum and the organization of centres, as well as rethinking the role of the teacher. Even though during our research we work in centres at different levels (classes, intercycles and centre), it is an important challenge for the research to broaden the improvement processes inside an education centre and to create alliances and networks between all the centres involved in the project. Finally, and with sights very firmly set on creating good schools for all, our work shows that it is possible to articulate participation processes at any educational level and with any types of students, including those whose school experience has traditionally been unsuccessful.

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The Finnish School in Cross-Pressures of Change

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Abstract

The paper presents a research project of the Finnish school in an educational inclusive reform process. The study focuses on asking how the comprehensive schools cope with the reform in a time of economic instability and contradictory goals. The first phase of the research program took place during a continuing education program about inclusive education and school development. The participants comprised 530 in-service teachers and 14 school principals in fourteen primary and secondary schools. The two and half year long continuing education program offered spaces for reflections in the school community and in tailored seminars for the schools involved. The participants were engaged in discussions of gaining understanding of inclusive education and of how to respond to students´ diversity.

In the study inclusion education is seen as a complex transitional process and a multifaceted question, which involves different levels from educational policy on a national level to the local school community level and the single teacher as an agency for change. According to the preliminary results the transformation process demands a cultural shift of the traditional teacher work culture; from tend to work alone to collaboration and cross sectional cooperation. The school leaders are in a key position in fostering requisites for a professional learning community with spaces for reflections, sharing experiences and knowledge in order to get enough unanimity in the school community for promoting inclusive learning settings. A single teacher´s attitude is affected by these collective meaning making processes. During the professional development program different kind of collaboration was encouraged and changes in a more collaborative direction could be recognized. In the article we discuss the results in terms of the raised contextual factors at different levels in the transformation processes.

Keywords: inclusion, education policy, curriculum

1   Introduction

This article presents an ongoing research project called *The Finnish School in cross-pressures of change: School as an inclusive learning community* (SILC). The project is anchored in the transformative educational reform based on the renewed legislation (Basic Education Act, 2010) and changes in the National Core Curriculum for Basic Education (2010) in Finland. The first phase of the research took place during a continuing education and school development program called *School Community, Pedagogical development and Wellbeing -project (2010-13).* The ongoing reform is consistent with the recent UNESCO (2009) policy guidelines that focus on inclusion by suggesting that the ultimate goal for equity in education is to promote participation and equal opportunities for all students (e.g. Ainscow, Booth & Dyson, 2006; Ferguson, 2008). It is, on the one hand, quite corollary to agree inclusion ideology in Finland because education has traditionally been perceived primarily as a mechanism for enhancing social justice, equity and equality (Sahlberg, 2011).

On the other hand, the current education policy has become controversial and complex. The excellent PISA (Program for International Student Assessment) achievement (e.g. OECD, 2010), for example, has created tensions in schools to

reproduce the success by raising the effectiveness of practices, by extending the requirements of knowledge content and academic achievement in the National Core Curriculum, facing pressure moving towards standardization and test-based accountability. The Finnish education seems to be in a turning point in choosing the future way. Still Finland has not chosen a high-stakes testing policy as most countries have but is looking for a new way (Sahlberg, 2011; Hargreaves & Shirley, 2009). The question is heard, the comprehensive school is moving in a more sustainable and creative direction or is it to an increasing extent in the instrumental stranglehold of neoliberal education policy in Finland.

In addition, while considering the student diversity as a primary pedagogical challenge since the 1990´s, the rate of students with special needs status has continually increased. It has been suggested that, for instance, growing societal segregation and marginalization; the entry of new ethnic groups; changes in the situation of families; diagnostic culture with a stress on the medical and physiological aspects in defining special needs, and changes in the administration guidelines of special education have influenced this explosion of enrollments into special student status. There is a big variation among municipalities in special education practices. The renewed legislation and changes in national core curriculum affirmed the basic principles – early identification of risks and a three-step-support system for inclusive education.

The reform process is illuminated as a multi-level phenomenon amidst the dynamics of the transnational and national educational policies. The Finnish educational policy as meta-practice of governance on a national level reframes the policy at the municipal level in the field of education. But the municipalities are fairly autonomous in practising e.g. the educational policy within the national core curriculum framework. The municipal service transition process has caused contradictory pressures on municipals. Because of the economic recession less money is allocated to the municipalities, but they have got more responsibilities for different services. A process of segregation is going on due to various economic and social structures in municipalities. Because of financial straits some municipalities have had to cut their resources, which can be seen, for example, in the temporary dismissals of teachers which have gnawed at the trust between teachers and administration. As a result of the divergence among municipalities the inclusion process appears and affects everyday life at local school level in a variety of different ways.

School reforms and changes in teacher's work are complex social processes that teachers interpret based on their personal understanding and experiences. Accordingly, there is no coherent conceptualization of "inclusion", which is a rather blurred concept and is therefore interpreted in various ways. On one hand, inclusion is seen as a value in itself and inclusion is always preferred. On the other hand inclusion is a value but not always the best solution because it can lead to disrupting others learning. (Sabel et al., 2011.) The issue of developing inclusive forms of education has led to increased challenges at school level in curriculum development and everyday practices, and teachers struggle to respond to the actual needs of a diverse student population. Nevertheless, we see the school as the key agency for change and the reform process developing from inside out (Tyack & Cuban, 1998).

2   The focus of the research project

The present research project explores how the comprehensive schools cope with the new reform and what kind of innovative inclusive practices they develop. It´s experienced by the teachers as a challenging task in a hectic time of economic instability and contradictory goals. The aim of the project is to gain relational understanding of the complexity of the transformation process, and of the inclusive education as a complicated multilayered societal phenomenon by scrutinizing the inclusive education reform between contextual factors at different levels in the transformation processes. The project focuses on three questions as follows:

- How is the reform interpreted, modified and carried out?
- What are the consequences for the school as a learning community?
- How do the Basic Education Act (2010) and the renewed National Core Curriculum (2010) guidelines appear at the local school policy level in municipalities, at school level, in teachers´ work and in pupils´ situation?

In the following sections we will first discuss the reform as a part of transnational educational strategy, and then as a part of national school policy and curriculum development work.

3 Inclusive reform as a transnational educational strategy and as a national school policy

The Finnish perspective serves a suitable example for a discussion on the contradictory issue of the global inclusive transformation. The Finnish schools are expected to maintain the international vanguard position while keeping up with society's constant challenges of change and pressures to innovate.

The amended legislation (Basic Education Act, 2010), and the changes in the National Core Curriculum for Basic Education (2010) have removed the previous twin-track system of labeling 'exceptional' students before they are entitled to receive individualized support within special schools. According to the principles of neighborhood school, every student has the right to a place in the school which is located closest to home. The purpose of the reform is to focus attention on mainstream student-centered education and reinforce the learning support mechanisms for all students. Schools are obliged to implement inclusive practices. The current education policy aims at promoting the full inclusion by emphasizing the recognition of diversity and differences and by entailing educational strategies that incorporate multicultural and gender approaches into the curriculum (Special Education Strategy, 2007).

Consequently, there are attempts to idealistically decontextualize the school institution from its larger economic, political, and social circulations of power and knowledge. Thus, although the current national education policy in Finland is promoting ideology of inclusion, at the same time, the policy is stemming from a transnational neoliberalism, a technocratic and client-oriented educational policy agenda with pressures towards increasing uniformity, standardization and effectiveness that stresses on measureable learning outcomes. This trend can be identified in the Finnish National Core Curriculum from 2004 in which academic skills and learning outcomes are promoted compared to the earlier curriculum from 1994 (Mäkinen, 2012; Vitikka, 2009).

Curriculum theory and practice in Finland is a kind of a unique intellectual and organizational curriculum cocktail between the German Bildung/Didaktik and the Angloworld curriculum traditions. As a consequence, during the last decades the Anglo-American influences have strengthened in Finland. (Autio 2006, 2013.) The self-governing municipalities have different regimes of governance and some municipalities have adopted managerial models, e.g. the client-oriented provider and contract -model, which originate in the business world and New Public Management. These different management and leadership practices, for their part, shape the way in which the work is governed and organized at schools. (Rajakaltio, 2011.) The transnational neoliberal performative education policy is moving towards market individualism. Thus, education is seen more as an individual right to collect educational assets to compete with others than promoting equality between individuals (Ahonen, 2007). One may ask how these changes correlate with the inclusive reform: Is there a risk to be more a bureaucratic reform ("a pie in the sky") than anchored in innovative pedagogical ideas or in school reality?

4 The school practitioners experience on inclusive reform

In this project we look upon the school as a specific societal institution with a plurality of ethical purposes and embedded in values as democracy, social justice and equity (Dewey, 1966; Hunter, 1994). In the reality the school is a hybrid organization with cross-pressures of ongoing changes facing contradictive requirements and expectations as a part of the project-society (Rajakaltio, 2011). Educational development is linked to different state mandated programmed projects for which funding is allocated. This "project-society" development trend has also implied that municipalities have changed the way in which they organize school development work. It implies that development takes place through short term projects rather than long-span strategies and policies.

The inclusive education reform challenges the school as a learning environment, and as a professional learning community as well within its educational practices, teaching traditions, curriculum ideas; organization and leadership

culture (Stoll & Louis, 2008; Rajakaltio, 2008; 2011; Mäkinen, 2013). On one side, the school can be seen as a site for each unique student individual´s subjectivity and identity formation. On the other side, the school is a (neo) bureaucratic institution, a site for control logic, and disciplinary knowledge, "*regime of truth*" (Foucault, 1979). There are contradictory and contested processes of exclusion and inclusion going on in the school (Popkewitz, 2009).

4.1 Participants

The participants in the research-project are 530 teachers (418 women, 112 men) and 14 school principals (7 women, 7 men) in 14 primary and secondary schools in four municipalities. All participants attended a two and half year long continuing education program and interactive development process, called *School community, pedagogical development and wellbeing 2010-13*, led by the research project and funded by the National Board of Education. The first phase of the research project was conducted during the program.

4.2 Data and methodology

Data was collected by a questionnaire in 2011/2012 and a follow up questionnaire of inclusive learning arrangements in spring 2013*.* In this paper we present the preliminary results from the first phase of the study in which we examined a) what kind of discourses could be identified at school level due to the reform, b) what kind of challenges do the teachers experience?, 3) what are the prerequisites for the reform to be successfully realized at school level and 4) what kind of inclusive practices and settings have the teachers created at school. More data will be collected during the year 2013/14 by questionnaires, follow-up interviews (focus group and individual interviews) and observations in classrooms. The methodological approach is based on communicative action research combined with an ethnographic approach and documentary analysis.

The first data were collected through the participants' written reflections, which allowed them to express their experiences, basic assumptions and opinions about the ongoing reform. The means to the content analysis was insightful meaning making. While the participants wrote their reflections about their subjective and unique experiences, we analyzed the expressions by searching their entire meanings they became apparent. The meaning unit of organizing the data was determined as a complete description of an individual's statement or lived experience. The analysis consisted of four iterative analysis cycles. The analysis process raised preliminary findings interpreting the multifaceted attitudes and views on inclusive reform.

5 Preliminary findings and discussion

The working culture in the Finnish schools has traditionally been very individual-oriented. In the continuing education program which served communicative spaces it became apparent that learning at school is rather a social than an individual process. The meaning making is a collective process and a successful change process demands a professional learning community as Louis Stoll et al. (2008) have stated. This professional development program encouraged teachers to re-examine their practices and taken for granted assumptions, and to transform practices at school level, e.g. provoke more collaboration between class teachers, subject teachers, special needs teachers and student welfare staff for creating new modes of working and learning practices in classrooms.

There was also networking between schools involved in the program sharing ideas and expertise. Network learning is enhancing sustainable development. The projects come and go, but networking continues. Finding collective time for joint actions at school and between schools is usually restricted. Teachers´ work practice is nested in the collective

labour agreement, which determines the boundaries of teachers´ work culture and the salary is teaching hour based. The lack of shared time was one obstacle in finding time for joint actions and creating new practices.

According to almost half of the participants, the feeling of teacher´s heavy workload has increased because of new bureaucracy; the paper work, feeling of lack of skills and competencies for inclusive education. Especially subject teachers in secondary school felt heavy workload and pressure. The teacher education programs were criticized not to prepare new teachers for the reality in school and not to give the basis for developing qualities to meet the demands of inclusive education. Newly qualified teachers will be interviewed as a target group during the next stage in the research.

The comprehensive school seems still to be rather a teachers´ domain than a multi-professional institution. The reform demands multi-professional knowledge and cross-sectorial problem solving, which could be seen in the student welfare teams in the schools. But still there is a lack of cross-sectorial cooperation and in some of the schools the collaborative work culture was affecting just some of the teachers. Inclusive education seems to be individual oriented – it´s a question of a single student´s ability, talent and problems.

There is a need of a more structure-orientated pedagogy and collaborative practices. The principal has got the formal institutional power and the key role in the transformation process in arranging the organizational conditions for a more participative work culture and for promoting inclusive learning settings. The principal may enable a dialogue about the reform issues from the specific school´s point of view. The different school cultures seem to affect how the teachers look upon the inclusive reform and their work upon it. In some of the schools joint actions for developing inclusive practices were notified. The change process was identified as a process from inside out. In the next phase of the project we will look upon different municipalities and ponder the question whether there is a strategic and systematic leadership on municipal level and how are they supporting the individual schools?

6 Conclusion

As an effect of the reform process there is an ongoing cultural shift in teacher´s work – a difficult detachment from an individualistic culture to a collaborative one. Teachers cannot manage to face the demands of inclusive education working alone. A crucial question is to what extent teachers feel that they are subjects for change (agency) rather than objects for implementation efforts. There seem to be differences among the school cultures. The continuing education program served as a "bottom-up" strategy with a dialogic approach at school level, which reached teachers' voices. In the space of dialogue, different communication boundaries were crossed and polyphony recognized, shared meanings and new understanding could be constructed. The significance of collaborative reflection for teachers is to learn to identify the contextual factors affecting the school world, such as the prevailing socio-political trends and educational policies, as well as the local strategies deduced thereof.

The interpretation of the transitional situation, reflecting on it, and the sharing of experiences, reduce the pressures falling on individual teacher´s work, and promote coping at work. Wellbeing at work contributes to the sense of empowerment. There is a need of educational leadership to create spaces for reflections to gain understanding of the change process and of inclusive education. The crucial question one may ask is the reform really promoting child-centered thinking or is it an administrative reform with more paperwork which doesn´t in reality affect the work in the class with students. The forthcoming new National Core Curriculum for Basic education has a great influence on creating the school culture and its pedagogy in the Finnish school in the years to come.

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The discourses on the curriculum made public issues by the media

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Abstract

The school curriculum is a social and historical construction that results from the ways in which different stakeholders frame the purposes of Education and translate them into curricular decisions (Goodson, 1988; Leite & Fernandes, 2012). The negotiation implied in this decision-making process is influenced and even validated by public representations of education and school curriculum. The media have a key role in this process because they are crucial in building public opinion regarding educational issues and citizenship (Mendes, 2004). Under the pretense of objectivity that guides their action, the media report not only national and local public policies about the curriculum but also viewpoints of different stakeholders. Some attention has been given to the media coverage of educational issues in Portugal (e.g. Abrantes, 2009) with evidence that curricular issues have been gaining visibility (Freitas, 2008).

The paper reports a study of the importance given to curricular issues in 2 national newspapers published during 2 periods of preparation of the school year (2009 and 2013). Through a content analysis procedure (Bardin, 2000), it specifically aims at identifying (i) the main issues reported in the published news about education; (ii) the number of news about curriculum; (iii) the involved subjects; (iv) the authors; and (v) the key ideas reflected in their reported discourses, as they shape the viewpoints involved in the issues. The discussion involves an analysis of the curricular issues focused on the news. The analysed newspapers give little importance to curricular issues, which can be an indicator of a remaining limited attention given to curricular issues by the media. The reported curricular issues result from ongoing changes in curricular policies. A higher attention from the media to curricular issues is recommended, so that an engagement of other members of civil society beyond those related to schooling education could be triggered.

Keywords: curricular discourses; media; newspapers; social construction of Curriculum.

1 Introduction

The school curriculum is a social and historical construction that results from the ways in which different stakeholders frame the purposes of Education and translate them into curricular decisions (Goodson, 1988; Leite & Fernandes, 2012). The negotiation implied in this decision-making process is influenced and even validated by public representations of education and school curriculum. In fact, it is possible to find a more intensified participation of civil society in school, in aspects such as school based curriculum and school direction boards (Kärkkäinen, 2012).

The media have a key role in this process because they are crucial in building public opinion regarding educational issues and citizenship (Mendes, 2004). Indeed, the media define the issues that become the focus of public attention and those that are declared as unimportant. Therefore, under the pretense of objectivity that guides their action, the media report not only national and local public policies about the curriculum but also the viewpoints of different stakeholders. But, as Mendes (2004) emphasized, the media also carry an ideological load in their discourses that is usually based on values underlying the arguments and alleged facts that they report. Moreover, even when a particular media strives to follow a policy of pluralism and neutrality publishing diverse viewpoints, it is possible to find the above mentioned ideological load in editing options, such as the article' size, section, publication page, etc.

Some attention has been given to the media coverage of education issues in Portugal (e.g. Abrantes, 2009) with indicators that news on education issues are treated as marketing to sell newspapers which dictates the habit of reporting education only as extraordinary events rather than as everyday events. Abrantes (2009) has illustrated this with a study of the Portuguese media coverage of school failure, an issue that was almost absent of the media he analyzed, even when the school failure rates were higher in Portugal than in other European countries.

Assuming that the media build a citizenship profile, and since education issues are a part of public interest as much as they regard public services paid by everyone taxes, it can be argued that the media should inform more frequently and accurately everyday cases related with education issues in general, and curriculum issues in particular.

Indeed, it seems that curriculum issues have been gaining visibility in the media (Freitas, 2008). This could be partially explained by several changes in recent Portuguese curricular policies, often opposed to the public opinion of what should be the action of a quality school (Freitas, 2008). By the other hand, the increased frequency and visibility of international comparative studies and school rankings can also explain a recent growing interest of media in curricular aspects of the Portuguese educational system (Afonso & Costa, 2009).

In this context, the goal of the work reported in the present paper was to identify the importance given by the media to curriculum and the purposes of such attention.

2   Methods

This paper reports a study of the importance given to curriculum issues in 2 national newspapers published during 2 periods of preparation of the school year (2009 and 2013). It specifically aims at identifying (i) the main issues reported in the published news about education; (ii) the number of news about curriculum in the news; (iii) the involved subjects; (iv) the authors; and (v) the key ideas reflected in their reported discourses, as they shape the viewpoints involved in the issues.

The choice of newspapers editions to be analyzed was determined by the frequency, target audiences, subject matter, geographical scope and distribution, format and technology of distribution. Both analyzed newspapers were daily newspapers with a general audience as target, generalist format, national distribution and availability by paper and online. Whereas Newspaper A has a long format with several types of texts (small and long articles, editorials, chronicles, opinion articles and letters to directors) and an average number of 50 pages per edition, Newspaper B has a shorter format limited to news articles and opinion articles with an average number of 14 pages per edition. Although the printed editions were analyzed, their availability online was an advantageous feature that was taken into account. Newspaper B had open access online to the printed edition and Newspaper A made available for this research a temporary license to online access to the printed edition, which facilitated the analysis procedure.

The period of analysis constituted the months of April, May and June, both in 2009 and 2013, due to the fact that in terms of educational agenda, this period marks the end of one school year as well as preparing for the next school year, a circumstance assumed to determine enhanced visibility to educational issues by the media. All texts of the daily editions in these periods were subjected to a triage in which texts were selected for analysis if their title, lead sentence or frequent references covered the terms "education", "school" or "university".

Once selected for analysis, the texts were subjected to a content analysis procedure (Bardin, 2000) mixing a quantitative and qualitative approach according to the categories of analysis presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Categories of analysis.

CATEGORIES OF ANALYSIS	
STRUCTURAL CATEGORIES	CONTENT CATEGORIES
Title	Scope of the new
Year / Month	Nature of issue
Newspaper	Issue
Type of text	Involved subjects
Level of highlight	Teaching level
Number of paragraphs	Type of school
Photo	Key ideas
Author	Brief history

To ascertain the main issues reported in the news, it was made a simple count of occurrences in the data about educational issues in general and curriculum issues in particular, as well as its nature. The same analysis was made to ascertain the involved subjects, the texts' authors and the key ideas, categories that were assumed to be suitable indicators of the viewpoints reflected in the reported discourses in the news contents.

3   Presentation and discussion of results

The main educational issues reported in the analysed news are illustrated in Figures 1 and 2.
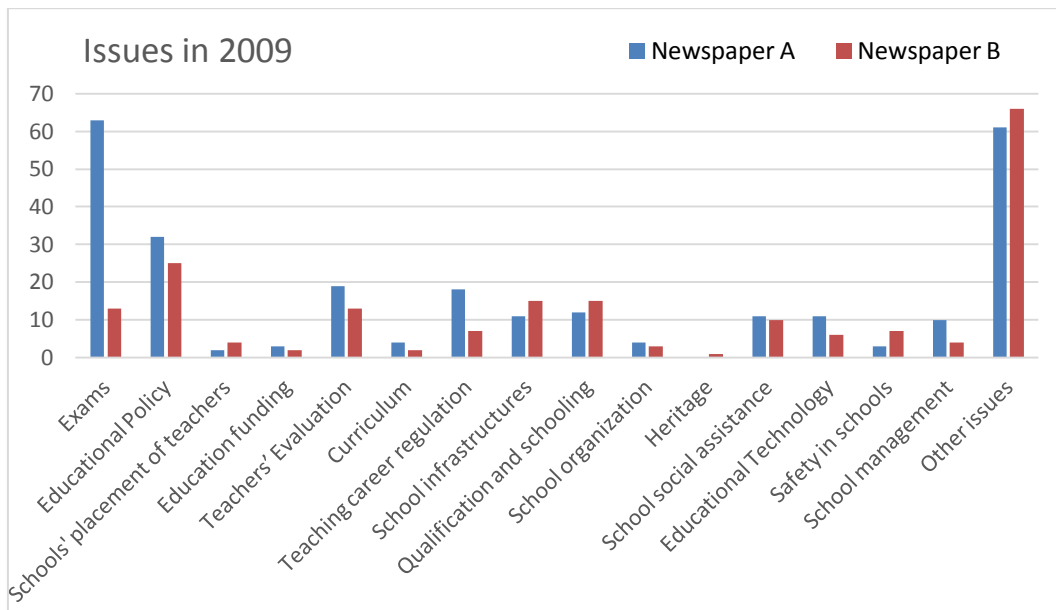
Figure 1: Main issues covered in 2009 news.
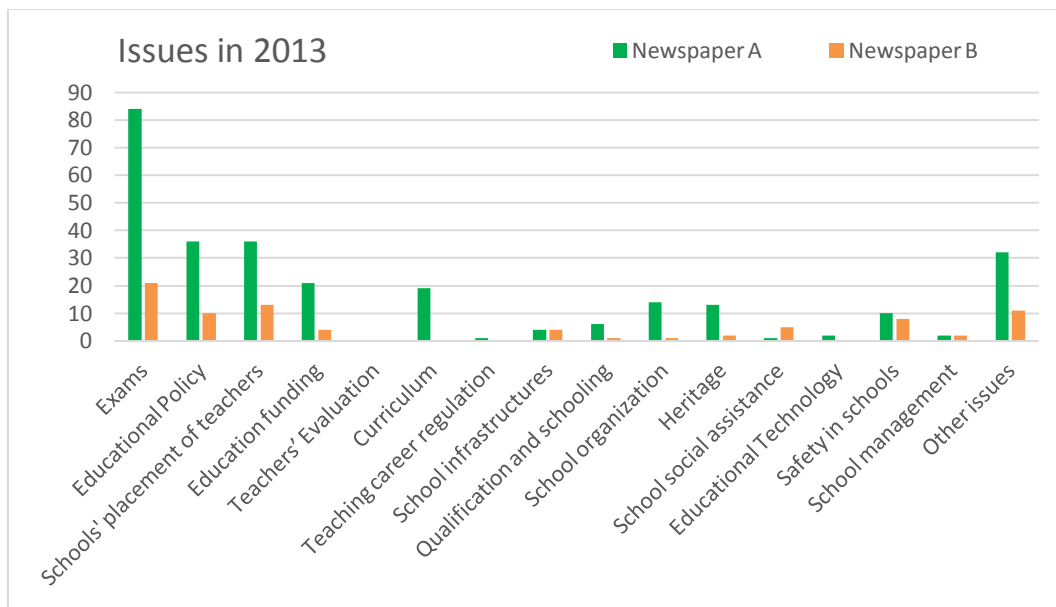
Figure 2: Main issues covered in 2013 news.

As can be verified in the Figures, issues of Exams and Educational Policy were the most covered in the same period in both the years of 2009 and 2013. The big number of news about Exams published in Newspaper A has to do with the fact that in matters of National Exams, this newspaper usually publishes an article, the used exam nationwide, the predefined criteria to correct them, and viewpoints from students, teachers and professional associations of teachers.

In 2009, issues of teachers' evaluation and teaching career regulation were widely reported in the news which had to do with important legal changes that were happening in these matters. By the other hand, in 2013, issues of schools' placement of teachers and education funding were given a higher attention, which has to do with the intensive cuts in the state's funding of education due to the ongoing economical and debt crisis.

Curriculum issues seem to be a weak point in the news coverage of education, although some differences upward can be found in news of 2013 when comparing with 2009. In fact, in 2009, only 1,52% of all the educational issues on news of Newspaper A were about the Curriculum (4), and 1,04% of Newspaper B were about this issue (2). In 2013, this percentage gets a little bit higher in Newspaper A: 6,76% of all the published news about education was about the Curriculum (19). In Newspaper B any news about the Curriculum was identified.

But why the Curriculum was considered an issue? The nature of the reported issues in the news about the Curriculum are the ones presented in Figures 3 and 4
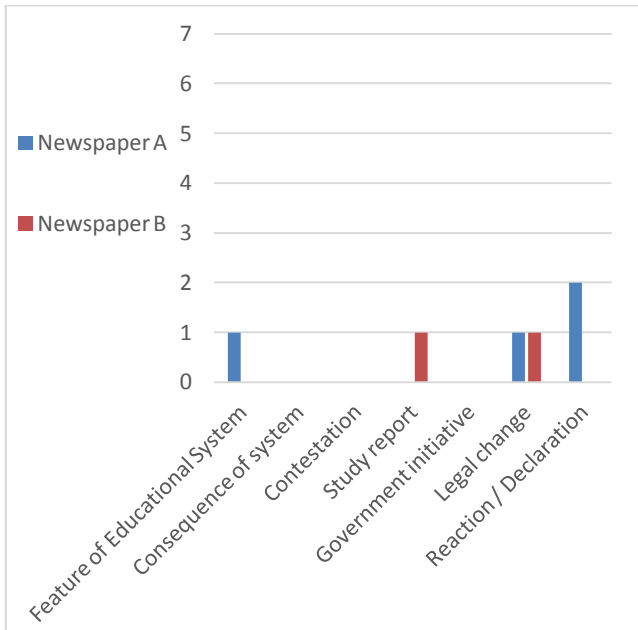
Figure 3: Nature of issues covered in 2009 news.
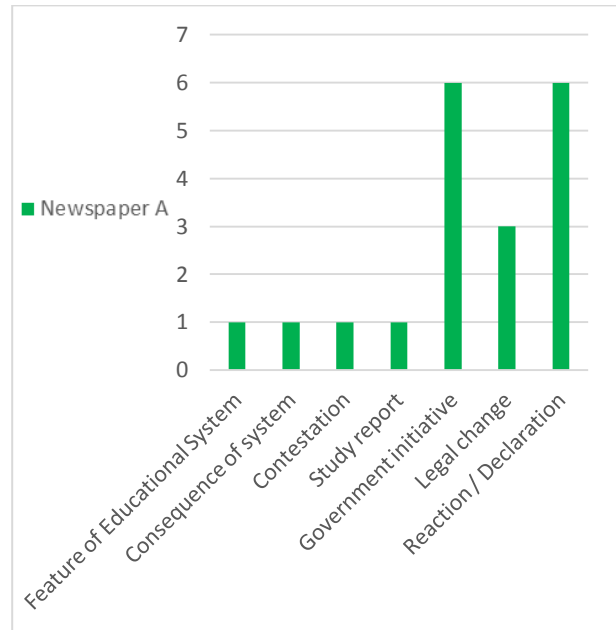
Figure 4: Nature of issues covered in 2013 news.

Figures 3 and 4 show that whereas in 2009, references to the Curriculum in the news were spread by only 1 appearance of each of very different issues in nature (being reaction /declaration an exception), in 2013, there was a clearly higher number of references to the Curriculum that had to do with reporting a Government initiative (6) or Reaction / Declaration regarding those initiatives (6).

This can be explained partially by a Government change in Portugal, which led to new curricular policies. In the school year of 2012/2013, the Ministry of Education promoted the proposal of new curricula for Basic Education (1st to 9th grade) in all school subjects. So, some newspapers are not only reporting the publication of legal documents due to this reform but are also being a stage for discussing viewpoints about the principles and adequacy of the new proposed curricula.

Some more information about this discussion can be found in the key ideas of what is covered in the news. In 2009, the key ideas being reported in the news about the Curriculum were diverse and had to do with Teaching Portuguese language abroad (2), Teaching of a Foreign Language (1), Religious education (1), Mathematical illiteracy (1) and School work (1). Table 2 presents a synthesis of the main features of the reported news.

Table 2: News about the Curriculum in 2009.

Nature of issue	Key ideas	Type of text	Author	Involved subjects
NEWSPAPER A				
Legal change	Teaching Portuguese language abroad	News Article	Journalist	Institute of Camões Labor unions
Reaction / Declaration	Mathematical illiteracy	News Article	Journalist	President of the Republic
Reaction / Declaration	Teaching of a Foreign Language	News Article	Journalist	Schools
Feature of Educational System	Religious Education	News Article	Journalist	Church
NEWSPAPER B				
Legal change	Teaching Portuguese language abroad	News Article	Journalist	Institute of Camões
Study report	School work	News Article	Journalist	Experts Students

As shown in Table 2, in 2009 there was not a dominant key idea covered by the newspapers and only 1 key idea was equally reported by both newspapers – Teaching Portuguese language abroad – which had to do with a particular legal change occurring in this period. All the analysed texts were news articles written by journalists reporting decisions and viewpoints of a limited number of subjects per article.

The news of 2013 reported more concentrated key ideas. Nine news concerned the new curricular syllabus of Mathematics, 3 were about the new curricular syllabus of Portuguese Language, and each of the following key ideas were focused on the other 7: Extracurricular Activities in Primary school, Teaching visual literacy, Religious education, School newspapers, Memorization in learning, new curricular program of History and National Plan for Education in Cinema. Table 3 presents a synthesis of the main features of the reported news.

Table 3: News about the Curriculum in 2013.

Nature of issue	Key ideas	Type of text	Author	Involved subjects
NEWSPAPER A				
Reaction / Declaration	New curricular syllabus of Math – Revocation of the existing Math curricular syllabus	News Article	Journalist	Professional associations of teachers Teachers
Reaction / Declaration	New curricular syllabus of Math – Revocation of the existing Math curricular syllabus	News Article	Journalist	Professional associations of teachers Teachers
Reaction / Declaration	New curricular syllabus of Math – Revocation of the existing Math curricular syllabus	Opinion Article	Education expert	Ministry of Education
Government initiative	New curricular syllabus of Math – Revocation of the existing Math curricular syllabus	News Article	Journalist	Professional associations of teachers Courts
Contestation	New curricular syllabus of Math – Revocation of the existing Math curricular syllabus	News Article	Journalist	Professional associations of teachers Carers / Parents
Reaction / Declaration	New curricular syllabus of Math – Revocation of the existing Math curricular syllabus	News Article	Journalist	Professional associations of teachers Ministry of Education
Reaction / Declaration	New curricular syllabus of Math – Opinion of the Association of Teachers of Mathematics	News Article	Journalist	Professional associations of teachers Ministry of Education

Nature of issue	Key ideas	Type of text	Author	Involved subjects
Government initiative	New curricular syllabus of Math – Opposition to the new curricular syllabus of Math	News Article	Journalist	Experts
Legal change	New curricular syllabus of Math – Memorization in learning	News Article	Journalist	Ministry of Education Experts
Consequence of the system	Memorization in learning - defending	Letter to Director	Teacher	Students
Government initiative	New curricular syllabus of Portuguese Language - Revocation of the existing curricular syllabus	News Article	Journalist	Ministry of Education Professional associations of teachers
Legal change	New curricular program of Portuguese Language - Criticisms	Opinion Article	Education expert	Ministry of Education
Legal change	New curricular syllabus of Portuguese Language – Answers to criticisms	Opinion Article	Teacher	Particular case
Reaction / Declaration	New curricular syllabus of History - Criticisms	Opinion Article	Teacher	Ministry of Education Teachers
Government initiative	National Plan for Education in Cinema	News Article	Journalist	Teachers Schools
Government initiative	School newspapers – Inclusion of school newspapers in official websites	News Article	Journalist	General Directorate of Education Students
Feature of Educational System	Teaching visual literacy	Opinion Article	Designer	Particular case
Government initiative	Extracurricular Activities in Primary school	News Article	Journalist	Students Ministry of Education
Study report	Religious education	News Article	Journalist	Civil society Government

Table 3 shows that in 2013 there was clearly a dominant key idea being covered by Newspaper A - New curricular syllabus of Math – Revocation of the existing Math curricular syllabus. Some of the new syllabus in other school subjects were also reported and discussed in the newspapers but with rather less prominence: new curricular syllabus of Portuguese Language (3) and new curricular syllabus of History (1). It can also be observed that the types of texts are more diverse in 2013 (news article, opinion article, letter do director), as well as its authors (journalist, teacher, education expert, designer) and involved subjects. For example, in the case of news reporting the pros and cons of the new curricular syllabus of Mathematics, there is a higher attention of journalists in reporting the viewpoints and reactions of diverse subjects - Ministry of Education, Professional Associations of Teachers, Teachers, Experts, Carers / Parents. One can also observe that not only news articles were published about this key idea but also one opinion article. Also, whilst this reporting process raised the discussion around one of the principles that underlies this new curriculum - encouraging the memorization in learning -, one teacher took advantage of the debate to write a letter to the Director advocating the importance of memorization in learning.

In the case of the 3 analysed news reporting the pros and cons of the new curricular syllabus of Portuguese Language, it must be noticed that they have different authors (journalist, education expert and teacher) that engage in a debate: 1 article is an opinion article with criticisms to the new curricular syllabus and the other one is an opinion article with a reaction to the previous criticisms.

The rest of the news about curricular issues were about isolated Government initiatives (3) in several domains and a feature of educational system (1) which did not raise any debate. An additional text reported the results of an international study on religious education which did not have a follow up coverage in the media nor did it raise any debate.

In any case, it seems clear that the news give much more emphasis to the written curriculum than to the actual taught and learned curriculum.

4   Final remarks

This study has shown that the 2 analysed newspapers give little importance to curricular issues (approximately between 1% and 7% of all the published news about education), which can be an indicator of the limited attention given to curricular issues by the media. However, there was a growth in attention to curricular issues from 2009 to 2013. Clearly this was due to an ongoing legal change in curricular policies in 2013 that led to the publication of new planned curricula and which opened a public debate about the adequacy of the new curricular syllabus. Still, more attention is given to the written or prescribed curriculum than to the taught and learned curriculum.

As Newspaper A has a longer format with higher diversity of types of texts, it allowed an opened debate with greater diversity of viewpoints from different stakeholders. Although the diversity of both authors and involved subjects in the analyzed news has increased from 2009 to 2013, it can still be observed a limited participation of stakeholders that are closely related with schooling issues, namely, teachers, professional associations of teachers and education experts. Still, there seems to be an increased social visibility of curricular issues due to the media, as pointed out before by Freitas (2008). By the other hand, as Newspaper B has an assumed shorter format intended at a quick reading, it doesn't focus curricular issues with the same depth nor it develops different approaches regarding those issues.

One interesting fact to be noticed is that, although the recent Government initiative that triggered the publication of new curricular syllabus for Basic Education (1st to 9th grade) has resulted in changes in all school subjects, there has been a distinctively higher attention to Mathematics, a smaller attention to Portuguese language and one single opinion article about History. All of the other school subjects - Information and Communication Technologies, Visual Education, Technological Education, Natural Sciences, Physics and Chemistry, Geography, English language -, have been ignored in the media.

This circumstance suggests that it would be relevant to conduct a follow up study to detect whether this attention is due to an underlying ideological load of the media in which Mathematics is seen as more important than other subjects, or if public representations of school subjects attribute more importance to Mathematics over other subjects guiding the media's choice of what should be considered a reported news.

Still, a higher attention from the media to curricular issues is recommended, so that an engagement of other members of civil society beyond those related to schooling education could be triggered.

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Development of School Curricula and Estonian Teachers' Cooperation

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Abstract

This research provides data on the development process of school curriculums. Estonian teachers' and school leaders' web-based survey was conducted in the beginning of 2012 with regard the adoption of new National Curriculum for Basic schools and upper-secondary schools in 2011. In the new curricula the main focus was placed on cross-curricular topics, integration and development of key competences. It was found out that the teachers' and school leaders' evaluations about the cooperation at school level differed considerably. The school leaders' estimates were more optimistic and they argued that the teachers collaborate in compiling process of the new syllabuses more. The teachers however, often argued that the cooperation did not occur or they compiled their syllabuses alone. The students-centred teachers, and those who were more convinced that the learning outcomes will be achieved, compiled the subject syllabuses more frequently in collaboration with other teachers and the subject-centred teachers or teachers who had a negative' attitude to curriculum changes alone. Nearly half of teachers who claimed that for the implementation of integration was organized in their schools teachers' working groups, did not compile the syllabuses in cooperation with other teachers and a quarter even claimed that they compiled the new syllabuses alone.

Keywords: curriculum reforms, national curriculum, schools' curriculum development and implementation

1 Introduction

Curriculum reforms are high on the agenda in the EU, especially since the Lisbon Treaty. The formal autonomy of teachers in deciding about the content of school curricula and teaching objectives varies among the European countries (EURYDICE 2008). The curriculum reforms have been also permanently the subject of debate in Estonia. The teachers in the Estonia have been continuously challenged by the development and implementation processes of new curricula.

The school curriculum development process shapes teachers' planning practices, cooperation capability and instructional decisions. Classroom practices are influenced by teachers' understanding of the curriculum, beliefs about what is important, and the ideas about the roles of teachers and students (Ball & Cohen, 1996). Brown (2009) argued that the teachers may also re-shape the curriculum as they read and adapt it in ways that address their own understanding and of the characteristics of the students they teach.

This paper analyses the Estonian teachers' and school leaders' responses about the compiling and implementing of the school curriculum and instructional decisions. The goal of this research was to identify similarities and differences between the teachers' and school leaders' understandings and innovation initiatives.

2 Conceptual Framework and Literature Review

Akker *et al.* (2011) have argued, that curriculum reforms have a dubious reputation, with more sobering than real and lasting success stories and that curriculum changes belong to the hardest category of educational change. It has even been argued that large-scale curriculum reform has a tendency to fail, as a universal experience (Cuban, 1992; Fullan, 2007). Hargreaves and Fink (2006, p.6) have stated: 'Change in education is easy to propose, hard to implement, and extraordinarily difficult to sustain'.

An Education Reform Movement in Estonia, which comprised of very different interest groups and which was focused on democratising and humanising educational life, extending the range of options and de-ideologising curricula, began in the second half of the 1980s (Ruus, *et al.,* 2008).

After the restoration of independence in 1991 the situation in Estonia changed cardinally. Former educational model was not valid. The focus shifted to the organization of educational system, creation of legal acts and compiling new curricula. A transition to a more pupil-centred school has begun via the curriculum design process (Henno, 2008). The first Estonian National Curriculum was approved in 1996. The revised National Curriculum came into effect in 2002. This curriculum provided greater freedom for schools in choosing their direction of studies by compiling their school curriculum, made it possible to consider students' interests and abilities, and emphasized the importance of integrating different subjects, implementing cross-curriculum topics and the importance of creating competencies.

For the learning concept, social constructivism was chosen, which emphasizes constructing knowledge, relying on the reproduction and (re)interpretation of existing knowledge, and cooperation. Concerning the degree of the school's responsibility and freedom it was proposed that schools should be enabled to compile their own curricula, based on the National Curriculum. There was a hope that this triggers a process which would encourage schools and teachers to actively work on curriculum renewal and would naturally exclude the Soviet practice which saw only the mechanical implementation of instructions "from above" (Ruus, et al., 2008).

But the teachers often appear poorly informed about the intended innovation and the practical application of innovation remains limited. Some gaps (weak connections between various system levels (national, local, school, classroom); lack of internal consistency within the curriculum design; insufficient cooperation between various actors in educational development (especially between curriculum development, textbook production, teacher education and assessment)) of those innovation are even more visible (Thijs & van den Akker, 2009; Akker et al., 2011).

How the intended curriculum is transformed into practice is not very clear. However, the Estonian researches have shown that teachers still continue with traditional teacher-centred practices (Henno & Reiska, 2007; Laius, Kask, & Rannikmäe, 2009). For more student-centres practices approximately five years ago a new of school curriculum reform has been initiated. The main idea was to achieve sustainable changes and improvements at system, school and classroom level.

In January 2011, the new version of National Curriculum for basic school and upper secondary school came into force. More emphasize has been put on the students' development and consideration of students' individuality. The most noteworthy changes in this new version were related to constructed subject fields, explicit definitions of the key and domain-specific and subjects' field competencies. The emphasis was put on the integration and the teachers' cooperation. The implementation of the new curricula started in the academic year 2011-2012. According to the National Curriculum all schools must compile their own school curriculum. The process is challenging because the schools' teachers capacity to develop curriculum is limited and mostly they complain about the lack of time. An existing organizational culture often does not always favour collaboration between teachers.

With regard of adoption the new National Curricula was raised a need to monitor the schools' curriculum development and implementation issues. Therefore was conducted in the beginning of 2012 teachers' and school leaders' web-based survey. The previous National curriculums were not transformed into practice as intended. This gap indicated that teachers' understanding and implementation practices differed from official enacted curriculum. What happens between teachers' reading of curriculum and implementation process? Understanding this process is significant since reform in curriculum requires an effective implementation. With these points in mind, this study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. How do the teachers and school leaders evaluate the cooperation between teachers in the school curriculum development process?
2. How do the teachers and school leaders describe practical application and changes in the teaching-learning process in this and next school years?

3   Method

A quantitative research was used to understand the patterns behind perceptions of teachers about transformation of intended curriculum into teaching and learning processes. The web-based survey was developed, and conducted using the web environment *Limesurvey*. 1839 class and subject teachers and 162 school leaders participated in survey. All open responses were systematized and coded in the numerical values. Results were analysed using SPSS and PASW Statistics 18.0. T-test, χ^2 test, ANOVA, correlation and cluster analyses were used for the data analysis tests of significance.

The goal of the study was to use teachers and school leaders web-paged survey database and perform a follow-up analyses for comparison the groups' average estimates. The differences between teachers' responses were analysed by:

- school type (basic school teachers and upper-secondary school teachers);
- language of instruction (Estonian and Russian language instruction schools' teachers);
- separate subject or class teachers teachers;
- by the satisfaction of the new curricula and syllabuses;
- by the opinions: are the learning outcomes achieved;
- by student-centred approaches.

The differences between principals' responses were analysed by:

- school type (basic school teachers and upper-secondary schools);
- school principals' leadership.

4   Results and Interpretations

The survey revealed that all schools have begun with the development process of the new school curriculum. 79% of the teachers were involved in the development of new school curriculum. Only in the 58% of secondary schools and 29% of basic schools the students were involved in the development of school curriculum. There was a statistically significant difference between the school groups by the involvement in the development of school curriculum. Upper-secondary school teachers reported that they were more involved in the development process of school curriculum than basic school teachers (p = 0.004).

Teachers were asked to comment on what they see as the benefits of the new national curriculum. Positive aspects brought out 75% of the teachers. The most appointed aspects were student centred approaches, consideration of students´ individuality, the development of students' creativity, freedom of choice of study content, integration, formative assessment, implementation of students´ inquiries, etc. The positive aspects did not mention only 7% of the teachers.

In the development of the school curriculum and syllabuses have not seen problems 18% of teachers. The main called problems were: a lack of time and a lack of teaching aids, textbooks, the financial resources and was the additional workload for teachers. Nearly 90% of teachers stated that they considered in the development process of syllabi the core values, learning and educational objectives and competences as they have been described in the general part of the National curriculum. However, is not consistent with the curriculum emphasises that 22% of the teachers did not take into account the subject fields competences, 13% cross-curriculum topics and, and 11% integration.

Teachers' and school leaders' evaluations about the school level co-operation differed considerably. The school leaders tended more frequently argue that in the compiling process of the new syllabuses the teachers collaborated with the teachers of same and other subject fields. Teachers, however, often argued, again, that cooperation did not occur and the syllabuses were compiled alone.

72% of school leaders argued that for the curricular integration (within, between and beyond subjects areas) was organized teachers' work groups. Not all schools have set up working groups to achieve integration. Unfortunately 10% of upper-secondary schools' and 26% of basic schools leaders argued that the teachers compiled their syllabuses alone. Only 16% of the responding teachers worked together with the other subject domain teachers (figure 1).
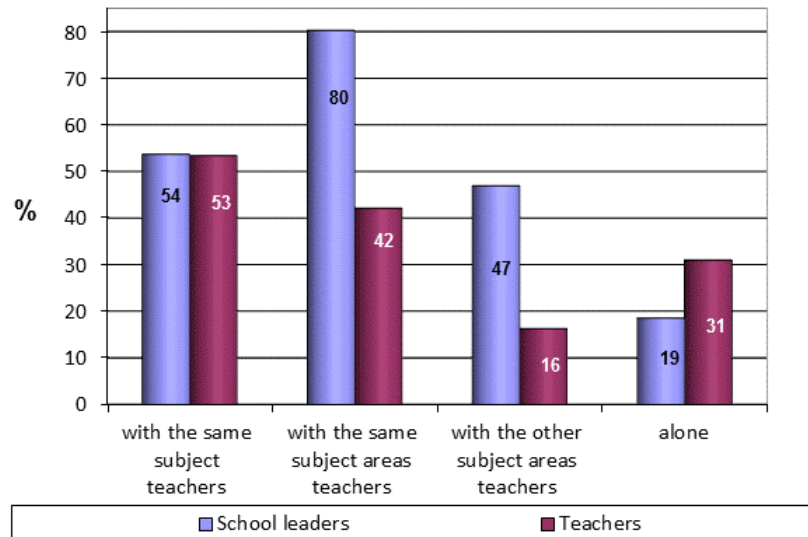
Figure1. Teachers and school leaders evaluation about the teachers' cooperation between in the development process of school curriculum and syllabuses

Upper-secondary school teachers (p = 0.000) as well as Russian language instruction schools' teachers (p = 0.000) claimed more that in their schools was organised teachers subject field working groups and upper-secondary school teachers were more convinced that teachers' subject field groups work successfully (p = 0.000).

The students-centred teachers, and those who were more convinced that the learning outcomes will be achieved, compiled the syllabuses more frequent in collaboration with other subject areas of teachers than the less student-oriented teachers (p = 0.000) or teachers who had negative' attitude to syllabus changes (p = 0.000).

More student- centred teachers evaluated the cooperation between school teachers generally higher than less student centred teachers (p = 0.000). These teachers, who were more convinced that the learning outcomes will be achieved (p = 0.000), those who recite more positive aspects in the new syllabuses (p = 0.000), were also more convinced that in-school teachers' subject fields and subject divisions are working more successfully.

The school leaders argue that in the comparison with the past, the teachers pay now in the learning process more attention to students' development and individuality. The teachers were still more subject centred and argued that the most significant change in their teaching process is to relate subject teaching content to everyday life. Although the new curriculum emphasis more the formative assessment, outdoor education and development of students' career awareness, as teachers as school leaders did not argue that, in the comparison of the previous years they are planning to be pay now more attention to these aspects in everyday school life.

Basics school leaders argued more frequently than upper-secondary school principals that teachers address students' with special needs (p = 0.002), dealing with students with learning difficulties (p = 0.004), conducting student inquiries (p = 0.025), outdoor education (p = 0.015), etc. School leaders, who tended to be rather a "curriculum developers", they argued less that attention will be paid to pupils with learning difficulties (p = 0.035), to monitor students' progress (p = 0.024), and activating students in the classroom (p = 0.032), and more that the attention will be paid to formative assessment (p = 0.029).

Basic school teachers themselves argued more frequently that compared to the past they pay more attention to students with special needs (p = 0.017), students with learning difficulties (p = 0.002), development of students' social skills (p = 0.044), and values (p = 0.022). Upper-secondary school teachers pay more attention to gifted students (p = 0.031), to practical works (p = 0.000), active methods (p = 0.001), ICT tools (p = 0.002), development of students´ career awareness (p = 0.011).

5   Conclusion

Teachers have to be active agents in transforming an intended National Curriculums into implemented curriculum at school level. We conclude that there was significant gap how do the teachers and school leaders evaluate at the school level the cooperation in the school curriculum development process. In the comparison with teachers, the school leaders tended more argue that in the compiling process of the new syllabuses the teachers collaborated with the same and other subject field teachers. Teachers, however, often argued, that cooperation did not occur and the syllabuses were compiled alone.

There were curriculum development and implementation differences between different types of schools and study groups too. More student- centred teachers, teachers, who were more convinced that the learning outcomes will be achieved and teachers, who recite more positive aspects in the new syllabuses evaluated the cooperation between teachers generally higher and they developed more often the new syllabi in the cooperation with other teachers.

Principals' and teachers' perceptions differed significantly in regard with the question: what changes are planned in the learning process in this and coming academic years. The teachers were still more subject centred.

Although the integration of the new curriculum is one of the important keyword, the survey reveals that toward the actual school-level cooperation the real integration between the subjects is still a long way to go. In general, there is a hope in Estonia that the implementation of new curricula and investments in teachers` training help to enhance these gaps.

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The voice of the teacher in the making of curriculum: Challenges faced by a Macao English language teacher

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Abstract

The basic question of what curriculum is or what curriculum should be has been an issue discussed in the educational field over decades. Despite much diversity in interpreting or defining curriculum, one of the unifying themes in the literature is the importance of the teacher's voice in curriculum making. Curriculum specialists such as Schwab (1969, 1971, 1973, 1983), Clandinin and Connelly (1992), Connelly and Clandinin (1988) and Goodson (1992, 2005) see the practitioner, or simply the teacher, as the key figure of a curriculum situation. The voice of the teacher needs to be heard for their knowing of a classroom summed up as their personal practical knowledge helps plan, construct, develop and implement the curriculum in a school. The present paper examines curriculum practices in Macao, an ex-Portuguese colony and a small city populated with Cantonese-speaking Chinese at the southern tip of Mainland China, and discusses a qualitative case study that looks into the challenges faced by an English language teacher in the making of the curriculum in his school. While having to work against the currents of a laissez-faire policy in the Macao school system brought by the legacy of Portuguese rule in the last four centuries before the return of Macao's sovereignty to China in 1999, an absence of a government standardised language curriculum for all schools in the territory as well as the complication of a redefined socio-economic need for English in the community due to the recent decade of economic development in the tourist and gaming industries, this teacher has also been struggling to make sense of the curriculum plans that are imposed by the school administrators on English teaching and learning in the school. This paper attempts to restate the importance of the teacher's voice in curriculum making and the translation of curriculum plans in the actual classroom context.

Keywords: curriculum making, teacher's voice, English language curriculum, Macao

1 Introduction

In many educational contexts, the major parties that are involved in curriculum planning are often policy-makers and administrators. The key frontline figure in the classroom – the teacher – is normally left out in the process of making the curriculum; at most teachers are asked to put together their curriculum time line for the year but they can have very little input into what to teach or how to teach. If curriculum is merely seen as a teaching and learning plan in the school for teachers to follow, then this simplistic view is missing out the essential elements that would make teaching and learning work or occur meaningfully and effectively. Schwab's (1983) explication of "the practical" points out that all educational situations could be understood in terms of four curriculum commonplaces that are simultaneously interacting: teacher, learner, subject matter and milieu. For Schwab (1973), without the teacher's input in the curriculum, practice can become minimal. As he elaborated in his 1983 writings:

> Teachers will not and cannot be merely told what to do … Teachers are not, however, assembly line operators, and will not so behave. … There are thousands of ingenious ways in which commands on what

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and how to teach will, and must be modified or circumvented in the actual moments of teaching. Teachers practise an art. Moments of choice of what to do, how to do it, with whom and at what pace, arise hundreds of times a school day, and arise differently every day and with every group of students. No command or instruction can be so formulated as to control that kind of artistic judgment and behavior, with its demand for frequent, instant choices of ways to meet an ever varying situation (p. 245).

Building upon Schwab's (1969, 1971, 1973, 1983) conception of curriculum, Connelly and Clandinin (1988) further stated that "curriculum development and curriculum planning are fundamentally questions of teacher thinking and teaching doing. … it is teachers' "personal knowledge" that determines all matters of significance relative to the planned conduct of classrooms" (p. 4). So, teachers are "an integral part of the curriculum constructed and enacted in classrooms" (Clandinin & Connelly, 1992, p. 363). Their voice needs to be visible in the curriculum making process as they move between their personal curriculum and their curriculum making.

In order to succeed in classroom environments, teachers take an important role as curriculum designers. They not only help create the curriculum but are a part of it. This role of the teacher should be understood in the light that pedagogical implementation decisions lie primarily in the hands of particular teachers in particular classrooms. Frontline teachers understand and have best knowledge of their classrooms. They construct the curriculum through an organic process of design and refinement, interacting with the other three commonplaces in Schwab's curricular conception, that is, their students, the subject matter they are teaching and the school and classroom context they are in. As they develop and implement the curriculum, they make use of their experiential knowledge or "personal practical knowledge" (Clandinin & Connelly, 1992; Connelly & Clandinin, 1988, 2000), embodied in their history, lived experiences, knowledge, beliefs and thinking, to enact their teaching and negotiate a balance between pedagogy and content in ways that are appropriate to specific learners and contexts.

As Parker et al. (2011) remarked, Connelly and Clandinin's (1988) foundational work on personal practical knowledge through narrative inquiry shows how teachers shift and change their classroom curriculum as they engage "in a kind of action research, an extension of the notion of curriculum inquiry …" (p. 175). Studying teachers' lives (Goodson, 1992, 2005) therefore provides important insights into the ways in which teachers' personal practical knowledge shape their belief systems and their approaches in classroom practice. In an attempt to restate the importance of the teacher in curriculum making, the present paper examines the effects of the historical and socio-economic developments of Macao on curriculum practices and discusses a qualitative case study that looks into the challenges faced by an English language teacher in a local secondary school as he made sense of the curriculum plans imposed by his school administrators and the translation of these plans in the actual classroom context.

2   The Macao Context

Macao is a small city and a special administrative region at the southern tip of Mainland China with the majority of its population being Cantonese-speaking Chinese. While Cantonese, a southern Chinese dialect, is the mother tongue, people in Macao write Mandarin, the standard Chinese language. With the legacy of having been a Portuguese colony for more than four centuries before the return of its sovereignty to Mainland China in 1999, Macao adopts Portuguese as its official language alongside Chinese. The recent decade of economic development in Macao points to the fact that Macao has to elevate the status of English, a foreign language with no official status, in its community in order to meet the demands of its developing tourist and gaming industries. Foreign investments flood into Macao and English is used as a vital tool in many scenarios for interactions and exchanges. In its strategic development plan for the next twenty years, the Macao government (2000) states that English learning should be promoted; more specifically, "if we have to choose between English and Portuguese, we should prefer English" (p. 98).

For years in history, the school system in Macao takes on a laissez-faire policy, giving private schools a lot of autonomy in school management and curriculum development. The Ministry of Education in Macao (known as the DSEJ locally) offers curricular guidelines for each school subject. However, schools have much freedom and flexibility in how they want to follow these guidelines. In general, the majority of schools are Chinese-medium and all the subjects, except foreign languages such as Portuguese and English, are taught in Cantonese. In terms of second/foreign language learning, it is stated that, in public or government schools, Portuguese is a compulsory subject and English is only introduced to students at the senior primary level or above. In private schools, Portuguese is not mandatory and English is learnt as a foreign language from kindergarten years all the way till the completion of senior high school.

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Ieong's (2000) report on English teaching and learning in the Macao classroom commented that Macao lacked a long-term, far-sighted language policy, thus not having any distinguishing guidelines as reference for schools. As a result of this absence of a uniform curriculum for all schools, different schools develop and follow a different English language curriculum despite the general guidelines given by the DSEJ. School-leavers from different schools demonstrate different proficiency standards when they finish their secondary studies. Whether or not these school-leavers are able to meet the growing demand of a good command of English in the community becomes the responsibility of the school. Frontline English teachers are expected to uphold the proficiency standards of the students in their schools while implementing the school English language curriculum in classroom practice.

3 Methodology of the Study

3.1 Research Stance and Research Participant

The present study takes the stance of a qualitative inquiry and adopts the case study methodology, which allows an in-depth analysis and understanding of how the research participant, an English language teacher in a secondary school in Macao, went through reflective inquiry and became more aware of the personal practical knowledge he possessed and how this experiential knowledge, constructed through his past and present lived experiences, added new meanings to his professional knowledge and shed new light on his present teaching. The study also seeks to understand how, through this active process of interpreting and reinterpreting experiential knowledge, this teacher at the same time made sense of the school curriculum imposed by his subject panel chair and added his voice in the implementation of this curriculum in his classroom.

Kenneth (a pseudonym), the teacher under study, is a non-native speaker of English and graduated from a four-year Bachelor of Education programme in English education offered in the University of Macau. He has been teaching three English classes at junior form levels in a local Chinese-medium private secondary school for three years. As the school is a typical private school, the subject panel chair has much freedom and flexibility to determine the curriculum for all levels of English learning in the school. Curricular documents prepared by the panel chair have included the goals, objectives, teaching content and teaching assessment and, under the supervision of the panel chair, Kenneth has to follow and implement these curriculum plans in his teaching regardless of whether these plans were useful guidelines for providing students with really meaningful and effective language learning experiences.

When Kenneth was invited to participate in the present study, he showed much interest in learning more about reflective inquiry and expressed that he could not rely solely on what he had learnt in his undergraduate years and gradually felt the need for more ways to help him face the challenges in his daily teaching. He did not want his teaching to simply become a routine and hoped to improve his practice for personal growth as well as for the benefit of his students. In this way, teaching and learning as a process of curriculum implementation would then become more meaningful and effective.

3.2 Data Collection and Data Analysis

As a participant in the study, to start with, Kenneth had to write an autobiography about his learning as well as his teaching beliefs and philosophies. This was intended to help him reflect on his past language learning experiences, both inside and outside of school contexts, and write about his philosophy of teaching and learning English as a foreign language in Macao. By reflecting upon and explicitly writing out his past experiences and his beliefs, Kenneth was made aware of who and/or what had been a strong influence in his past learning experiences and how this influence helped shape his present teaching and learning beliefs. These past experiences, common sense understandings and present beliefs and philosophies, which Kenneth might not have taken note of, are part of what formed the experiential or personal practical knowledge that he holds.

In addition to the autobiography and teaching beliefs and philosophies that he wrote, Kenneth was given a set of guidelines for making reflective journal entries on two lessons that he taught each week for a semester of ten weeks. This exercise of on-going reflections as a component in the study was to give Kenneth an opportunity to pause regularly and keep track of his own teaching, to uncover and articulate his assumptions about what good teaching should involve and what a teacher's role should entail and to examine how he could make sense of his assumptions and his professional knowledge in a real classroom context and construct meaningful language learning experiences for his students.

Finally, within that ten-week semester, ten of the lessons that Kenneth taught were observed and post-observation discussions were held each time. In-depth interviews were also conducted to examine the (re)sources that Kenneth relied on in his teaching. All the data collected through the discussion and interviews were transcribed and the data from the autobiography and reflective journals were studied and categorised for content analysis.

4   Findings and Discussions

In his reflections, Kenneth was able to display a high degree of awareness of the beliefs he has been upholding about language teaching and learning. As far as he could, Kenneth strived to contextualise his beliefs in his teaching and at the same time tried to strike a balance between his beliefs and experiential knowledge, the professional knowledge he learnt at university and the reality he faced in his present teaching. Throughout the process, Kenneth went through successes and frustrations and, as he gained insights into his teaching, new knowledge emerged from such experiences.

In reflection of his past learning experiences, Kenneth discussed his philosophy of teaching and learning English and wrote in his autobiography:

> I think in successful learning, it is important for students to understand what the teacher says first … **Understanding** is the first step in learning while **practice** comes in second. Without doing enough practice, students will easily put what they've learnt behind. They might also think that it is meaningless if they just learn without using it. One thing we should bear in mind is that when we assign them to do some tasks, try to link those tasks into their real life, make it be more relevant to them. The third thing is **encouragement**. Be generous to give them as much praise as possible as long as they make progress or make efforts. With this positive feeling, I am sure even the worst students, they still feel good and have a right attitude towards what you teach.
> To conclude, my teaching beliefs are the following:
> →let students understand first.
> →give them some practice which is meaningful and relevant to them.
> →give them positive feeling by our praise and encouragement.

Eager to uphold his beliefs in his teaching, Kenneth tried to design more meaningful tasks for his students. A notable example can be seen in one of his Form 1 classes. As he wrote in one journal entry:

> One of the exercises that I checked today is actually in the form of dialogues. And their job is to match the dialogues. (e.g. A: I'm very hot; B: I'll turn on the fan). Instead of asking them to write the letters "A" or "B" for the dialogues, I ask two students to stand up and do the role-play. When they speak, they at the same time can give us the answer → it's more interesting and meaningful. I can also do the follow-up for this exercise → to form more dialogues by themselves. The answer-checking work becomes more meaningful and related to them and they can be further practising their speaking skill. … I do not want to simply follow the given syllabus in the school teaching plans and check answers with the students. Checking answers can surely be quick and easy but I really want to give students some meaningful learning experiences even though it is only a matter of answer checking.

Kenneth reiterated his desire to provide students with meaningful learning experiences and thus did not simply follow the teaching plans as stated in the school curricular documents. He tried to make sense of the plans and instil his beliefs of communicative language learning in his teaching. In the interview after this lesson, Kenneth expressed that the school adopted a rather structural approach to language teaching and required teachers only to cover and complete all the grammar exercises as stated in the school plans. He in fact had to squeeze time to implement some communicative elements in the class activities. He knew that this would be a challenging attempt as the panel chair expected that all teachers should follow curriculum timeline. Adding the communicative role-play in the answer-checking work could run into the risk of not being able to finish the scheduled syllabus on time. But Kenneth believed that he was doing the right thing for his students as the communicative practice he added to the given syllabus was meaningful learning experiences that students needed. He was ready to construct and reconstruct his classroom curriculum for the benefits of his students.

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Where possible and plausible, Kenneth contextualised what he believed in his teaching. His beliefs, however, are not fixed and final; they are evolving. There is one important factor at work that governs and continues to shape a practising teacher's belief system and this factor is the actual classroom situation or context. In his teaching, Kenneth was not unaware that there were times when he saw contradictions between his beliefs, his professional knowledge and the classroom reality. These were the moments when he was faced with much frustration. Frustrated though he was, he had to make compromise and adopt a more accommodating approach to accomplishing his teaching for the better benefit of his students.

As Kenneth reflected in another journal entry:

> When I studied in UM [University of Macau] what I learnt from my pedagogy class was we should teach our students different skills in reading, like scanning, skimming and prediction etc. However, when I come to a real situation, it's hard to apply that knowledge. They don't have much vocabulary so that they are not willing to read by themselves during the class. Today, what I did was, I showed them all the questions on the PowerPoint and I read the passage, they just listened to me and followed me. In this way, I could force them to read and they might find out the answer from the key words. … Sometimes, I don't enjoy teaching them this way but we should accept the reality and I hope one day, their English is ready for my ways of teaching, that is, the skills applied in reading.

Kenneth further wrote:

> There are some contradictions in my teaching. In teaching reading, it's more important to teach students the different skills in reading. However, I can't accomplish this goal at this moment. I think I should try my best to build up their vocabulary. If their vocabulary is rich, it is helpful definitely in learning English.

The compromise that Kenneth had to make showed him that flexibility was an important factor in knowledge application and he himself admitted that "as a teacher, we should be flexible and make decisions from time to time." This was one way to contextualise more effectively what he learnt before. With new insights gained, Kenneth at the same time constructed new knowledge for his classroom practice.

Though Kenneth had to compromise and adapt himself to the actual classroom reality, he was still determined that he would not completely sacrifice what he believed and what he had learnt at university and that, where possible, he would implement these in his teaching. A few weeks later, in one other journal entry, Kenneth wrote about another reading lesson he taught:

> For the scanning part, it puzzled them [the students]. Perhaps they lack this kind of practice. In the beginning, I explained to them how to do and let them do it. But when I walked around, most of the students just remained seated so I just finished this part with them. I am sure I will introduce more reading skills for them by doing more reading practice. Help them get used to those skills and to practise reading in the right way.

Through reflections, Kenneth realised that he had been making constant adjustments to his teaching in response to his students' learning but the most important thing was that he understood that this was the process of his professional growth. Contextualising his experiential and professional knowledge in his teaching and articulating explicitly the links he made between these two kinds of knowledge in his journal entries have allowed Kenneth to pause and examine his taken-for-granted assumptions and to develop new insights for his practice. This reflective inquiry experience has allowed him to keep track of his own teaching, to look back at some of the changes he made in his understanding of teaching and to reinterpret and redefine some of his teaching beliefs. In the process of implementing the school curriculum, Kenneth's new insights developed through his reflective inquiry help add his voice in constructing a meaningful curriculum for his students.

5   Conclusion

The case of Kenneth's story as an English language teacher in Macao illustrates that teacher learning is active and that knowledge is constantly growing within the teacher self. Studying a teacher's personal lived experiences is a means to allow the teacher to reinterpret and redefine his/her teaching beliefs and construct new knowledge for classroom practice. As teachers become more aware of their role in the making of a meaningful curriculum for their teaching context, classroom practice then becomes more effective. Curriculum making does not exist independently of

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teachers. The teacher's voice embraces his/her beliefs, philosophies of teaching and learning as well as understanding of the classroom context and it is this voice that completes the process of curriculum making.

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National curriculum *vs* curricular adaptation – teachers' perspectives

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Abstract

The "education for all" motto and the concerns with equality and justice, revealed the need to provide the same opportunities of knowledge acquisition for all students, which argued the need for adaptation to the national curriculum, by teachers. Many studies argue that school education is better achieved and gains quality when school content is adapted and teachers become curricular developers (Priestley, 2010; Leite & Fernandes, 2011). When teachers are able to adapt the national curriculum with students' different learning and cultural experiences, school success increases (Sahasewiyon, 2004). These initiatives take time, demanding a thorough preparation from teachers, competing with the extent of curricula to teach. This triggers tension in teachers' work within the classroom, specifically concerning innovation initiatives.

Considering this, within a research project concerning curricular contextualization, it seemed important to explore teachers' perceptions on the duality "*national curriculum* vs *curricular adaptation*". To do so, interviews were conducted to teachers, from three northern Portuguese secondary schools, responsible for teaching the final year of Portuguese, History, Mathematics, Biology and Geology, Physics and Chemistry.

This research allowed the understanding of the challenges teachers' face in their daily practices concerning curriculum. Mainly, teachers' admitted to practice some curriculum adaptation, but stress that the pressure for fulfilling the entire curriculum, and the length of curricula, constitute impediments and obstacles to curriculum innovation and their role as curriculum developers. Nevertheless, they express the willingness to extend the national curriculum through different approaches and act as curriculum developers.

Keywords: national curriculum; curriculum adaptation; teachers' perceptions.

1   Introduction

School education, in Europe, has been target of attention in order to improve educational systems and meet a set of goals concerning the population literacy levels (European Union Council, 2011). The *"education for all"* motto, originated the need of the national curriculum be adapted, aiming to ensure that every student, despite the social origin, had access to the same opportunities for success. Therefore, concerns with school education quality originated new research, which are pointing towards concepts and practices such as *differentiation*, *personalized learning,* and *curricular adaptation*. Research showed that students beneficiate with a diversified approach.

Recent studies argue the benefits of a differentiated approach to curriculum and of curricular adaptation to meet students and social backgrounds and cultures. This entails the concept of teachers as curriculum developers, in the sense that they are the ones responsible for teaching. But schools' reality presents a set of conditions that can enable or difficult this change, demanding a better understanding of the factors influencing educational systems, concerning curriculum adaptation practices. These questions were addressed in a research project focusing *curricular contextualization* (PTDC/CPE-CED/113768/2009 (http://www.fpce.up.pt/contextualizar), which is "a *didactical-pedagogical strategy that aims to promote the students school success and the improvement of their learning. This can be done by adapting curricular contents in order to bring e them closer to students and to the environment where teaching and learning occurs and, therefore, as a result, making them more significant and understandable"* (Fernandes *et al*, 2012:6).

This project rests on the idea that students' learning can be promoted and increased when teachers' are able to use the knowledge and curricular content and adapt it in a more meaningful and interesting way. This research project

covered a range of factors related to curriculum adaptation, within curriculum contextualization. In this paper we present the conclusions concerning the duality *"national curriculum* vs *curricular adaptation"*, based on teachers' opinions and perceptions, concerning both its impacts, as well as the challenges teachers' face with curriculum adaptation.

2   Curriculum adaptation – some theoretical considerations

Concerns with the quality of school education, with the assurance of equity and justice, and with students' achievement rates led to the implementation of a national curriculum, attempting to address the generality of students. However, continuous research on education revealed the need for changes, concerned with social aspects and with the development of a coherent curriculum (Beane, 2003; Nieveen & Kuiper, 2012). The attention to and concern with the increasing cultural diversity in schools, and the search for higher social equity set the basis for a change in curriculum development processes (Field, Kuczera, & Pont, 2007). In this sense, many studies were developed, which resulted in a set of suggestions to be considered when rethinking teaching and learning processes, including curriculum adaptation.

Recent studies argue in favor of teachers becoming curricular developers (Priestley, 2010; Leite & Fernandes, 2011), defending that teaching and learning gains quality when school content is adapted to meet different realities, and when it is developed through a number of diversified strategies. These studies stress that, when teachers adapt the national curriculum with students' different learning and cultural experiences, school success increases (Sahasewiyon, 2004). The consideration of aspects close to students' lives, to their interests, to their background, to their culture, to their life stories when developing curriculum and teaching, seems to improve students' interest in school, and to increase their learning. Hence, the use of curriculum adaptation strategies is particularly important to meet two goals: the respect for students' diversity (Yamauchi, 2003; Kalbach & Forester, 2006) and the promotion of school success (Sealey & Noyes, 2010; Braund & Reiss, 2006).

Research argues that taking into account the features of the place where school education is developed, the life habits, social background, daily local routines constitutes a promising starting point for developing a curriculum that can easily be related to real life situations, increasing students' understanding of such matters (Smith, 2005; Paliwal & Subramaniam, 2006). Likewise, in order for the curriculum to be significant and understandable to students, it should consider their interests and lives (Cook-Sather, 2006), and students should be actively engaged in their learning (Souto-Manning, 2008). When students are actively involved in the learning process, they will most likely understand school contents, and reach better outcomes (Hartnell-Young & Vetere, 2008; Goodson & Crick, 2009). Also, research revealed that teaching and learning benefits from diversified approaches to connect with different students and make lessons more interesting and motivating (Gillespie, 2002; Yamauchi, 2003; King et al, 2007). This rests on the ability of curriculum adaptation.

Research also showed that curricular adaptation initiatives demand time and a thorough preparation, which involve rethinking pedagogical practices, the approach to curriculum and lesson planning. But the obligation of fulfilling the entire length of a national curriculum, the establishment of educational goals and the constant pressure to reach better results, competes with curriculum adaptation. Therefore, this can be a tricky process for teachers as the main actors responsible for establishing equilibrium between the national curriculum and its adaptation, especially when it requires new approaches and methods (Davies, 2006; Choppin, 2009).

Within the above referred research project, it seemed relevant to explore teachers' perceptions on the duality *"national curriculum* vs *curricular adaptation"*, concerning their motivation for curriculum adaptation, as well as their understanding of its challenges.

3   Methodology

The research methodology followed in the research project, was of a qualitative nature, developed through a number of qualitative techniques of data collection and analysis. The project privileged an approach that enables a direct contact with the subjects, as well as the consideration of their specificities, their characteristics. At the same time, the research team aimed to collected rich and meaningful information, by listening and enabling the subjects to freely express themselves and to express their opinions, feelings, perceptions and understandings.

Three northern Portuguese schools were considered in this research, and interviews were conducted to teachers responsible for teaching the final year of Portuguese, History, Mathematics, Biology and Geology, Physics and Chemistry, in these schools, and to students from the selected teachers.

Bearing in mind the intention of exploring their perceptions, semi-structured interviews and *focus group* interviews (Barbour & Kitzinger, 1999; Hopf, 2004) were conducted to both teachers and students. A total of 44 teachers and 42 students were interviewed. The interviews followed a predetermined structure, based on a previously developed theoretical framework, but open to changes and adjustments according to eventual needs. The data analysis was performed through content analysis (Krippendorf, 2003), using the software Nvivo 10, in order to explore the information and unravel meanings, central features and main traces of discourse, and to organize the information in meaningful categories. This process allowed the identification of perceptions on the use of curriculum contextualization, and consequently, curricular adaptation, and its impacts on students achievement, as well as to identify constrains and benefits of such practices.

For the purposes of this paper, only the views and perceptions from teachers are considered.

4 Results and conclusions

The research conducted with the teachers from the three northern Portuguese schools revealed that the issue of curricular adaptation, through curricular contextualization, is surrounded both by positive outcomes, as well as by constrains and some difficulties for teachers. By listening to teachers' perspectives and opinions on this matter, it was possible to identify three sets of aspects related to curriculum adaptation practices: *a)* teachers' motivation for performing curriculum adaptation; *b)* the benefits identified by these teachers from adaptation strategies; and *c)* the difficulties teachers face when trying to develop curriculum adaptation. This section is organized to present the research results and conclusions meeting these three focuses.

4.1 Teachers' motivation for performing curriculum adaptation

When asked if they performed curriculum adaptation and, if so, why did they choose to do it, teachers' answers were varied, but the majority of them confirm to use curriculum adaptation. In what concerns to the motivation behind this practice, teachers' answers were clear and pointed for the higher goal of promoting students' learning on the subjects they taught, as well as the students' motivation for learning. Teachers' felt that the social, cultural and economical diversity in their classrooms, and also, in two of the considered schools, the specificity of the school's social context, demanded a more careful and attentive teaching approach, in order to transform generic and general subject contents into a more comprehensive and meaningful version. They felt the need of some adaptation to the national curriculum, aiming to make it closer to the knowledge of students' daily life and background, providing it with meaning and significance, as stated in the following excerpts from the interviews:

"… the concern with making the learning more meaningful for students"

"I don't want my students to repeat the content. I want them to understand and that what they learn is useful for them"

"… for me it is essential that the student realizes why he's doing that, why it is done like that"

Hence, the teachers' were motivated by curriculum adaptation potential of increasing students' interest in learning and improving their achievement, as expressed in the following statements:

"They like. They participate because they see a real thing there"

"I believe it is also motivational for students. It enhances the gain of knowledge"

4.2 Benefits from curriculum adaptation strategies

The previous subsection focused teachers' motivation for performing curriculum adaptation and innovation in school, highlighting the intention of promoting students learning and achievement rates. This led to the question of whether such practices had real and visible impacts in students' learning. Teachers' opinions were not as much assertive concerning students achievement, as they could not clearly and undoubtedly correlate curriculum adaptation with students' results, but on the other hand, they were peremptory in affirm an increase of motivation and understanding of subject content.

> *"Knowledge becomes part of them. They experience what they are learning, what they study"*

> *"Even an equity of opportunities… And also, I believe it makes students' learning more meaningful"*

> *"They see it in practice. It's interesting because they experience in practice what they learn theoretically"*

That is to say that teachers' identify, as a result of curriculum adaptation practices, mainly, that students felt more motivated in classes, their interest in the subject content increased as the content was related to more familiar and contextualized knowledge, and consequently, their understanding of such content was, also, promoted.

4.3 Difficulties of developing curriculum adaptation

Even though the teachers from this study clearly expressed their intentions of performing curriculum adaptation, and identify positive impacts from its use, they also revealed their concerns and difficulties with that strategy. The Portuguese education systems respects and is guided by a national curriculum, which is generally used in every school and must be fulfilled. Also, public Portuguese schools have an externally defined time schedule for each subject. On top of that, teachers from the school subjects considered in this study also face the pressure of a national exam in the final year. All this aspects form the basis of constrains and difficulties that teachers face when performing curriculum adaptation.

Looking at the interviews, the main difficulties are related to the length of the national curriculum for each subject and the obligation of its fulfilment, which difficult curriculum adaptation. In order for teachers to cover the entire curriculum in the school year, all teaching time must be dedicated to it, and the possible adaptation take precious time, as shown in the following statements from the interviews:

> *"I think is more the issue of the subject program, which is a burden for us… and trying to go around it takes time, it's complicated. It's not easy"*

> *"I mostly think it is a matter of time… that is the most common and valid complaint"*

> *"Because it is a large program in my subject, so there is a planning to be rigorously respected in order to fulfil the program length"*

This is why most teachers feel that they do not have the opportunity for more innovation strategies. Also, teachers feel that the national exam and students preparation for it demands that all extra time is spent in reinforcing content, instead of reinventing them and teaching strategies:

> *"… but the final year, the exam year, is more concern with time. They are concern with national exams and time…"*

> *"… but in the final year, because of the time constraints, we need to be more careful with those initiatives"*

5 Final remarks

From the interviews with teachers it was possible to draw some conclusions on the duality *"national curriculum vs curriculum adaptation"*. The general assumption that curriculum adaptation has positive effects in the teaching and learning process is shared by these teachers. They mostly believe this strategy enables a richer learning environment and more productive lessons. Teachers also believe that the use of curriculum adaptation in their classes helps to improve students' motivation and learning. Such beliefs are in line with recent research on school and education and reinforce the arguments defending curriculum adaptation strategies in schooling. It is following those beliefs that the teachers from this study admitted to perform some curriculum adaptation, whenever possible and necessary.

Nevertheless, teachers' discourse also revealed constrains and difficulties inherent to the existence of a curriculum and a lesson scheduling somewhat defined nationally, to be entirely fulfilled, alongside with the pressure to prepare students, especially in the final year, for national exams. Hence, teachers list as their main concerns and impediments for a more frequent curriculum adaptation, the lack of time and opportunity due to the need of fulfilling the national curriculum defined for their school subjects, and the pressure from the incoming national exams. Also, they refer the length of the curricula, as an obstacle to curriculum innovation. Nevertheless, they express the willingness to extend the national curriculum through different approaches and act as curriculum developers.

Considering the theoretical and scientific knowledge produced in recent years on curriculum and education, and particularly, the conclusions from this study, it seems that policymakers and curriculum developers and planners need to take their time on studying and analyzing what really works in teaching and learning, as presented by the school contexts, by teachers and by students. There is a clear need of understanding and considering the educational reality and to take it into account when implementing political measures, or performing changes in schools.

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CURRICULUM INTEGRATION IN TEACHER TRAINING: A REFLECTION FOCUSED ON SUPERVISED TEACHING PRACTICE AT THE HIGHER SCHOOL OF EDUCATION OF VISEU

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Abstract

The Master's degree in Pre-School Education and Teaching in the 1st Cycle of Basic Education, in accordance with the present legislation, includes the component of Supervised Teaching Practice (STP). The way to organize this training component, although regulated by some principles contained in the legal documents, is of the responsibility of each institution of higher education that teaches the course.

In this communication, we present a study that aims to: *(i)* know students' perceptions concerning the referred STP, and *(ii)* reflect on the model of organization and functioning of the STP implemented in the Higher School of Education of Viseu (Portugal).

This is an exploratory research of a descriptive nature, based on the questionnaire survey. The participants in this study are students in the Master's degree in Pre-School Education and Teaching in the 1st Cycle of Basic Education from Higher School of Education of Viseu (ESEV).

The obtained results show a good acceptance of the Supervised Teaching Practice model by students, recognizing the importance of contacting with the two levels of education in various teaching institutions. In addition, they value the tasks developed within STP, as well as the support of the multidisciplinary team.

Keywords: students' perceptions; teacher training; supervised teaching practice.

1 Introduction

The Master in Pre-School Education and Teaching in the 1st Cycle of Basic Education is a course which qualifies teachers professionally to teach in Pre-school Education and 1st Cycle Primary School (1st – 4th years). The course was created by Order n.º 4530/09 of 5 February and has a total of 90 ECTS lasting three semesters.

This 2nd Cycle of studies includes a training component called Supervised Teaching Practice (STP), which seeks to ensure the educational experience within the professional context of teaching. How this component is implemented is the responsibility of each higher education organizing the STP within the parameters set forth in the legislation.

The character of the STP in this course is continuous and integrating. Throughout the course the student will develop their personal and professional skills which are appropriate to the different job performance dimensions for the preschool and primary school teacher from a lifelong learning perspective.

Whereas the first group of students recently completed their training, it is important learn their perceptions of STP, and subsequently reflect on the organization and operating model of the teaching practice implemented at the Higher School of Education (ESEV).

The aim of this study is to inform and promote the discussion regarding the training model for future teachers in order to improve the training teaching provided.

2 The Supervised Teaching Practice Component of the 2nd Cycle Studies in Pre-School and Primary Education

The Masters in Pre-School Education and Teaching in the 1st Cycle of Basic Education in Portugal stem from the changes made to the law governing the education system (Law n.º 46/86 of 14 October) as well as changes brought about by the Bologna Process from the publication of Decree-Law n.º 74/2006 of 24 March (the legal framework regarding higher education degrees and diplomas), and more specifically in the field of professional teaching qualifications, by Decree-Law n.º 43/2007 of 22 February.

According to this Decree-Law, ESEV organized the training STP component, including the seminar, internship and tutorial components. The maximum number of credits allocated (45 ECTS) are distributed as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Distribution of credits and contact hours in the Supervised Teaching Practice component

Supervised Teaching Practice	STP I	STP II	STP III
Credits	12	15	18
Contact hours	161 (42S +91E++28OT)	196(28S+140E+28OT)	238(42S+154E+42OT)

Teaching practice is an essential component of initial teacher training which allows theory to be associated with practice through reflection on action (Schön, 1983, 1987), developing progressive responsibility and teacher autonomy (Shulman, 1986; Roldão, 2000; Alarcão, 2005) and stimulating the ability to look for solutions to the problems that arise from educational situations.

The aim of the STP curricular units is for students to observe and intervene in teaching/learning situations in nursery and primary schools. To this end, they are required to plan activities through mobilizing knowledge, skills and educational resources. They must collaborate to promote and implement school projects and develop a critical and reflective posture with regards to the challenges, processes and practices stemming from teaching/learning within the contexts in which they act.

2.1 Organisation and functioning of Supervised Teaching Practice

In the three STP curricular units students, organized in groups of two or three, conduct their activities in nursery and primary schools from the 1st semester of the course. They have the support of cooperating advisors and ESEV supervisors.

In STP I, the students carry out their internship in both teaching levels (pre-school and primary) for five weeks (two days a week) in each of these. This allows them to come into contact with the school organization and its operation, as well as to observe classes/activities and the planning of educational interventions within the context of the classroom with group teaching (four weeks) and individual teaching (one week).

In the STP II unit curricular, one part of the class carries out their internship in pre-school and the other part in primary school. These levels are then switched in the following semester (STP III). The internship takes place over fifteen weeks (three days a week), and includes observation of classes/activities, as well as individual planning and intervention within the context of classroom.

Students perform observation tasks to critically characterize and analyze contexts, components and curricular levels, to plan coordinated activities. They also prepare materials and execute their plans in educational contexts with classes/groups under the supervision of their cooperating advisors who accompanies them in a progressive process of constructing professional knowledge.

Student supervision during their internship is ensured through a training mechanism that integrates a team of experts (a multidisciplinary team) in the areas of teacher training (TT) and in their specialty area (Educational Sciences).

At each specific level, articulation is ensured by a teacher in charge of each level of the curricular unit and by the course coordinator. This team of teachers ensures the monitoring of specific tutorial groups, as well as supervision of the whole class and support of activities in their area.

Monitoring the work carried out where their internship takes place is performed by the entire team, in conjunction with the cooperating advisors at the nursery/primary schools. The days when activities are implemented are reserved in the teachers' weekly schedules to ensure they are available to travel to the schools.

The flow of information between students and staff is also supported by a multidirectional e-learning platform, where there is also a space to communicate with the cooperating advisors.

2.2   The research component in students' professional training

Research is considered a key strategy in students' professional training. It is thus assigned particular importance in terms of STP. Initiating students in research related to practice allows them to develop their ability as future educators/teachers to analyze and question professional situations in the various contexts in which they operate and to develop alternative, empirically grounded, proposals for change (Schön, 1987; Zeichner 1993, Ponte, 2002; Estrela, 2002).

Throughout their STP, students develop their research work. In STP I, the students define three research questions, one of which will be selected for the beginning of the research project. They are assigned an advisor, and co-advisor if necessary. In STP II, they elaborate the research project on the topic selected under the scientific guidance of their respective supervisors. In STP III, they develop the project under the supervision of their advisors and the final research project is integrated into the internship's final report, which is subject to public defence. This is an individual report and consists of two complementary parts: a critical appraisal of the whole STP course in both education levels and the referred research project.

3   Methodology

In order to know students' perceptions about the STP, we conducted a descriptive research study (Fortin, 2003) using a survey by questionnaire.

The study involved graduating students in their 2nd year of the Masters program. Out of a total of 24 students, 17 completed the questionnaire so that the response rate was 70.8%. The students are all female aged between 22 and 27 years, with a majority (64.7%) who has 23 years old.

Data collection was based on an online questionnaire consisting of two types of questions/items: twelve closed multiple choice items using a 5-level Likert scale (ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree) and two open questions for respondents to give their opinion "in their own words" (Ghiglione & Matalon, 2001, p. 115).

The preliminary draft was pre-tested by a few masters graduates, showing that there are no difficulties in comprehension.

The multiple choice answers were analyzed through descriptive statistics. Content analysis was used to analyze the answers to open questions using categorical analysis (Bardin, 1979).

4   Results

In this section the perceptions of students surveyed on the STP are presented in the order of the questionnaire items.

4.1   Supervised Teaching Practice in the course

The vast majority of students agrees (52.9%) or strongly agrees (11.8%), that, in general, there is articulation between the STP courses and the other curricular units in their study plan. It is also worth highlighting the clear articulation between STP I and Specific Didactics I, with which the majority of respondents agrees (58.8%) or strongly agrees (11.8%) (Table 2).

Table 2: Students' perception about the articulation between Supervision Teacher Practice and other curricular units in the course

Items	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neither agree nor disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
I consider that, in general, there is articulation between the STP courses and the other curricular units of the course.	0	0	0	0	6	35.3	9	52.9	2	11.8
I consider there is articulation between the STP I and Specific Didactics in Pre-School and Primary Education I.	0	0	1	5.9	4	23.5	10	58.8	2	11.8
I consider there is articulation between STP II and Specific Didactics in Pre-School and Primary Education II.	0	0	1	5.9	5	29.4	7	41.2	4	23.5
I consider there articulation between STP III and Specific Didactics in Pre-School and Primary Education III.	0	0	0	0	6	35.3	7	41.2	4	23.5

4.2 Functioning of Supervised Teaching Practice

The vast majority of students said they strongly agree (82.4%) that STP proceed from the 1st semester and last throughout the entire course. A large part agrees (52.9%) or totally agrees (11.8%), that there is articulation between the work performed in the three curricular units.

Nevertheless, they show less agreement about the existence of articulation between the internship in primary school and the pre-school internship. They appear to be divided in response to this item: while some (47.1%) neither agreed, nor disagreed, the others agreed (29.4%) or strongly agreed (11.8%), that there is such an articulation (Table 3).

Table 3: Students' perception on the functioning of Supervised Teaching Practice

Items	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neither agree nor disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
I consider it is fundamental that the STP proceed from the 1st semester and last throughout the entire course.	0	0	0	0	1	5.9	2	11.8	14	82.4
I consider there is articulation in the work carried out in the three STP courses.	0	0	0	0	6	35.3	9	52.9	2	11.8
I consider there is articulation between the primary school and pre-school internship.	0	0	2	11.8	8	47.1	5	29.4	2	11.8

4.3 Research in Supervised Teaching Practice

The students agree (52.9%) or strongly agree (17.6%), that conducting research work is important within the STP. However, they show less agreement as to the connection between this work and the internship carried out at the cooperating institutions. Although the majority has a favourable opinion - 35.3% agree and 17.6% strongly agree with this link - some are undecided (41.2%) (Table 4).

Table 4: Students' perception about research work within the Supervised Teaching Practice

Items	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neither agree nor disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
I consider that conducting a research project is important within the context of the STP.	0	0	0	0	5	29.4	9	52.9	3	17.6
I consider there is a connection between research project and the internship carried out at the cooperating institutions.	0	0	1	5.9	7	41.2	6	35.3	3	17.6

4.4   Supervision of Supervised Teaching Practice

Supervision of the STP in supporting the internships is highly appreciated by students. The vast majority agrees (64.7%) or strongly agrees (17.6%) that there is articulation between the members of the multidisciplinary supervisory team from ESEV in supporting the internships. They also agree (58.8%) or strongly agree (17.6%) that there is articulation between the cooperating advisors and the ESEV supervisors. Nevertheless, the majority of respondents (58.8%) were undecided about the existence of articulation between the cooperating advisors in the pre-school and primary school (Table 5).

Table 5: Students' perception regarding Supervised Teaching Practice supervision

Items	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neither agree nor disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
I consider there is articulation between the members of the Higher School of Education Viseu (ESEV) multidisciplinary supervision team in supporting the STP internships.	0	0	0	0	3	17.6	11	64.7	3	17.6
I consider there is articulation between the cooperating advisors and the ESEV supervisors.	0	0	0	0	4	23.5	10	58.8	3	17.6
I consider that there is articulation between the pre-school STP cooperating advisors and the primary school cooperating advisors.	1	5.9	1	5.9	10	58.8	5	29.4	0	0

4.5   Strengths and weaknesses of Supervised Teaching Practice

Content analysis of the responses of the students showed a remarkable difference between the number of positive and negative aspects indicated in the proportion of two-thirds to one-third, respectively. Many students did not mention negative aspects and others even suggested correcting the term "negative" with "less positive".

The most highly valued positive aspects were as follows in decreasing order: availability and support of supervisors and cooperating advisors, knowledge acquired, duration of the internship (three days) and professional experience.

The negative aspects mentioned most often were the difficulty in reconciling work in the Supervised Teaching Practice and other curricular units, the lack of articulation between some curricular units and the STP and reduced number of contact hours in STP I.

5   Conclusion

This study seeks to reflect on the organization model and functioning of the STP that is being implemented at ESEV from the perceptions of graduating masters students. The data show that the trainees have a very positive perspective of this component of training, highlighting the fact that it goes on throughout the course.

A large majority of students recognizes that there is articulation between the three STP curricular units and between these and the other curricular units of the course. However, they admit that this articulation could be improved with regards to some of the curricular units as well as between internship conducted at the primary school and pre-school levels.

The trainees recognize the importance of conducting a research project within their STP, as pointed out by Zeichner (1993), Ponte (2000) and Estrela (2002). Nevertheless, they do emphasize the need for greater connection between this work and the internship.

The supervision of professional practice is assessed very positively by the students, who recognize the articulation between the ESEV supervisors and the cooperating advisors, emphasizing their willingness to support the trainees' work. However, the articulation between the primary school and pre-school cooperating advisors is considered less favourably by most students.

These results are in line with the findings of the External Evaluation Committee's preliminary report, published in February this year, which point towards aspects that deserve review and improvement: "the strongest and most articulated investment in research projects focused on problems of the course, stronger interdisciplinary articulation around supervised professional practice which occupies or should occupy the central place in the course of study".

Therefore, it should keep what was shown to be more positive and seek to improve the functioning of the STP, strengthening the articulation between this component and the curricular units of the course, promoting a more obvious connection between research projects and practice and improving articulation between the primary and pre-school internships. Thus, the practice can become a place for the confluence of the genesis of the future teacher's professional knowledge (Schön, 1987; Roldão, 2000; Alarcão, 2005).

It is also worth continuing the collaborative work between the ESEV supervision team and between them and the advisors of the cooperating institutions, creating spaces for dialogue between primary and pre-school cooperating advisors as a way to establish better communication between these two levels of education for which this master's degree qualifies.

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The development of key competences in Europe: implications from practice, policy and research

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Abstract

This paper is based on the ongoing work of the Key Competence Network (http://keyconet.eun.org/) and discusses how several European countries have reacted to this framework and introduced it into their own educational systems. The adopted methodology was based on a multiple case study with an initial set of 35 cases from 13 different European countries. The initiatives related to key competence development presented differ in various ways, according to the nature of the key competences addressed, the implementation process used, the number of students and teachers directly concerned, the type of actors involved, and the duration and stage of development. The main conclusions drawn, so far, from this project emphasize: the existence of national initiatives mainly concentrated at the secondary level; the recognition of both formal and non-formal contexts for their development; that most initiatives focus, to some degree, on curriculum and the transformation of pedagogical practice so as to be more innovative, collaborative, motivational and student-centered; and even though the majority of initiatives involve investment in in-service teacher training, they rarely address initial teacher education also.

Keywords: Key competences; European Curriculum, Competence Development; Curriculum Studies.

1. Introduction

Key competences are described by the European Commission as combinations of knowledge, skills and attitudes, which facilitate the application of knowledge to real world contexts. Individuals need them in order to function effectively in the 21st century (Lawn & Grek, 2012). Eight key competences are seen as essential by the European Framework; these are communication in the mother tongue, communication in (multiple) foreign languages, math competence and basic competences in science and technology, digital competences, learning to learn, social and civic competences, sense of initiative and entrepreneurship, and cultural awareness and expression. There is a range of terminology used to refer to "key competences" in EU member states, which sometimes reflects differences in emphasis and contexts. Alongside social and economic changes, there are three main theoretical influences that have shaped the development of key competences as a policy objective; these are a social perspective on education, and ideas about workplace competences (Gordon et al., 2012).

2. Key Competences in National curricula

Key competences came onto the policy agenda in EU member states at different times over the last two decades partly through the influence of European Commission and OECD research (Gordon et al., 2012). Their particular manifestation is shaped by a member state's history, prevalent educational philosophy and educational structures. There has been some debate about the ideological focus of key competences. As such, there is no common model across EU member states for the incorporation of key competences into national curricula. They are often conceived of in terms of a cross curricular approach, rather than treated as separate subjects (Pepper, 2011). In order to integrate key competences into an existing curriculum, decisions need to be made about how they sit in relation to existing subjects; whether one set of key competences applies to all learners or whether different sets are needed according to age or grade; and whether key competences can be acquired in a cumulative fashion, and therefore whether progression routes should be specified.

3. Key Competence Network

The Key Competence Network (KeyCoNet) is a European Policy Network on the Implementation of Key Competence Development (KCD) in School Education. This project aims to analyze the implementation process for key competence development in various European countries in general education at primary and secondary level. The network includes a total of 18 partners from 10 European countries focused on identifying and analysing emergent strategies in implementing key competences into education reforms, and on this basis aims to produce recommendations for policy and practice. The objective is to identify, analyze and map key competence development initiatives and their implementation strategies across Europe and to effectively impact on policy and practice by increasing the network's influence through dissemination and enlarging its membership.

This network of partners includes nine Ministries in charge of education or national agencies specialised in curriculum and assessment issues, inspectorates and school heads representatives, and seven university departments, some of them specialised in key competences issues, others providing teacher training; two European partners; Ministries connecting departments/national agencies in charge of curriculum development, teacher training, student assessment, learning resources, etc. In fact, the network aims to bring together those able to make strategic and potentially systemic decisions (Ministries) in cooperation with practitioners (teacher trainers, inspectorates), and grounded by evidence (university departments); in addition, individual scientific experts will also be associated to this partnership.

To illustrate the development ok initiatives in this area, the network as so far gathered a collection of 40 exemplary cases on initiatives selected by network partners and drafted by their initiators according to common guidelines, from which 5 case studies have already been developed considered as the most interesting by the network members; for the most inspiring case studies, videos will be produced (interviews with initiators, classroom practice when applicable, etc.). Next, we will present one of the developed case studies so as to illustrate one particular initiative, supporting the development of key competences in school contexts in Europe (Tinoca, Gomes & Valente, 2013)

4. EduScratch

The EduScratch initiative aims to contribute to the creation and development of a teachers' community of practice on the educational use of an intuitive programming tool. This tool allows the development of computational thinking and has proven to have huge potential in developing different types of skills (digital and subject-relate) in students.

EduScratch is an initiative aimed at promoting the educational use of a programming language – Scratch – by supporting, training and sharing good practices among the Portuguese educational community. It has been successfully implemented in grades K-12, with a naturally increasing level of complexity. Moreover, it contributes to the curricular integration of ICT, as well as giving context to the implementation of ICT curricular goals in grades 7 and 8. This initiative has been implemented through a partnership between the Directorate-General for Education of the Portuguese Ministry of Education and Science and one of its ICT Competence Centres.

Even though its natural focus is on ICT competences, EduScratch has also had a diverse impact on a variety of other key competences, depending on the different implementation context. For example, when implemented within the context of mathematics classes it has clearly contributed to the development of mathematics competences; when used in the context of foreign language classes it has had an impact on the development of competences in this area. Furthermore, given the innovative nature of EduScratch projects, the initiative has also brought about a clear development of other key competences: e.g. communication skills when participants are required to share, discuss, clarify and present their projects; learning to learn competences due to the highly student-centred approach; and also initiative and entrepreneurship, since students are encouraged to adapt and customise their own projects. Therefore, although the main focus of EduScratch is on the development of digital competences, we have found that all other key competences have also been supported, to varying degrees, depending on the contextual factors of implementation.

Since its introduction, the popularity of EduScratch has grown steadily. In 2009-10, the initiative began with in-service training workshops across the country. This approach has developed a network of certified trainers in other ICT Competence Centres, contributing to a growing impact of the initiative. From an initial development based in the Setubal ICT Competence Centre, there are now four centres (Minho, Coimbra, Santarem and Évora) that are actively engaged in dissemination and training activities. However, the impact at classroom level has not yet been clearly quantified. Project leaders have developed an implicit notion of the impact of the initiative through levels of participation in national conferences and in EduScratch Day (2010, 2011, 2012, 2013) where students presented their

projects (with an exponential growth in the number of participants), and also from the growing number of student projects shared via the EduScratch online portal.

4.1. Methodology

Two people were interviewed for this case study: the coordinator of the ICT Competence Centre, also responsible for the coordination of the EduScratch initiative, and the professor of the Polytechnic Institute responsible for accompanying and supporting the project. These individuals were chosen as they have been involved in this project from the beginning, overseeing its implementation and development, and because they represent key partners of the initiative.

4.2. Contextual influence

One of the most important enablers for the introduction of EduScratch has been the official recognition of digital competences in the curriculum, and also the official inclusion of Scratch as a recommended language for the development of this competence. Nevertheless, there have also been some contextual obstacles, namely the recent curricular revision that greatly reduced the presence of ICT in the curriculum, as well as the time allotted to project work, during which EduScratch was often introduced. Moreover, there is clear necessity for further human resources to be allocated to the project in order to sustain and expand this initiative.

4.3. Substance-related issues

The main official focus of this initiative is the development of digital competence, present at various levels throughout the curriculum. Activities have therefore been developed to work with teachers and students from grades K-12. In particular, the main efforts to spread this initiative have been targeted at the development of in-service training for teachers at all levels and in all subject areas. This training has taken a variety of formats, ranging from two- to three-hour dissemination presentations, to 15-hour officially-certified workshops. These longer workshops have been the main format adopted and are where the greatest efforts have been channelled. The workshops have adopted an extremely interactive model in which, after a short presentation of the Scratch software, participating teachers are prompted to actively engage with the programme in order to develop their competences. Moreover, participating teachers are required to develop classroom projects with their students that are supported and discussed throughout the workshop, and then to present their projects and student products in the final workshop sessions. Furthermore, there has also been an effort to customise the in-service training workshops for different grade levels and subject areas whenever possible.

Nevertheless, the programme coordinators point out the necessity for more applied research into the development and transference of key competences into traditional curricular areas through the use of EduScratch. Even though the impact is clear from the presented student projects (both in traditional conferences and on the online portal), and from teachers' reports on students' accomplishments and increased motivation in a variety of areas (even outside of school), there is a recognition for the need for formal research in the area in order to more clearly explore this intended result.

4.4. Partnership related issues

The main partner for the development of this project has been the Ministry of Education, through the official support of EduScratch in the form of human resources (one of the project coordinators is provided and paid by the ministry) and also technical support for the project's online portal. The partnership formed with the private internet service provider SAPO has been important for the development of the project's online presence, through resource-sharing via the SAPO web portal, and more recently with the MEO cable TV (Channel 151232). Finally, the establishment of partnerships with other ICT Competence Centres has also been a decisive factor for the network development and coverage of the project, which is currently present throughout Portugal.

4.5. Strategy related issues

The focus on in-service teacher training has been an active investment to empower a large number of teachers in order to reach many student classrooms. However, there have also been two decisive factors supporting the

development of this project from two other sources. Firstly; the development of a large community of practice of teachers who support each other (online and face-to-face) and who help their colleagues with the implementation of Scratch projects and resources. Secondly; the emergence of a number of highly-skilled volunteers (mostly retirees) who offer their time and expertise to support teachers and students throughout their Scratch projects (both online and in the classrooms).

However, one particular obstacle in this area has been the erratic functioning of the EduScratch portal, crucial for the maintenance of the community of practitioners, and which has recently been targeted by spam attacks that led the ministry systems administration to temporarily reduce the portal's interactive resources.

4.6. Mainstreaming-related issues

The goal of this initiative was the mainstreaming of the Scratch tool throughout the Portuguese K-12 educational system. However, shifting government policy has been one of the major obstacles encountered by the project in the process of mainstreaming. There has been a recent (2012) curricular reform movement that leans towards a more 'focused' curriculum, in which transversal areas have been reduced while mathematics, science, and Portuguese have been reinforced. This approach has led to a reduced investment in transversal skills, and even in the reinforced areas of mathematics, science, and Portuguese, with a move towards a much higher focus on traditional content and high-stakes testing that has left teachers with the feeling that they have fewer opportunities to engage in these curriculum-enrichment activities.

Moreover, the reduced size of the official team coordinating the project inhibits its possible outreach and support to a larger network of participating teachers. This obstacle has been partially overcome through the development of the capabilities of the ICT Competence Centres to support EduScratch-related activities throughout the country. Nevertheless, it would be highly beneficial to finance a larger coordinating team that is exclusively dedicated to this project (the current team is also responsible for other ICT-related projects).

Furthermore, the diversity in the levels of school and student resources is often an obstacle to ICT-related projects in general, and to EduScratch in particular. In fact, while some schools are already very well equipped, most schools do not have enough functioning resources.

4.7. Systemic aspects

The initiative has been designed as systemic from the very beginning, particularly given its focus on teacher training and on the development of a network of teacher trainers to support EduScratch activities. For this reason, and due to the fact that teachers in Portugal need to complete a minimum number of in-service training hours per year, the programme developed certified workshops so that they could be counted towards teachers' required training hours. Moreover, these in-service workshops were managed by certified instructors with both general training experience as well as knowledge of the EduScratch initiative. There has also been an effort to provide direct support to schools (teachers and students), not only through an active community of practice for Scratch users, but also through the projects developed at the schools, in order to showcase successful experiences and to promote students supporting other students and teachers.

4.8. Evaluation-related issues

No formal large-scale evaluation of this initiative has been attempted so far. There is a formal evaluation of the teachers who participate in the workshops, and there is an informal evaluation of the initiative in order to assess the national coverage, based on the number of training workshops, the student projects presented on the national conferences (e.g. EduScratch day), and on the number of resources made available and shared on the online portal. Nevertheless, the programme coordinators recognise the need to attempt to establish a more systematic and formal evaluation process, in order to better assess the project's impact and coverage.

4.9. Next steps

The coordinators' main concerns for the next steps of the project are mainly regarding its sustainability and evaluation. Concerns for the project's sustainability focus on assuring an on-going investment in teacher training, with the aim of enabling the project's community of practitioners to become more autonomous and self-driven, with the

establishment of medium- and long-term goals. Also crucial for this will be an increase in the number of staff involved in the implementation of the project and a more active engagement of the the ICT Competence Centres. Furthermore, there is also a clear concern regarding the creation of a monitorization and evaluation process in order to adequately accompany the project's development and gauge its impact on students' learning and their development of a wide range of key competences

5. Conclusion

There is no uniform approach to implementing key competences, and approaches vary greatly according to the education system and school context. The implementation of key competences can be supported by changes in school culture, since they apply across all school subjects and necessitate changes in curriculum, assessment, learning environments and the role of teachers. As an initial guide, schools could focus their attention on changes to learning, learners' experiences, and different ways to support learners and teachers. Schools should involve teachers in decision-making around implementing key competences, and consider involving partners including universities, social services, other schools and families and communities, in the planning stages and on an ongoing basis (Dabrowski and Wisniewski, 2011).

While the motivation behind the move towards key competences in school education is largely social and economic, their entry into education policies represents the mainstreaming of several long-running themes in educational and social research. Among others, these concern the social aspects of learning, theories about the most effective ways to transfer knowledge, and theories about the competences individuals need to work effectively. Although some key competences refer to subject knowledge, they are essentially cross-curricular in nature, and hence can be developed through every school subject. This is challenging given that schools in most EU member states, particularly secondary schools, are structured according to subjects. There is no uniform approach to integrating key competences into school curricula, which requires decisions about how to identify, define and frame key competences, including specifying the ways in which they are relevant to different levels of schooling. Implementation at the national level will depend on educational philosophies, historical context, outside influences and a range of other factors. The implementation of key competences in schools can require a shift in culture because they require addressing as part of every subject, rather than being standalone. This is also because successful implementation requires buy-in from all school staff. Research from Finland indicates that school cultures that are conducive to the uptake of innovative practice tend to be open to risk-taking and teamwork (Niemi, Kynäslahti, and Vahtivuori-Hänninen, 2012). A frequently recommended method for teaching key competences is the provision of interactive learning environments. These may be enhanced by technology and typically require learners working both autonomously and collaboratively to apply creativity, problem-solving and exploration to real-life, multi-disciplinary problems, allowing several key competences to be developed simultaneously.

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Curriculum: Mirror and reflection of the daily life of schools

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Abstract

This project is part of a narrative research that questions the factors that contribute to a valued teacher identity, this being the teacher recognised by the school and the educational community as a professional to look up to. The study begins with an inquiry into the ways of narrating and understanding the teaching career, which emerge from the biographical account of three female teachers, who have been teaching for more than two decades in the Oporto area. The three life stories enable us to understand the relationships established between teachers, students and school but also how the individual experiences and their contexts obtain meaning while reconstructing the life story. Furthermore, the discourses obtained allow us to understand the curriculum historically and politically since early 50s to nowadays. Through their biographical account we perceive both an overview of Portuguese and English teaching methodology and curriculum and how they affect everyday life at school. This communication will explore the need of curriculum to function both as a mirror and a window, in order to reflect and reveal the world of the student. If the student is understood as a dwelling self, the curriculum needs to enable him/her to look through the window in order to see the realities of others and into mirrors in order to see his/her own reality reflected. Knowing the window and the mirror is essential to a balanced education that engages everyone involved in a great conversation which will lead to the success of the student.

Keywords: narrative research; teacher identity; curriculum studies.

1   Introduction

This exploratory study aims to address the factors that contribute to a valued teacher identity. Therefore, through biographical narrative we seek to understand a form of knowledge that interprets the educational reality. We acknowledge that teachers are and have been students and the schools where they work are both learning and training spaces. In these spaces, teachers teach with their experience, with specific knowledge of their discipline and with the interpersonal relationships previously established with the other members of the educational community.

At schools, teachers also take on the role of students during their supervised teaching practice. Usually, this process takes a year and, during this year, teachers face a conflict between what they have learned during the initial training and the effective practice of the profession. Consequently, the initial exercise of teaching is understood as knowledge to unfold, both by individuals and by the school community, which organizes and manages the training process.

Recent bibliographical studies on teachers allow us to look at autobiographical narratives, recognizing the importance of the places where teacher training is developed and the interaction of personal and collective stories in schools. These theories enable us to recognize teacher training as a dialectical process where teachers are constructed as subjects through their actions and experience held in socialization. Therefore, professional identity emerges from the relationship of the teacher with the contexts of initial training and curriculum itself, the latter representing a culture and mediating the relationship between school and society and between theory and practice (Carr & Kemmis, 1988).

2   Teaching Identity and Initial Teaching Practice

Teacher identity as an object of study dates back to the 80's and it is based on the importance of individual recognition and the recognition of another, in an interpersonal design. According to Erikson (1976), identity is constructed simultaneously on the individual's perception of himself, with reference to perceptions about others and

of others about himself, but it is also constructed on the social context in which it appears. Consequently, it is pertinent to study the construction of identity in face of new working conditions, as schools are experiencing a crisis caused by social factors. The crisis is reflected on pressure and tension between and on teachers, who are called to deal with new educational policies, students from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds, global economic changes, among others, all of which affect the school institution and translate into its decline (Dubet, 2002). To study a concept, such as teacher identity, it is necessary to perceive it in terms of its positioning in different historical times, given that the concepts are not neutral (Foucault, 1975).

As it is widely recognised, the initial training of teachers is a complex field, as it establishes relationships between scientific and educational intervention in the classroom. In this work, initial training is understood as the beginning of a process, institutionally framed and formal, of preparation and development of the person in order to get professional achievement in a school serving a society historically placed. This study field becomes even more complex if we take into consideration Portugal and the successive reforms that took place during and after its dictatorship. This time interval is adopted because it is where the subjects who participated in this study are at school and later at college.

Nowadays, teacher training cannot rely on models that were followed when the purpose of the school was to reproduce the existing knowledge and a culture, both considered unique. It is, however, relevant that a brief foray is made in the initial formation of our country. Between 1950 and 1964, national education was portrayed as under-performing, with a high rate of illiteracy in accordance with a reduced school attendance and lack of teachers, facilities and equipment. To cope with this terrifying scenario, far distant from European levels, education became a cornerstone in the process of rebuilding the state and took its part on the debate about modernization and development of the country. It is Veiga Simão, the minister for Education at the time, who points out that schools most in need of a reform were Universities as they were reduced to playing the role of preparing school teachers to teach secondary education. For the minister however, the specific mission of Universities would be to train scientists and technicians. Thus, in 1971, Veiga Simão introduced two reform projects aiming to expand education, particularly through greater equality of opportunity in terms of access, resulting in the expansion of basic education, the reintegration of preschool education in the organizational chart of national education, and the relevance given to adult education. Moreover, education was perceived as the engine of economic and social development.

The 80's continued with the educational reform movement and the country found itself grappling with a shortage of teachers. In 1986, it was diagnosed that 46.4% of 3rd cycle teachers were not professionalized, as most of them had their own qualification. This led to an effort to promote professionalization during service (Esteves, 2007). It is important to note that during this decade, post-revolution teachers acquire an enormous symbolic power because there is the belief in the potential of school to promote transformation and social progress (Nóvoa, 1995).

The Law on the Education System was approved by Law no. 46/86 of 14 October and subsequently amended in 1997, introducing the nine-year compulsory education and undergraduate studies as a necessary qualification for all teachers. This should encompass three components: the formation of personal, social, cultural, scientific, technical or artistic competences; pedagogical competences; and, finally, a component of pedagogic practice. There are common aspects to the activity of any teacher, whatever the level of education, but there are also specific aspects that must be taken into account, for instance, the specific objectives of each level of education and age characteristics of the school population that a teacher is called to teach. The teacher should also acquire training in other areas of knowledge beyond their specialty. This is justified given the complexity of the learning process, its multifaceted nature, the growing multiculturalism in schools, and the multiplicity of functions and tasks necessary in educational institutions (e.g., the definition of the school project, problem diagnosis) requiring, for an adequate professional performance.

The decades of experience of teacher training and educational research in Portugal show that it cannot be reduced to its academic dimension, but must include a component of reflective practice. Only this component allows the recognition of the key aspects of the field work needed for professional practice and provides training experiences that stimulate the mobilization and integration of knowledge and problem solving by providing future teachers opportunities to develop their abilities through observation and intervention. This essential element of initial teacher training was reflected in many models of training in Portugal, not only by teaching practice (with a duration of one year), but also by other disciplines during the academic degree that allowed direct contact with problems of professional practice. Moreover, one cannot ignore that all acts of teaching have political implications and is one of the goals of the teacher to boost students to engage in acting so that reduces the harmful effects of inequality in school and in society. The teacher has a social responsibility (Lopes, 2002) and should be a reflective practitioner, aware of the tacit knowledge, which often do not is expressed (Zeichner, 1993).

3 Method

The method used in this work was narrative inquiry promoting a qualitative research. Unlike more traditional methods, narrative inquiry successfully captures personal and human dimensions that cannot be quantified into facts and numerical data.

The instruments for data collection used were oral history (teachers tell their personal story and professional relationship with the social, economic, family, school, ...), photographs and other personal artefacts (set of materials from personal and professional life that allow the memory of the experience), semi-structured interviews about the issues that most interested the researchers; conversations where they would speak freely about the issues, field notes and other stories from the field, and an identification questionnaire, which primary objective was to clarify dates relevant to the study.

The relationship established between researchers and subjects is one of co-collaboration and data analysis refers to emerging categories, whose coding comes at a later time, leading to a qualitative approach. In short, life stories always have an intermediary that assumes a multiplicity of functions. Its purpose is not only to incite narration, but also coordinate and moderate the discussion. To assume the duties of the researcher, a script has been crafted, one that sets out some issues that we wish to see addressed, while leaving the party at liberty to share, to stretch in a particular topic and/or commenting. As a consequence, individual and researcher are partners in a dialectical relationship.

3.1 Participants

This exploratory study involved three teachers, Lia, Maria Teresa and Rosa Maria, whose career has developed in recent years in two schools in the district of Porto. They teach Portuguese and English, they are active participants in research groups at their schools and they have been supervisors of teaching practice for more than ten years.

3.2 Results

The early professional life of our participants starts on the decade of 70, however, only Lia and Maria Teresa became teachers in this period. This coincided precisely with the years in which the defence of education became the hallmark of Portuguese society and a period of great educational changes due to the dictatorship. Therefore, we are faced with constant curriculum changes, mirroring the changes of the country and enabling both students and teachers to see through the window of opportunities brought up by the new society.

Even though, their university years bring us a new perspective of the turmoil lived in Portugal, their early education depicts us, the learner, as subordinated and silent because the curriculum is not a window to new opportunities nor a mirror, ignoring the learners' own experience and perpetuating a dictatorship.

From the discourses of the three teachers we realize that career choice was guided by previous academic experiences that were positive and contributed to the admiration of the profession, as the teacher has contact with the profession even before exercise it. One teaches as taught, by incorporating models throughout the school and family life. Into everyday classroom, the teachers put into practice what they learned from their midst, their family, and their interpersonal relationships, among others.

4 Conclusion

Making an exploratory study, elaborating stories of life, brings a paradox: on the one hand, adopting a pragmatic approach that should characterise a scientific paper**;** on the other, the human dimension that guides the reports and that makes them difficult to convert into material analysis because it is something private. This paradox is ultimately attenuated during a **"moment of transition"** (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000) when we accept our own emotions and parted this episode of our life story.

The present study sets on the assumption that teacher identity is something under construction and influenced by the environment. When considering the school environment, we gathered that the curriculum enables the students and teachers to dialogue since learning is always personal.

This communication demonstrates the need for the curriculum to be both a mirror and reflection of daily lives because it needs to enable the students to look through the window and see different realities but also a mirror to enable his/her own reality reflected and shared with the colleagues, validating their own experience.

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The vocational areas in the curriculum of classes with alternative curricula

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Abstract

Aiming at confronting the practice with the discourse in the field of the curriculum, we focus, firstly, on a reflection on the principle of homogeneity and we also highlight the diversity as one of the guiding principles of curriculum designing at are derived from this principle. After glancing at the diverse curricular offers in the Portuguese educational system, in the third millennium, we aim at contextualizing them in order to identify the one known as alternative curricula. After referring its characteristics, we conducted an empirical work, aiming at obtaining evidence in vocational areas for both the cause and consequence of their choice. In order to achieve this purpose, we used a methodology of qualitative nature through an interpretative and naturalistic approach and we also adopted, as a research strategy, the case study, with the use of a semi-structured interview as a technique for data collection, using a script as a research tool.

The results obtained from the interviews with students and teachers, show us that the vocational areas present in the curriculum design are an asset to the integration of students that would have severe difficulties in finishing compulsory education. Vocational areas thus enable the existence of a form of active and motivating learning and, therefore, attending and successfully completing compulsory education becomes a positive aspect in the perspective of these students. By inference, we concluded the meaning of the alternative offered, still within the course of compulsory education and we are led to defend the diversity of the curriculum on the basis of predetermined criteria, with full respect for freedom of choice, equality of opportunity and equity of the offer.

Key-words: curriculum, alternative curricula, vocational areas.

1   Introduction

At a school that is ever more characterised by social and cultural heterogeneities, and where the learning objectives, interests and abilities are very different from student to student, the creation of conditions allowing for such differences to be diminished, by diversifying educational offers, became urgent.

In fact, as Roldão stated, the need is ever more felt to "ensure everyone has access to quality education" (2011: 121), since it is the acquired, easily available, knowledge, which is not always at grasp for everyone, that shall define the future "social inclusion or exclusion" (*Id., ibid*.). And, even though there is a tacit acceptance of such assumption, the truth is the response to the problem of how to make possible for everyone to attend school, in the sense of preventing their exclusion and unavoidable professional and social marginalisation is not easy at all.

We assume that the search for solutions that will allow for the implementation of measures able to fulfil the "ideal of educational equality" (Kelly, 1980: 139), without, nevertheless, increasing and fostering more inequality, is a task that is difficult to attain and achieve. Even though we acknowledge the ambiguity of the idea emanating from the legal framework establishing alternative curricula, we admit that the implementation of such measure may come about as an innovative solution and with a lot of potential in searching for solutions adapted to the diversity of the cases that cannot be integrated in regular education, and therefore being able to become one of the means to fight against social exclusion.

In that sense, we believe that Ambrósio's opinion, when already in 1999 he defended that the main objective of alternative curricula was to adjust education to certain students, "giving flexibility to schools in organising such curricula, in their own school organisation and in order to adequate them to the difficulties of the students and their

specific cultural characteristics, and the regional and local characteristics, therefore taking into consideration a wide diversity of educational responses" (pp. 38-39). Having such assumptions in mind, the idea came about to design alternative curricula aiming at bringing the school closer to a set of students at risk of leaving the education system without any qualification or certification. Nevertheless, we must not forget that "making the curriculum management more differentiated and flexible cannot be confused with a type of hidden streaming, where, under the pretext of differentiating, the level of learning and requirements is reduced [...] and social selections is enhanced" (Roldão, 1999: 40).

As mentioned by Machado, once again we find the "contradictions of a school which incorporates the rhetoric valuing the differences, while simultaneously driven by a logic that mainly values the differences traditionally reinforced and legitimised by it through its traditional organisational model" (2010: 42). We consider that alternative may not mean a way to exclude fundamental learning, indispensable to all students in their basic school curriculum. Such curriculum means, to Leite, that "there is knowledge that is essential, as a precondition to further learning, and to ensure equality of opportunities of (successful) access to further education" (1999: 86). According to Kelly's perspective, this implies that "all students must have access to the same knowledge" (1980: 139), and Fernandes considers that despite schools having freedom to carry out an organisation of the teaching-learning processes, they should always have "as reference a national curriculum where the syllabus for the subjects and rules for their development are defined" (2011: 104).

This paper is based on a research which focused in the syllabus of two classes, in the 3rd cycle, with Alternative Curriculum Pathways, existing at a basic school with 2nd and 3rd cycles, and having as determinant focus the vocational areas that are part of such curriculum. Considering that such vocational areas take a relevant place in the syllabus of such classes, we tried to understand their level of influence in the interest shown towards school activities by students with a negative history in terms of their relation with attending school. We were also interested in understanding the framework of such vocational areas in the educational context, both in terms of the way they are perceived by students and teachers, and in the syllabus of the two classes. The opinion of the direct participants in the process - the students and the teachers - on the introduction of vocational areas in the curriculum of the classes, as well as the relevance of such fields in school performance and attitudes of such students were, also, fundamental points.

Thus, we have tried to understand the importance and meaning the vocational areas have in valuing the school attendance of students who are, usually, regarded as one extra figure in the statistics of school failure. In other words, we wanted to verify *in loco* whether such alternative curricula were an added-value in terms of inclusion and promotion of school success of a "group which, similarly to other sociologically equivalent groups of students, is characterised by an unsuccessful relation with school" (Trindade, 2011: 74).

2   Alternative curricula - a necessary and controversial reality

Questioning school failure, which has been a central topic in the discourse on democratising education, brought to public the urgent need of analysing if equality of access to school, i.e. the materialisation of the idea of a school for all, would be a *sine qua non* condition for success of all students to become a reality, and stopped being seen as an utopia. And it is in this context that the establishment of alternative curricula takes place, presented by the Legislative Order 1/2006, of 6 January, and targeted at students that are within the scope of compulsory education, with reiterated school failures, who show school integration problems; who are at risk of marginalisation, exclusion or school drop-out, and who show difficulties that arise from their low self-esteem, lack of motivation, absenteeism and lack of expectations. This measure aimed at ensuring the basic principle of equality of opportunities, preventing school failure and drop-outs from making harder for their social and professional integration, giving them the opportunity to overcome their difficulties through the development of practical activities and the use of curriculum differentiation strategies. Such measure also provides for the possibility to continue studies, after compulsory education, and, therefore the knowledge and competences of the National Curriculum have to be attained, so that they may be, at a later stage, integrated in a regular curricula course.

Trying to avoid that the projects designed by schools would be "very poor, minimalist, projects, or that, in a few cases, fundamental learning would be sacrificed" (Benavente, 2001: 115), the proposal presented by the schools should be first analysed and approved by the regional and central services of the Education Ministry, also being compulsory the existence of a follow-up council, aiming at making annual assessments. This way, a curriculum design process developed on the basis of common guiding principles (Common Curriculum), and the specificities and interests of each school and community would be enabled.

Nevertheless, the acceptance of the implementation of such measure was not unanimous; several authors consider it to be ambivalent, for it may allow for the discrimination of such students. Despite all reservations, we would like to underline Pacheco's opinion, who acknowledges, regarding alternative curricula, that "the different ways of differentiation, with a stress on alternative curricula or alternative curriculum pathways, may be accepted as solutions to fight against inequality, mainly when students are on the verge of social exclusion and school drop-out" (2008: 186-187). It is also in this sense that we consider the establishment of alternative curriculum pathways (ACP) classes: designing a curriculum that enables students to become autonomous and responsible people and may face school as the first step towards a learning that will continue throughout their lives, preventing them from becoming another figure in the statistics of drop-outs. We defend a higher degree of flexibility and differentiation, but without that implying, in the future of such youngsters, more inequality than those they started with.

We assume, therefore, the curriculum in its dimension of plan, regulating and legitimising the educational practice, to which it associates the dimension of project, developed building upon the set of experiences offered by the school, in a continuous process of construction and reconstruction of pedagogical praxis. In that sense, the curriculum, considered in its different dimensions, aims first and foremost at contributing to full education and the development of the society. In such a demanding mission, the curriculum must be an instrument enabling the shared clarification of interventions and values about what is important to teach and learn at school and allowing its translation in relevant and meaningful intervention proposals for the education and socialisation of the younger generations.

3   Methodology

We chose a qualitative methodology since, according to Lessard-Hérbert, Goyette and Boutin (1994) it is adequate to understand educational problems and because, as per Bogdan and Biklen, a qualitative research "emphasises description, induction, grounded theory and the study of personal perceptions" (1994: 11). Our preference towards the qualitative approach also had to do with the characteristics mentioned by different authors as identifying this type of studies, and which we believe may be applied to this research, namely the fact that qualitative research is descriptive, i.e., in order to understand its meaning, data needs to be collected under the form of words, giving rise to a research with results obtained from instruments that gather opinions through oral and written records.

Within the scope of the mentioned methodology option, the case-study appeared naturally as a research strategy, since, according to Yin (1994) and Tuckman (1994) this is justified whenever we intend to answer questions of the type how, what, and why. According to Yin (*Id.*) it may be defined as an empirical research that studies a contemporary phenomenon in its real context, being a valuable contribution for all of those who intend to provide in-depth description and understanding of educational contexts. We also underline that this is a unique case-study (Bogdan & Biklen, 1994; Lessard-Hérbert, Goyette & Boutin, 1994; Yin, 1994) and of the intrinsic type (Stake, 1994; 2009), since our objective was to attain better comprehension of a specific case, which contained in itself the interest of the research. It is therefore a research that assumes to be particular, focusing on a specific situation that is supposed to be unique in many respects – the perceptions of students and teachers on the importance of the vocational areas – trying to discover and describe what is more substantial, characteristic and unique in it.

4   Empirical study

Five teachers participated in this study: the director of one of the classes; the responsible for the project of the ACP classes, who is also a teacher of both classes; and three teachers from the vocational areas. Also the twenty two students that compose the two Alternative Curriculum Pathways classes under study participated.

A total of twenty seven semi-structured, script-guided interviews were carried out. They were composed of the same dimensions and categories, what lead us to predefine items, adapted to the category (or situations) of the respondents. The research objectives were taken into consideration when designing the script. These interviews allowed us to know the opinion of those directly involved in this process - the students and the teachers - on the introduction of the vocational subjects in those classes' curricula.

Through the analysis and interpretation of the speeches of the respondent teachers, it was clear they were excited with the implemented project, considering the existence of the vocational areas as an added-value for the professional future of the students and for their learning.

Another aspect we would like to underline is the high motivation, built upon the results obtained with students who would probably be far from the classic school success, since all teachers were unanimous in saying they were pleased with the work developed with such classes.

The fields existing at the school seem to appeal to students. In fact, from their discourses we understood that the existence of more workshops would be desirable. Enjoying attending school and the will to continue studies are intentions mentioned in the opinions gathered, as well as the perception that their inclusion in such classes was fundamental in the way their education pathway developed.

Another significant factor has to do with the affective relation between teachers and alumni, which seemed to be very relevant for the success of this project. We believe that without the empathy existing between the main participants, maybe these pathways had not been more than a mere project, without visible results in the future of these students' education. One of the concerns of the students is not only with what they must and have to learn, but also with the care and support shown by the teachers towards them (Noddings, 1992, quoted by Hargreaves, Earl & Ryan, 2001).

5   Final remarks

The alternative pathways emerge as one of the "possible resources that schools, once provided with true autonomy, may use to rebuild the education itineraries of the students" (Pacheco, 2000: 410), giving freedom to the teachers/class council in designing and implementing projects with "a curricular dimension adapted to the abilities and needs of the students" (Id., ibid.). We consider such alternative pathways may be a valid way to fight against school failure and drop-out. The schools and the teachers should be responsible for ensuring that compulsory education is equivalent for all, also in what concerns quality.

Throughout this study we were able to verify that the inclusion of these vocational areas may open possibilities for new learning options for the students, placing them "in front of pedagogical situations connected to the social and cultural realities of their daily life and their life experiences" (Fernandes, 2011: 99), therefore becoming a way for active, motivating learning, that will foster interest in school, and prevent early drop-outs.

The opinions expressed by students and teachers show the change in attitudes and interests that the attendance of such classes had in the way school is considered and, mainly, in the way the future is seen. This seems to reveal the importance such alternative pathways had in the life of these students, making us wonder about which may be the main function of school: "to select, providing success to a few students, or to promote, aiming at providing success to all or, at least, to the majority of the students?" (Gaspar, 1999: 78).

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The curriculum matter in the special education sphere.

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Abstract

This work aims at making a reflexion on Special Education under a curricular perspective. When it comes to this issue it becomes inevitable to think of Curricular Adaptations, considering that individuals having special needs require assistance which is appropriate to their specificities. Conceiving Education thus under the paradigm of inclusion means thinking the new, the so far not imaginable. Proposing adaptations in the regular curriculum implies having organizational changes, as well as changes in the goals, contents, methodologies and didactical programs, in the temporality of assessment, its strategies and philosophies.

Such educational interventions are important to develop the potentialities of the subject besides ensuring the consolidation of learning processes. Some questions arise: Is it possible to build a curriculum which has equality as rhetoric? In what ways does the curriculum adaptation affect the student's daily life? These and other related issues of major relevance will be addressed in this text.

Keywords: Curriculum adaptation, special education, curricular practices

1. Introduction

This work is a result of my experience as a psychologist and member of NAPNE – Support Centre for People with Special Needs at the Arinos Campus of the Federal Institute of Education, Science and Technology of Northern Minas Gerais, IFNMG. NAPNE develops a joint work with the community to monitor students, which in face of any disorder, or even pathology, have their school performance compromised. The work within its framework is therefore carried out in cooperation with other professionals from the pedagogical department, teachers and the families of the students. The identification of such demands oftentimes occurs during the semester time as teachers in the classroom observe a decrease in the student's performance or a change in his or her behavior.

At first, some legal aspects of inclusive education in Brazil will be addressed here, so as then to contextualize the work at the Arinos Campus of IFNMG. As far as it remains an open institution towards diversity, the latest is guided by an Inclusive School concept, which "implies the adoption of a new stance by the regular school system, which proposes on its turn, by the political – pedagogic project, as well as by the curriculum, by the learning method, assessment and attitude of the students, actions that favor their social integration and their option for different practices." (MEC, 1998)

It is in face of this new educational paradigm that the development of the Plan for Individualized Education – PIE, becomes possible. The latest has been adapted from Romeu Kazumi Sassaki's theoretical model and enables planning on educational strategies, whereby Curricular Adaptations are the strategy to be highlighted in this work.

2. A brief history of inclusive education policies in Brazil after the new constitution

Ever since the enacting of the 1988 Federal Constitution, a decentralization of power has progressively taken place. Within this context special education, hitherto supplied by the private sector, became a duty of the State, with the differential of its being preferably offered at the regular public educational network. The State therefore takes on the responsibility not only for offering but also for expanding specialized education services. One has hence a universalization of education, which is to set equality in the access to schooling, since it became a social right laid down in the constitution.

Almost a decade later, in 1996, the Law of Directives and Basis for National Education – LDBEN, which regulates the Brazilian educational system, was sanctioned. It maintained the same inclusive principles provided for in the constitution as it recommends in its article 58 that special support services be offered at public schools, "except for those special cases where their integration in the regular classroom be not possible, thus demanding specialized services and facilities" Still in its article 59, it states that education systems must be structured so as to ensure students with special needs "specific curricula, methods, technics, teaching resources and organization to meet their needs". It is hence in this sense that schools must rethink their practices, acknowledging and valuing differences.

It must also be highlighted that in 1998 the Ministry of Education's Special Education Department made the need for thinking of the curriculum from an inclusive perspective official by creating the National Curricular Guidelines. This document conveys "strategies and guidelines for teachers actions, taking decisions that foster the adaptation of educational actions to the particular learning path of each student, considering that the teaching and learning process seeks to meet the differences in the students' needs"(MEC, 1998) as a concept of curricular adaptations.

In 2004 the Ministry of Education through its Special Education Department, launched the series Inclusive Education: a Right to Diversity, which consists of documents addressing the planning of education management. It aimed at promoting the implementation of an inclusion policy, having human rights as its basis. It deals with issues ranging from the philosophical aspects of inclusion to everyday practical matters such as the involvement of the community and programmed after-birth support services to mothers. The documents are divided into four modules, presenting management under the perspective of: school's rule, the rule of the municipality and of the family.

The constitutional provision has been evidently incorporated both on a state's level as well as on a municipalities' level in their organic laws and, in some cases, the municipality itself has extra complemented the law in accordance to its own local reality. There is a further number of laws, decrees and guidelines that address inclusive education in Brazil. Although they were not listed in the present text, the chronological reading of the mentioned documents shows that there have been changes in the conception of policies, which began to address more specific issues concerning inclusive education, such as curricula, accessibility and educational resources, oftentimes conveying detailed prescriptions on them. Nevertheless, despite all advances in the field of public policies, a large gap between the inclusive education policies and their implementation still subsists. The political engagement alone does not trigger differentiated practices in the societies to which they are addressed. A change towards a new inclusive paradigm depends upon raising the awareness of all those involved in the process, as well as upon an efficient management of the educational system. An inclusive education, which promotes development in learning, must be guided by principles of equality where the differences of each individual can be acknowledged and actions be taken that ensure equal opportunities to all.

3. The context of inclusive education at the Arinos Campus of IFNMG

In the year 2012 NAPNE – Support Centre for People with Special Needs started receiving a significant number of students fitting into the special education system. In order to promote actions for the inclusion and permanence of its students, the Arinos Campus of IFNMG, along with the school community, developed the Plan for Individualized Education – PIE. It is an assessment tool to evaluate the extension of the student's progress towards projected results. Furthermore, PIE allows "the search for each student's own identity, the recognition and valuation of his or her differences and potentialities and of his or her special educational needs within the teaching and learning process, as a basis for settling and broadening values, attitudes, knowledge, skills and competencies." (article 4 of the resolution CNE/CEB № 2). PIE proposes "the search for the students own identity "through descriptive records, knowing the skills and competencies mastered, as well as the limitations in the education process. These records are produced through observation made during the period in which the student stays at school as well as from information obtained from family members. At the PIE, besides the descriptive records, a structured questionnaire is applied containing questions on the student's daily life such as whether or not drowsiness has occurred and its frequency, as well as on attitudinal traits. All the information is gathered during the school year period.

With regard to skills, Howard Gardner's Multiple Intelligences approach has been adopted, where cognitive competence can be understood as a set of capabilities and talents which are: linguistic, logical – mathematical, kinesthetic, interpersonal, musical, spatial, intrapersonal. Still regarding the cognitive capabilities, Sternberg's (2000) defined intelligence as being "the capacity to learn out of experience, using cognitive processes to improve learning and the capacity to adapt oneself to the surrounding environment, which can demand different adaptations within the different social and cultural contexts". Intelligence should not be reduced to erudition or to a specific academic skill. Above all, it must be understood as the ability to grasp the world around us and adapt to it.

Seen from the perspective of inclusive education PIE seeks, besides the identification of the main capabilities, to highlight those which need to be improved and conquered, by taking into account the specificity of each student. In its program Right to Diversity the Special Education Department establishes that "In order to provide all children and adolescents with the access to knowledge and development of competences, every school must develop and regulate the procedures for identifying the educational needs which occur among its students' body. By identifying these needs, one can plan on the further steps of meeting them. The formalization of the procedures is important since it should not be up to the teacher to implement them or not. It is therefore a role of the system and, in this case, of the school to ensure that the special needs of all its students be identified and met. This can only be achieved if this objective be part of the educational policy and a specific object of the educational practice". (MEC, 2004)

4. Strategies in the scope of inclusive education: Curricular Adaptations

Once the information gathered by PIE has been consolidated, it is possible to forge educational strategies that respect the individual characteristics of students. One of the strategies employed in inclusive education is the Curriculum Adaptations. Adaptations allow that the curriculum be suited to each student's specificities, however respecting his or her own particular path and fostering his or her educational progress. In this perspective, the curriculum takes on its dimension as the socializing object of a pedagogical practice. It aims at the overall development of the subject and at the construction of his or her identity. But how are the curricular adaptations to be made? According to the Special Education Department curricular adaptations can be taken in three levels: adaptations at the pedagogical project, which must mainly focus on the school organization and support services, at providing structural conditions affecting both the class environment and the individual and at the class curriculum, specially referring to the activities to be conducted in class. Finally, those that regard the teachers acting as assessed and understood by each student.

How can the curriculum be made more flexible and at the same time all particularities involved in its constitution are respected? It is important to keep in view the importance of certain aspects. Among them are: the areas or unities of the content to which it must be given priority, considering that they are to ensure functionality and that they be fundamental to further learning; those contents considered less relevant must be dispensed in order ensure the mastering and the consolidation of basic contents as they can be worked more intensively.

And how not to exclude when trying to include? There is an example properly given by Isabel Sanchez when she states that "The differentiation that includes does not consist, for instance, in giving a different test to a student because he or she does not master the questions set to the others; it is not using the 2nd years' book when he or she is attending the 4th and his peers take the respective years' exercises…" The Curricular adaptation must be an ongoing construction as it emerges from the practices and interactions among teachers, students and all professionals involved in the educational process. The curricular adequacies call for the construction of the concept of the subject, of knowledge and of world. That means to work "with" and not "for" the special groups, thinking learning in the group and with the group, involving all students in the construction of knowledge and avoiding in this way a new exclusion.

5. Conclusion

This document Inclusion should not be a responsibility solely of Special Education, but of all the actors involved in the construction of learning, so as not to create a special system within the regular school. The managers must rethink the politic – pedagogical project and set an engagement with the restructuration of school system's priorities. This should be done by allowing that all participate in this construction once the inclusion process dimension goes beyond the mere inclusion in regular classes and curricular adaptations. Inclusive Education as seen from the curricular perspective must allow the student with special needs to acquire knowledge together with the other students, even if by means of different ways according to the required adaptations. For this, it is necessary that the teacher takes on an investigator's role, by constantly transforming, analyzing and reflecting his or her practice.

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Curriculum, Discourse and Culture: The cultural pedagogies and the processes of subjectivity in question

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Summary

This article aims to outline some of the approaches we're terming an intersection within subjects studied in the field of Cultural Studies and the Curriculum in order to analyze the social function and operating modes as the discursive practices of the cultural curriculum of television as a place an education that prepares the subjects that are transforming the experience itself. For this investment, we use the concepts of Michel Foucault to refer to the act of thinking not only about the problem of the different forms of subjection, but, above all, the theme of the processes of subjectivity and the ways are implicated in the statements and images narratives , and devices specific pedagogy cultural media , the production of gender discourses learned or relearned by the subjects daily about how being in the world. Studies in the field of post-critical theories of curriculum (Moreira, 2005; Giroux, 1995), studies of identity (Hall, 2000; Silva, 1995) and education focus on the study of culture, curriculum, media and consumption (Fischer, 1996, 2009; Larrosa, 1994), have drawn attention to the issues of positivity curricular discourse - academic and cultural. The relationship curriculum, culture and cultural pedagogies have been of great importance in the attention given to the problems of production of subjectivities and identities of gender studies in education (Louro, 1997; Rosemberg, 2001), as well as curriculum studies from the perspective of cultural Studies (Costa, 2003; Giroux, 1995, 2005; Silva, 1995), studies that observe a strong connection between academic knowledge and everyday knowledge and understanding of the culture of mass involved in the production of subjectivities. In this perspective, it is understood that analyze the ways listed are implicated in images and narratives, and devices specific pedagogy cultural media in the production of discourses learned or relearned daily about how to see yourself being in the world, confirms the relevance of the curriculum to problematization cultural media taking it as a system of signification involved in the production of identities and subjectivities in the context of relations of control and normalization of the subjects for daily practices and diffuse.

Keywords: Curriculum. Cultural Pedagogies. Subjectivity. Gender

Introducing the issue

The screen text aims to outline some of the approaches that we are calling an intersection within the thematic curriculum, culture, and subjective processes in the field of educational research in the field of Cultural Studies and the Curriculum in order to analyze the social and modes operate as discursive practices of the cultural curriculum of television as a place that produces an education of subjects turning experience that men and women do for themselves.

For this investment, we use concepts from Foucault to refer to the act of thinking not only about the problem of the different forms of bondage, but especially on the subject of subjective processes and the ways in which the statements are implicated in images and narratives and the specific devices of cultural pedagogy of media in the production of discourses learned or relearned by the subjects daily about how being in the world.

Deleuze (1990, p. 155), states that "the philosophy of Foucault presents an analysis of specific devices," approaching the device concept concrete developed by Foucault, defining it as a sort of ball or skein, a set multiline. The devices would power lines because the devices have their meaning as "components of visibility lines, lines of enunciation, power lines, lines of subjectivity, break lines, fissures, fractures that intersect and intertwine, while a raise through variations or mutations of disposition" (Deleuze, 1990, p. 156).

It is therefore the dimension of power and power is the third dimension of the internal space of the device, variable space based devices. This dimension is composed, as the power to know. In this sense, a "pedagogical device anywhere you will learn or modify the relationships that the subject establishes condign same" (ibid., p. 57). And the experience itself, the correlation in a cut-space concrete, between fields of knowledge, types of normatively and forms of subjectivity.

This concept brings to the discussion the concept of normalization. Insofar as the normalization fixes the subject in the apparatus of production and control of your own existence is itself an exercise regime of disciplinary power is from the perspective of a technical empowerment of individuals as objects and instruments of power. Defined as the effect and instrument of power in the core disciplinary systems, describes the conditions of production of spaces of society.

Under one approach, Fischer (1996), to analyze the requirements of sexuality and media pedagogical device, declaring that normalizing and disciplinary bodies and minds are the great arts of power that emerge in the twentieth century. Practices of power that emerge in complex networks of information and communication experienced by modern man, at all times, while virtually no one place one day of his life that he is not calling or taking care of your body or the peer's own sexuality . Or with the author saying, "there is subtlety: we live in a time that everything must be said and saying, we are exposed to word of normalization" (op. cit. P. 87). This seems to be the basic formula of various media products, as explicitly suggest themselves to being educational.

This means that, assuming the role of education, the products do not lose your perspective television show, however, subject to change lives and consumer spectacle. This was perhaps one of the most important features and television products present in the opinion of Fischer (2002, p. 47), to make a spectacle of life, but not any show. In it, there must be young bodies, clean, beautiful. There has to be harmonic sounds, soundtracks that punctuate human voices and listed on consumption.

It seems so to say that it is the depletion of the dimension of experience as an invisible violence that affects social classes in almost all contemporary cultures. Saying with Kehl (2002, p. 166), "television is enticing because it returns the recipient a timeless principle of non-mediation, the pleasure, the code of the realization of desires", which allows a kind of "dream language" permanent. And this has to do with how it articulates his speech and not necessarily with their contents. This means, in a postmodern reading, that rationality is the reality of the here and now and the signs are no longer represented, are the real, the actual simulation becomes reality.

On the dimension of experience, Benjamin (1994) points to the end of the narrative as a manifestation of concomitant production secular historical forces that were slowly subtracting the narration of the scope of oral and associates this "choking the story" the emergence of a new way to communicate information that is - "once it is consumed to replace the experience, that of the narrator speaks, the experienced know characteristic of the chronicler and the journalist" (Benjamin, 1994, p. 202).

In this direction, Martín-Barbero (2001) referring to the media as a social pedagogy asserts that appears to have been a loss of sources of narrative experience - to the extent that the subordination of the reports included in the ecosystem of media discourse is as , lost the source, the narration would be shattered to pieces, and since then we are witnessing the infinite multiplication of certain narration micro moving articulated by the media and when placed in flow, which is expressed in zapping. "With whom the viewer while multiplying the fragmentation of the narrative is a story with their other pieces, a double, merely subjective, non-transferable, experience immeasurable!" (Op.cit. P. 111). For the author, the crisis of the narrative points to the loss of the communicability of experience, not because it tasted ineffable, but because of the fragmentation of subjectivity, which spreads the experience.

Such discursive practices have been the focus of curriculum studies from the perspective of cultural studies, which observe the strong connection between academic knowledge and school and between everyday knowledge and understanding of mass culture, ie, instances, institutions and cultural processes, as museums, movies, literature, television etc.., are considered cultural pedagogies in the sense that, like education, these cultural instances are pedagogical, ie also teach something. In this sense, pedagogies are the result of disputes between classes or social groups to defend their interests.

Taking as a reference of Cultural Studies, Corazza (2001, p. 1) shows that the Cultural Pedagogy exists and occurs throughout social space in which knowledge is constructed, power relations are lived, experiences are interpreted, truths are held, where the culture is so privileged soil and quite "problematic" in which they carry out education, pedagogy and curriculum. These pedagogies work in contemporary society in different ways and with different tools and strategies.

Studies in the field of post-critical theory curriculum theory show that such rises in global scenario marked by worsening social inequality, the persistence of poverty and misery, the "rising unemployment, the degradation of the environment, the acceleration of demographic problems, the crisis of paradigms and by whether rekindle prejudice" (Moreira, 2005, p. 11). The post-critical theorizing curriculum has main categories: identity, otherness, difference, subjectivity, meaning and

discourse, knowledge, power, representation, culture, gender, race and ethnicity, sexuality and multiculturalism (Silva, 2005, p. 46).

Founded in discourses of Postmodernism and Post-structuralism, post-critical theories have in Foucault's thought by a closeness that thought offers fertility over the relationship between curriculum and power (Moreira, 2005, p. 26) and discussion of multidimensional subjectivities.

In the field of curricular discourse post-critical versions that expand understanding among developing curriculum and culture studies examining different cultural artifacts - films, soap operas and commercials - and Cultural Studies, Feminist Pedagogy, and Cultural Politics, contribute to the development of educational research in order to critically analyze messages conveyed in various media with which we interact in everyday life.

In the opinion of Costa (2003), think of Cultural Studies in Education in Latin America implies reflecting on the shared understandings about this field or this movement that crosses boundaries, opens different ways to think about everything we thought solved, and no one wants stable , definitive, right, demarcated, trapped in geographical territories, disciplinary, theoretical or thematic. And in this perspective can be designed as a sharing of understanding of key concepts and "ways of seeing" that they brought, especially for the areas of humanities, communication, and literature. "It constitutes, therefore, a new way to approach the educational field giving centrality to issues such as culture, identity, discourse and power in pedagogical scenario" (Costa, 2003, p. 22).

This position allows us to say that one must agree with the placement of scholars that establish relationships between the field of education and the field of Cultural Studies mainly in Brazil to say that the most important contributions of cultural studies in education seem to be those who have made possible the extension notions of education, pedagogy and curriculum beyond the school walls, the denaturalization of discourse theories and disciplines apparatus installed in school; visibility of disciplinary mechanisms; expansion and complexity of discussions on identity and on processes of subjectivity. Above all, such analyzes have drawn attention to new issues, problems and issues that become the subject of discussion in curriculum and pedagogy.

This other way of looking at education and culture is associated with changes in the way of conceiving language. Saying to Silva (1994, p. 249), is no longer seen as neutral vehicle and transparent representation of reality and no longer seen as fixed or stable, instead, language is seen as a move in constant flux.

Cultural Studies offer some possibilities for educators to rethink the theoretical nature of educational practices, and reflect on what it means to educate for the XXI century, in that it is not possible to ignore multiculturalism, race and ethnicity, identity, power, knowledge ethics, work, sexuality and gender issues as they play an important role in defining the meaning and purpose of education in a consumer society and the media. In its aftermath, invest heavily in discussions about the culture, with an emphasis on its political significance, are deeply concerned about the relationship between culture, knowledge and power.

From the foregoing, it seems clear that the culture appears as a central issue in Cultural Studies. However, the analyzes focus on cultural phenomena does not imply reducing everything to culture, means, according to Hall (2000, p. 47), assume that culture is one of the constitutive conditions of existence of every social practice, that every social practice has a cultural dimension, understand the culture as whole way of life of a social group through structured representation, power and history.

The curriculum and its components constitute a cohesive and standardized knowledge governed by a certain established order in an arena where they are fighting worldviews and where to produce, transmit and elect representations, narratives, meanings of things and subjects in relation knowledge and power, which, from the perspective Foucault, power is not something out, but implied, inscribed within the curriculum itself.

In his critique of what he calls the traditional view of the curriculum, Silva (1995, p. 203) states that tend to see the curriculum as connected to ideas, concepts, content, information, and thus, we fail to see it in their disciplinary aspects, regulators and as a narrative that is discursive practices.

This extent, the narratives are one of the most important discursive practices. They tell stories about ourselves and the world and help us give meaning, order, the things of the world, and to stabilize and fix our self. And the power of storytelling is closely linked to the production of social identities. It is through narratives, among other processes, the power acts to establish the identities of subordinate social groups as others, but likewise, these others may affirm identities that are different from those set by the hegemonic narratives.

The meanings produced and transported in the curriculum and the narratives are not fixed, making. These, before anything else, is a terrain of contestation and struggle for meaning and the narrative, to the extent that, as proposed by Silva (1995, p. 205), " the curriculum brings implicit and/or explicit a plot on the world social, it contains many narratives: the narrative of morality, reason, science, history, politics, aesthetics."

Thus, recognizing the curriculum as narrative and formed numerous narratives, "means deconstruct them as unique. Mean breaking with the plot of the dominant forms of storytelling, with the production of hegemonic social identities and subjectivities", open the possibility of stories, different subjectivities and identities, plural, multiple. And as the various cultural artifacts and cultural practices in the curriculum as social constructs. Culture is significance and meaning production, are produced together, and both social relations. The meanings are arranged in structures, systems and relationships which, in turn, present as linguistic marks as significant nets, fabrics, signs and text (SILVA, 2006, p. 18). And in this sense, the curriculum can be viewed as a practice of signification, as a text, and be part of the culture and carries houses a productive practice.

Curriculum in the field, it is vital that cultural artifacts are perceived and understood as cultural and educational bodies, which have a "pedagogy", teach, are involved in processes of transformation and production of identities and subjectivities. Saying to Silva (2009, p. 139), "[...] while the culture in general is seen as pedagogy, the pedagogy is seen as a cultural form: the cultural becomes teaching and pedagogy makes it is cultural."

Curriculum, Gender and Cultural Pedagogies

In the educational field in dialogue with feminist studies and gender studies, Louro (1997) and Rosenberg (2001) are studies that give importance to the problem of the production of subjectivities and gender identities, and who observe a strong connection between academic knowledge and everyday knowledge and understanding of the culture of mass involved in the production of subjectivities.

Louro (1997, p. 88) argues that gender identities are constructed in many instances and spaces. Among which the media as a place to build, strengthen and circulation of meanings that operate in the formation of individual and social identities, as well as social production of inclusions, exclusions and differences in his speech, makes use of different forms, features symbols the construction of the subjects. The author says: "So, over time, line up certain features, appeal to some resources for them and about them. These representations are not, however, mere descriptions that reflect the practices of these subjects, they are descriptions that are producing them" (Louro, 1997, p.99).

Under this approach, but in relation to the media, Swain (2001, p. 68) proposes that television soap operas, novels, magazines, newspapers and the internet, on your desk space and interaction, convey representations of women , men, society. The media in times of globalization, according to this author, intends homogenization of the female condition and recovery image of the "real woman", which made for love, motherhood, the seduction, the contemplation of man, Adam's rib reinvented. Pedagogy of texts that make up a mosaic that includes the way you perceive the world and themselves, circulation spaces narratives, places of subjective processes (Swain, 2001, p. 68).

Shares, therefore, the perception that the media products in your speech, propose representations of the feminine gender; representation mean by all accounts, to say something about the attribute meanings. According to Giroux (1995, p. 155), "the images electronically mediated, especially television and film, represent one of the most potent weapons of cultural hegemony in the twentieth century."

Thus, the present identities, reinventing them, the media provide an outline of the things with the simplification of cultural phenomena, trivializing them or mystifying them in their narratives. In time, is defined as a way of talking about identities.

Hall (2000) posits that identities are the result of sedimentation of different identifications or placements that have adopted and try to live as if they came from inside, but they are undoubtedly caused by a mixture of special circumstances, feelings, stories, etc.. "Something formed over time through conscious and unconscious processes, not something innate, existing in consciousness at birth" (ibid., p. 38). While subjectivity presupposes the understanding we have of our self; involves the thoughts and emotions or unconscious of whom we are, in other words, the conception of who we are.

The speeches summon the subjects so as to give meaning to a set of statements constructed, ie, "the subjects are subjected to discourse and themselves eventually took it as individuals, thus position themselves to themselves." This means that our identities are made of cast positions we take and with which we identify and "inside the production process symbolic and discursive" (ibid., p. 80). The production of identities and subjectivities happens within the cultural practices tissues signifying practices and thus not something given by nature, but "it is the object of an incessant construction" (Silva, 2006, p. 25).

In contemporary society, the TV is an integral part of signifying practices and sophisticated processes of propagation and production of meaning, of the senses, which, in turn, "are related to modes of being, thinking, and knowing the world relate to life "(Fischer, 2002, p. 154). And for that reason, cannot be seen as just having a futility, alienating, since it is in a building space of identities and subjectivities in a particular discursive logic in that it not only conveys but builds speeches and produces meanings and subjects.

In the context of educational research suggests that investment plunge into a kind of language that has an impressive set of materials, the expectation of realizing these imaginary landscapes of our time in ways that are implicated in the utterances images and narratives, with the production of speeches learned or relearned daily about how to see themselves, being in the world, confirming the need to question the cultural curriculum of the media taking it as signifying systems involved in the production of identities and subjectivities in the context of relations of control and standardization of subject to daily practices and diffuse.

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Depleting the curriculum: teaching digital platforms and curricular impoverishment

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Abstract

The paper aims at showing how curricular complexity tends to be depleted by the use of digital platforms based on the SCORM (*Sharable Content Object Reference Model*) standard, which was created with the main purpose of recycling content as it is supposed to be independent both from the context of learning and the supporting technology also deemed to be neutral, all surrounded by a rhetoric of innovation and "pedagogical" innovation. The starting point of the discussion is García Perez's model of Traditional Didactics as a simple tool to show almost graphically that any ancient didactic model is far richer in terms of complexity than the linearity, in disguise most of the times but still visible under a not so sophisticated critical lens, of the interaction human-(reusable) content that is the basis of the SCORM standard.

The paper also addresses some of the more common deliberate mix-ups related to those digital platforms, such as learning and teaching, content and learning object, systems of automatic teaching and learning management systems.

Keywords: traditional model of didactics; digital platforms; curricular impoverishment.

1   Prologue

I always thought that the (true) discourse on innovation is a minority one and it may not match the discourse on innovation shared by the common sense, which takes for innovative what appears to be new. And I have often stated (e.g. Fino, 2007, 2008, 2011a, 2011b, 2011c) that pedagogical innovation, whether involving the use of technology or not, always presuppose a critical distancing in relation to the processes of teaching and to the curriculum models crystallized by the school of modernity. I also have insisted that pedagogical innovation lies not in the technology itself, much less when it is used to continue the old processes by new means, even though these processes have migrated to virtual spaces where they reside as representations, invariably reduced to a skeleton or even less, of the traditional school, disguised under appealing labels written in English. And I have stressed that pedagogical innovation has to be triggered by a clear understanding of the cognitive processes, and that it is unthinkable without any deliberate and conscious intervention by creating new learning environments that encourage and nurture these cognitive processes. According to this view, the technology, at best, will not be more than a contextual element or, if one prefers, an element for supporting the context.

I must also confess that I have not found many people willing to defend aloud this point of view inside the Academy. On the relationship between pedagogical innovation and the use of technology in education, the voices of the main stream, which a-criticism is deafening, are much more numerous.

2   Complexity

Curriculum is a very complex entity. So complex that, even knowing schools and having had a long and direct schooling experience as a student, as a teacher, or as both, few are really able to grasp the entire dimension and ramifications curriculum has grown in our culture. Some have the feeling that curriculum is much more than syllabus, lessons, evaluations, which belong to what is deemed important by society to be taught. Some are able to understand that there is a hidden part of the curriculum, related to what students learn because of the way schools are organized. And

some are aware that curriculum also specifies the way teachers teach, including the tools they use to teach, whether these tools are physical or methodological. And some feel that teacher education is also another curricular branch, particularly controlled by the state as it happens in Portugal, for example, and this feeling could lead to think about who controls whom after all: is it the state controlling the curriculum, or is it exactly the other way around?

I am neither a curriculum sociologist nor a curriculum specialist, but I am used to try thinking "curricularly" as I think about education, especially when the issue is pedagogy and pedagogical innovation, and the use of technologies of information is involved. I learnt from Alvin Toffler (s/d), Gimeno Sacristán (1985) and others that the kind of school that have spread all over the planet since the beginning of the Industrial Age was created to provide work force for the industrial world, which seems absolutely normal. The Industrial Age has wisely reshaped a pre-existent school institution to fit its not so sophisticated new demands, and there is no problem about this. But I also know that the world, these days, is becoming less industrial, more unpredictable and much more complex than it was in the XIX century. Everybody understands that the key skills to succeed in the present are no longer just rudimentary literacy and numeracy and a kit of industrial discipline made by punctuality, capability of staying in a crowded, hot and noisy space without going crazy, readiness to obey orders and to perform the same simple tasks over and over again, eight hours a day, six days per week. The labour force already needed by the present must have another set of qualifications, mostly related to autonomous learning, critical thinking, creativity, problem-solving, etc.

I tend to conclude that a more complex world demands a less linear school. If this happens to be true in the present, then it will be even truer in the future, provided that the school as an institution will continue to be needed, whether directly linked with the labour market or not. In any case, a less linear (hence, more complex) school would request a different kind of curriculum, surely less normative and much more flexible than the one we already know. This "new" curriculum has to evolve from the current one-fits-all teaching curriculum to attain the complexity of so many learning curricula as many are the learners who interact with the teachers and amongst themselves in new contexts of learning, either physical or virtual, inside the school or simply staying out of it.

Pedagogical innovation, in my view, has to do with seeking for this new kind of learning contexts, free from the paradigm constraints of the factory-shaped school, and hopefully existing both inside and outside the school, as the relationship between people who gather to learn together does not need to happen exclusively within the walls and under the supervision of an institution.

Complexity is, consequently, one of the key issues if we really want to change education.

3 "Innovating" to preserve the essential

I advocate a concept of pedagogical innovation as discontinuity or as a paradigm shift, according to Kuhn's (1962) definition of paradigm. In other words, I think that pedagogical innovation implies rupture rather than continuity even with changes. Rupture with the pedagogical practices that have been consolidated along the evolution of the factory school over the last one hundred and fifty years, which includes simultaneous instruction, Taylorism, rigid discipline, top-down curricular decisions, students' segregation by age, etc. It is needless to say that I cannot consider pedagogical innovation the inclusion of some hi-tech gadgets in the schools, usually meant to be used mainly by teachers to enhance their power of communicating. It is true that some of those gadgets can also be used by students being taught, but it does not modify anything truly fundamental in the traditional pedagogical settings.

I also want to distinguish between *teaching practice*, mainly anchored on didactics, and *pedagogy*, as no one mistakes pedagogy with students' practices. A pedagogy involves the relationship between people who gather to learn (or help to learn) together and the way this relationship happens. Of course that gathering could involve the use of some didactics, but improving didactics is not the main purpose of pedagogical innovation, according to my view. The main purpose of pedagogical innovation has to do with implementing new contexts of learning were a non-industrial kind of relationship between learners and helpers could happen. And sometimes I wonder if a cocktail of content, digital platforms, technological education, technologists, engineers, marketing men, all using the same jargon contrived and slick, full of labels, that invariably nominate things deliberately to look like they are different, has anything to do with really thinking about education. For example, are the LMS (*learning management systems*) really *learning* systems or just virtual *teaching* machines? Are the LOs (*learning objects*) objects of learning or just teaching content? Is e-learning really about learning or is it more like about teaching? Since when is that the two expressions have become synonymous? And by the way, why is that gone?

4   The discourse on pedagogical innovation and the need for a hierarchy of concepts

Any pedagogy, to be worthy of the name, always rehearse global thinking on education, particularly on the relationship between education and life, the list of values by which one orients the ideals he or she pursues. A true Pedagogy always presupposes an answer to what education should be and how it should be and its scope goes obviously beyond the school institution. For example, Giroux (2010: 1), recalling the legacy of Paulo Freire at the time the social relevance of education is replaced by the language of measurement and quantification, defines Freire's critical pedagogy as

> "*the educational movement guided by both passion and principle to help students develop a consciousness of freedom, recognize authoritarian tendencies, empower the imagination, connect knowledge and truth to power and learn to read both the word and the world as part of a broader struggle for agency, justice and democracy*".

Compared to Pedagogy, content delivery, both if it happens in classroom and through virtualization, belongs to a smaller and more immediate reality. A reality so close to the eye, that there are lots of people who simply do not find the need to any distancing from it, nor even feel the need of distrusting the presumption of its technical neutrality, disregarding all its political and pedagogical implications. Perhaps because of this, but also because it is easier, or because the lack of a minimum of terminological accuracy, there are those who confuse methods, techniques and resources with Pedagogy, just as there are those who do not make any distinction between teaching and learning, and this the reason for the "definition" of pedagogical innovation by common sense as the use of new technological resources for content delivery purposes.

Now, having Pedagogy a practical strand, which is the creation of learning environments where learners and the creators of these contexts move, it is on the changes in these contexts, and not the in technology itself, that resides the part, let us say, visible of the pedagogical innovation. The other part of the pedagogical innovation is conceptual in nature. In addition to the underlying philosophical principles, this other part necessarily incorporates the most current explanation that science has produced on the phenomena of cognition and on the ways of enhancing the possibility of its occurrence.

In other words, pedagogical innovation is something vastly more sophisticated than the mere introduction of technology, or the mere virtualization of content distribution. For whom the only imaginable school model is the one that crystallized since the second half of the nineteenth century, following the development of industrial capitalism, "innovating" perhaps may be the same as virtualizing with all the inherent adjustments due to the loss of an authentic social (school) context, which invariably reduce curriculum development to the skeleton. But for those who did not give up thinking education critically, and for those who have not surrendered to a kind of sameness saturated of technology, pedagogical innovation means something much more radical than the traditional school served through the new digital media, with adjustments imposed by the lack of imagination, and by the limitations of the technology, or the lack of complete mastery over it.

Pedagogical innovation means rupture and not continuity, critical consciousness and self-criticism rather than self-indulgence, serving the needs of the learner, which need to be determined beforehand, rather than the emphasis on closed teaching contents. Of course, for whom education is teaching and teaching is transmitting content according to a certain degree of sequence and organization, this speech will not make any sense. That is why I reaffirm the conviction that the discourse of true pedagogical innovation can only be clearly minority.

5   The issue of critical distancing in relation to the school of modernity

The general meaning of pedagogical innovation in relation to the school of modernity can only be struggling to replace it with something, institutional or not really, that suits modernity in accelerated transformation. If this replacement is limited to the development of the old curriculum through the new virtual media, the old ways, which reappear apparently rejuvenated, are not put into question, and all the potential for change that she may have is removed from the technology and from its use. In particular to allow what has been promised in the eighties (Papert, 1993), when it seemed to be possible that, within the school, the use of computers would bring a possibility of radical change in the approach to the classic triangle *apprentice, technology, knowledge*.

Of course, thinking about how the use of technology can help us to change education is only possible if we think that education should be changed and why. And this *why* must be implicitly or explicitly grounded on an awareness of the problems and contradictions that plague teaching systems, without which it is not possible any movement to modify whatever.

It is also clear that the proposal of *how* to change implies far more than having access to technology and being able to use it. For example, the SCORM standard (Sharable Content Object Reference Model) and its implementations of systems for content distribution require a profound mastery of digital technologies, without which there would be no SCORM at all. What is missing from any SCORM like implementations is a deep and implicit knowledge about the cognitive processes that are not explainable only by the theory of operant conditioning. Also they lack, of course, a distanced vision of the factory school, some procedures of which try to imitate. Not to mention a real pedagogical intention, just a bit more sophisticated than a kind of linear and prescriptive "pedagogy", contained in a vicious cycle of content presentation - questions about the content - following content presentation, and so forth.

Who does not understand that the factory school no longer corresponds, if ever corresponded to the highest degree of sophistication of education systems, and who ignores that a true pedagogy has little or nothing to do with the mere functioning of virtual teaching systems, never asks how technology can be used to build a different school (or no school at all). The struggle for change begins in the detection of the need for change and continues in the understanding and explanation of the reasons why change is necessary, and culminates with the inventory of materials, tools and theories to make the switch.

6   Old ways, new media

In the fifties of the twentieth century, B. F. Skinner presented a programmed instruction machine designed to overcome three drawbacks identified by him in the traditional classroom: equal time for students with different rhythms, flawed operationalization of teaching content, and the lack of immediate feedback. With the teaching machine, rather than all being subject to the same pace, each student would take ownership of the course materials according to their individual rhythm. In addition, the course material was organized into small instructional units, according to a coherent order, so as to minimize gaps in the assimilation of each unit by the student. Finally, the machine would give immediate feedback, validating or not each response and thus realizing one of the key recommendations of the theory of operant conditioning, whereby the reinforcement to be effective must take place immediately after the behavior.

The actual Skinner's machine had little success because of its cost (it was needed one machine per student to be effectively used). However, few years later, the evolution of the computer industry and the fall in the size and in the price of computers and the consequently generalization of its use, even in education, made it possible to implement Skinner's idea in the form of CAI (computer aided instruction). For example, in 1960 the PLATO (Programmed Logic for Automatic Teaching Operations) System was launched, clearly based on the principals of operant conditioning, inaugurating a trend of using computers in instruction that led directly to the SCORM standard thirty nine years later. It is also interesting to acknowledge that both the PLATO System and the SCORM standard have been developed under the auspices of the U.S. Defense, the former immediately after the Sputnik crisis and the latter linked to the need of maintaining the military personnel updated while in mission abroad.

As we can find out accessing the SCORM website, *"Sharable Content Object" indicates that SCORM is all about creating units of online training material that can be shared across systems. SCORM defines how to create "sharable content objects" or "SCOs" that can be reused in different systems and contexts.* And previously, it is possible to read in the same webpage that "*Specifically, SCORM governs how online learning content and Learning Management Systems (LMSs) communicate with each other. SCORM does not speak to instructional design or any other pedagogical concern, it is purely a technical standard*".

Digital platforms built under the SCORM standard are meant to deal with any kind of content that fits the standard, as SCORM was created to grant the reusability of the content, which implies its independency from the context where it is presented. In brief, according to this perspective, the main thing and more valuable thing in instruction is content. The machinery where it is delivered to the learner is to become invisible, as no other context but the content itself was necessary. No context and, obviously, no social context.

7   One degree (at least) below the level zero of Didactics

The above any suspicion of defending disruptive ideas, García Pérez (2000), synthetized the Traditional Model of Didactics as follows:

ANALYSED DIMENSIONS	TRADITIONAL MODEL OF DIDACTICS
For what to teach	* Provide basic information about the current culture. * Obsession with the content.
What to teach	* Synthesis of syllabic knowledge. * Prevalence of conceptual "information".
Ideas and interests of students	* Interests or ideas of the students are not taken into account.
How to teach	* Methodology based on transmission from the teacher. * Activities focused on the teacher's presentation, supported in the textbooks and review exercises. * The student's role is to listen carefully, "study" and reproduce on tests the content transmitted by the teacher. * The teacher's role is to explain the issues and maintain order in the classroom.
Evaluation	* Focused on "remembering" the content. * Focused especially on the product. * Made by tests.

In the same article, García Pérez also synthetized the Technological Model of Didactics, the Naturalist Model of Didactics (he called it *Modelo Didáctico Espontaneísta*) and the Alternative Model of Didactics (or School Research Model), showing that these three models are far more sophisticated than the earlier Traditional Model of Didactics.

As anyone can easily grasp, the Traditional Model of Didactics only involves the three classic elements of Didactics: *Teacher*, *Students*, and *Content* as no others are considered. In this model, the teacher transmits the content to the students, and these have the task to (listen to the teacher, read the material he prescribed and) report to the teacher the percentage they have retained in mind, until the test, from the transmitted content. This model describes a situation in which the teacher assumes the lead role, centering in itself the essential of the processes, in this case, the process of teaching as an active and transitive process (who teaches, teaches something to someone), while students' activity is a reflex and a consequence of teacher's one. Seymour Papert (1993), for example, emphasizing the fact that in our culture, despite the propaganda, teaching is given much more importance than learning, referred that there is even a word for naming the art of teaching (which is *Didactics*) but there is none to refer the art of learning (he proposed the word *Mathetics* to express that).

Well, despite the evolution of computers and the expertise of computer programmers, the fact is that, if it looks obvious that virtualization of school is not only possible, but perhaps appropriate or even desirable, it is a little bit more difficult to implement it. So far, it has been possible to make the virtualization only of the content, and the industry has done its best (see SCORM claims) to assure that the content is absolutely context-free in order to be reusable. The virtualization of teachers is never mentioned. As for the students, they can already have access, provided they have credentials and infrastructure to do so. And in this immaterial brave new world, students are allowed to interact with content, according to a plan previously defined by those who organized it.

In this "new" kind of school, once teachers cannot be dematerialized to stay online along with the content, a special kind of curricular development happens beforehand, when the so called LOs are crystalized, and students have no other possibility than interacting with content. Only with content, which has been previously organized by specialists in these LOs, the nickname for *teaching* objects, in spite of LO, in their jargon, stands for *learning* object, as if *learning* and *teaching* were synonymous.

That is why this new model of teaching is poorer than García Pérez's Traditional Model of Didactics. And that is why I consider this endeavour a way of spoiling technology and a way of reducing complexity and depleting the curriculum, by implementing a "new" model of Didactics with only two elements: content and students.

This is not, of course, any kind of improvement nor even on didactics. Not to mention pedagogical innovation that has nothing to do with this.

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In search of the Archimedean point (of view) on curriculum.

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Abstract

In this essay I will try to make a bridge between the maturity of a career as a teacher and the beginning of a career as a newcomer curriculum theorist. Crossing this bridge I found at the metaphor of the Archimedean point a heuristic value to understand the challenges of curriculum theorising and a guide to inquire practice. Relying on some texts and arguments of Hammersley (1995), Pinar and Bowers (Pinar & Bowers, 1992) and Young (Young, 2008), I will try to discuss historical developments and epistemological implications of the field and new possibilities of inquiry of curricular practices and discourses.

Keywords: practice; theory; foundationalism; curricular discourses; pedagogy.

The image of the Archimedean point suggests a theoretical place where we can see something from above, in other words, where we can know or understand anything with an absolute, complete and detached point of view. For Archimedes such a point would also allow move the Earth and to decentre it. This metaphor was, for many years, a powerful image that impressed my mind by the reading of Hannah Arendt's (1998) *The Human Condition*: modern science, with Galileo, performed the mathematical possibility of the Archimedean point, seeing the Earth from the Universe, still standing with his feet firmly attached to the ground; and with Descartes, this point has moved into the man himself, through the methodical doubt. Since the advent of modern science and Cartesian introspection, we live in a world where we can no more trust our senses or even reason. *Quod nihil scitur*, that nothing one knows for sure, the title of a book of a great Portuguese philosopher before Descartes, Francisco Sanches (1550-1623), from Braga region and contemporary of Montaigne, gave modernity an indelible *sceptic ethos*. However, modern Western philosophy has been seen as a tradition anchored in Descartes' rationalist foundationalism (Sosa, 2004) according to which one knows through direct intuition with clarity, or deductively, on the basis of premises which are intuited also with clarity; although, for Descartes and Sanches, it's God, after all, who guarantees everything.

For twenty-two years as a teacher I felt compelled to seek a point of support that would guide my practice and allow me to understand the important issues involved in schools and schooling, in teaching and learning, and broadly in education. As a newcomer to the field of curriculum theory I soon realized that such foundationalism would be difficult to establish, either on the side of the practice or the theory. There are no guarantees. We are working without a net.

On curriculum issues, Kincheloe (2005) argued that the metaphor of an Archimedean point can hardly suppose a point outside the curriculum where it could be understood objectively; there couldn't be a kind of guarantee of the epistemological foundations of knowledge for curriculum, from hence, tell the truth about what the curriculum is or what it ought to be. The idea of curriculum that emerges from this privileged standpoint is represented by uncritical teachers, informed by advocates of standardized education from the broad standards and accountability movements and reforms. Therefore, "our views of the world are from partial, limited perspectives." (Kincheloe, 2005, p. 91). The problem is that maybe *partial* and *limited* perspectives are not the same thing (Hammersley, 1995, 2000) and not merely a semantic matter. Partial is something biased, very often it is partisanship. Bias and partisanship in social research – curriculum studies is a social science – are, eventually, much more a totalizing worldview than a limited perspective. A critique of *stauts quo* sometimes turns into a metanarrative they started to deny. This is truth for Marxist or some feminist epistemologies.

Scholars in curriculum studies have emphasised the proliferation of theories, discourses and voices (Pinar, 2012; Pinar, Reynolds, Slattery, & Taubman, 2004), the urgency of a theory of knowledge and learning for the curriculum of the future (Young, 1998, 2008), and the uncertainties of the field (Pacheco, 2009, 2012). These present circumstances may

be theoretically challenging to a newcomer curriculum theorist, but to a practitioner it represents being alone in schools without any guidance other than devastating critiques, traditionalistic practices or pedagogical fashions. For one or the other does not appear to be a neutral point of view.

Traditional technological conceptions of curriculum development, once called didactics, seems broadly re-introduced in schools nowadays (Pacheco, 2012), while in universities scholars broadened curriculum field, through issues of ethnicity, race, gender and social class, until the field almost confounds itself with notions as ideology or culture. Pedagogy itself seems to be no longer something between art and technique, it became *public* – everyone suffers its influence, even when not being schools –; and *critical* – through it would be possible not only interpret the world but to change it (Giroux, 1997). Different perspectives, within the broad movement of curriculum studies that has started with the New Sociology of Education (NSE) (Young, 1972) and the Reconceptualists' movement (RM) (Pinar et al., 2004), rapidly became competing perspectives, with the more radical partisans of the political dimensions of curriculum assuming a position of orthodoxy (Pinar & Bowers, 1992) that cannot disguise internal tensions like, for instance, amongst feminist and race studies (of black women) or amongst feminists and Marxists (Hammersley, 1995).

Alongside those intellectual uprisings in curricular theory, methodological issues among quantitative and qualitative research were equated with the metaphor of paradigms' war. In 1989, Gage (1989), surprising and defiantly, proposed a kind of *history of the future* about methodological issues, arguing that we already reached the "sanguinary climax" of the war. More than 20 years passed, and after the sequels of the *Sokal hoax* (Ashman & Baringer, 2001; Segerstråle & Olofsdotter, 2000), I think we are already in the *front* of the war and in the *Thermidor* of the promised revolution (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). So many Archimedian points have transformed possible diversity into incommensurability's wars.

Worse, nowadays, in late or deregulated capitalism, we testimony globalized educational policies based on standards, accountability, confessional choices, deliberate destruction of secular public education and disorganized and undermined teacher professionalization (Au, 2009; Pinar, 2012; Taubman, 2009; Whitty, 2005), a perfect nightmare of an agenda that seeks to transform education in a *quasi-market*, replacing the rights of the citizen for the rights of the consumer.

At any rate, if one looks at the forty years passed since NSE and RM, if one looks at the several educational reforms throughout the 20th century (Cuban & Tyack, 1995), and if one looks at the extremely stable school pedagogical practices despite the great development of educational technology (Selwyn, 2011), we were astonished with few or even no influence prominent curricular theorists have had on educational policies or classroom practices. For Pinar and Bowers, critical theorists, whatever that means (Kincheloe & McLaren, 2005), failed to influence schools because of the "failure of critical perspectives to address major cultural shifts currently under way." (Pinar & Bowers, 1992, p. 181). What are these cultural shifts (race, multiculturalism, ecological crisis) since the early nineties and how critical theorists, or others, address them, it's another question. For Young, NSE, trying to be a different approach to knowledge and the curriculum, has had not only some theoretical inadequacies, but failed because "it was shaped by the location of researchers in the universities who were insulated from both policy and practice." (Young, 1998, p. 47).

If the Tyler Rationale, and the set of technologically and scientifically evidence-based curricular practices (Mayer, 2008), broadly accepted in schools, may be viewed as one of the results of the uncertainties and wideness of curriculum field (Pacheco, 2012), it's important to understand the ways this rationale, nurtured with influences from Bloom, Mager and Gagné, was/is received in schools. Teachers in schools are not *blank slates* where rationales are engraved. The argument of technological rationales hegemony (Fino, 2009) or constructivism hegemony (Crato, 2006), lacks an analysis of the conditions of reception and widespread appropriation of ideas or the strategies of the complex of discourses (Tort, 1983). I hope these influences could be well evaluated, on a particular cultural history on a national basis, a Portuguese case study, through teacher education university programs (Pintassilgo, Mogarro, & Henriques, 2010), interactions between ancient teachers and newcomers in schools (Lapassade, 1998; Woods, 1986) and the role of mass communication media (Allan, 2002). In fact, curricular theorists, like William Pinar, stresses the need of an intellectual history of curriculum ideas and practices, on a national level (Pinar, 2012; Pinar et al., 2004).

Actually, history has always been seen as a privileged standpoint to justify political practices, ideological commitments or philosophical assumptions. "Tel est le point de vue de l'histoire, parce qu'elle examine les groupes du dehors, et qu'elle embrasse une durée assez longue." (Halbwachs, 1968, p. 78). It used to be called historicism. Under this denomination, come together, however, multiple and contradictory perspectives (Hamilton, 2003; Popper, 1957). Ancient dangers of historicism were the philosophies of history and the psychological histories; the current ones are radical post-modern relativisms, focused on the agency of individual groups or actors as the ultimate cause and validity of social change (Hammersley, 1995; Popkewitz, Franklin, & Pereyra, 2001). It will desirable, as these latter authors proposes, to differentiate historicism from historicizing, the latter referring to a cultural history, "an approach

that entails a history of the present" (Popkewitz et al., 2001, p. 7). Regarding curriculum theory, a cultural history of pedagogical practices and discourses should seriously address a common school representation, an aprioristic view of schooling (Fino, 2009), perhaps close to the idea of a *mémoire collective* (Halbwachs, 1968), an overlapping field between intellectual and cultural history (Darnton, 1980), ideology and *mentalités* (Vovelle, 1987).

However, it's important to acknowledge that curriculum studies, either in theoretical or practical terms, has a national dimension, i.e., is related to the growing and affirmation of the national states. Education is, by its nature, a practical activity tied to many others in society. Curriculum studies must have a practical dimension in relation to the wealth of nation states and to the sustainable economic growth. Pinar and Bowers (1992) pointed one of the most important "cultural shifts", the ecological crisis: limited natural and energetic resources, lost of biodiversity, climate changes. Young has pointed another realistic one: once abandoned the "theoretical inadequacies" of NSE because of their lack of a theory of social change, *i.e.* "western capitalist societies are not collapsing but are at the end of an era" (Young, 1998, p. 3), curriculum theory must face these emerging uncertainties of the changes in work, in production and, therefore, in learning and knowledge. We cannot face those changes pointed by these authors just waiting for the end of the world or the end of the history.

Making a parallel between political theory and curriculum studies, I would like to stress Sandel's critiques (1998) addresses to Rawls' image of an Archimedean point on the foundations of the theory of justice with this long citation:

"Two possibilities seem to present themselves, each equally unsatisfactory: if the principles of justice are derived from the values or conceptions of the good current in the society, there is no assurance that the critical standpoint they provide is any more valid than the conceptions they would regulate, since, as a product of those values, justice would be subject to the same contingencies. The alternative would seem a standard somehow external to the values and interests prevailing in society. But if our experience were disqualified entirely as the source of such principles, the alternative would seem to be reliance on a priori assumptions whose credentials would appear equally suspect, although for opposite reasons. Where the first would be arbitrary because contingent, the second would be arbitrary because groundless." (Sandel, 1998, pp. 16-17).

The diversity of critical theories, post-modern and post-structuralist approaches on curriculum are not easy ones, either for a newcomer curriculum theorist or a common but experienced teacher. Those curriculum approaches tend to assume a normative and judicative character, but in a concealed way, functioning as an ideology, whose criticism was made by those theorists, heirs of the Marxist critique of ideology. It's the famous Mannheim paradox. Sometimes value judgments are pointed to the end of history, to a kind of deployment of the future that justifies the validity and the aims of research through presuppositions like the notion of emancipation or social justice and the adjective of 'critical'. I think that there is an unclear agreement among curricular theorists and social scientists about these issues (Kincheloe & McLaren, 2005). They seem to neglect everyday life, as if history, that they much praise, happened out of the present and the actual circumstances. Other times they seem to be so cultural immanently that one can easily fall on a relativistic confusion. And worse, they don't provide minimal guidance for who are in schools every day. As a practitioner, I feel a huge weight over my shoulders: I don't believe anymore in a definitive and scientific pedagogy or curriculum development, but in the other hand I doubt schools can lead such a radical change, or reach such a messianic *telos*, or even survive at a radical disorientation of values. Yet I'm not saying that mankind does not should seek any idea of emancipation, justice, equality, happiness or cultural identity. I'm just acknowledging that no one has the privileged point of view – the Archimedean point – that gives access to the truth about the world due to their social position (Hammersley, 1995). Therefore, we are doomed to understand each other.

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Nationalisation and Universalisation of the Primary School Curriculum in Portugal: Origin and school Practices. For a Comparative Historical Sociology of School Knowledge (1835-1910)

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Abstract

The purpose of the present work is, firstly, to address the historical process of the development of the primary school curriculum during the Liberal period in Portugal. We favour, as a theoretical framework, the institutional view of the curriculum (Benavote & Kamens, 1989; DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Meyer, 1980). Based on a comparative historical sociology's perspective, we describe the evolution of the primary school curriculum categories in Portugal confronting it with a longitudinal study (1830-1986) on the origins and expansion of the curricular categories of primary school conducted worldwide John Meyer et. all.: School Knowledge for the Masses (1992). The results show that the basic curricular categories, in most Western countries during the first half of the 19th century, are the study of language, mathematics, religion and social sciences. In the first half of the 19th century only a few countries covered other modern school knowledge such as the arts, physical and natural sciences, and crafts. However, by the end of the 19th century, the results of the study show a global isomorphism of the school curricula all over the world regardless the economic, political and cultural differences between countries; such similarities are due to the internationalisation of thoughts on education. Nevertheless, this "mimetic isomorphism" does not exclude the process of "survey" or "nationalisation" of the curriculum. The category of social sciences, especially geography, plays a key role in the nationalisation of school knowledge, which will be demonstrated by a content analysis of the officially approved geography textbooks (1845-1910). The results will be compared with the Spanish case. Secondly, we intend to discuss the relationship between the "formal curriculum" and the "real curriculum (Perrenoud, 1995) or the school knowledge that was taught at the primary schools of the country, having as base the statistical processing of the official Survey of 1875.

Keywords: Universalisation of the Curriculum; Nationalisation of the Curriculum; Curriculum Practices.

1 Introduction

The neo-institutionalist theory has been developed since the decade of the 80s of the 20th century (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Meyer, 1980; DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Benavote & Kamens, 1989; Meyer & Ramirez, 2000; Benavot, 2008). The central thesis is that Nation-states and their institutions are shaped, in large part, by a supranational level through ideological conceptions dominant in the West: "The institutions constructing and giving meaning to modern social entities and their rationalised action have a much wider and more universal character than any particular setting they constitute" (Meyer, Boli & Thomas 1994, p. 22-23).

The theory was applied to several social fields, including education. In School Knowledge for the Masses (John Meyer et. all., 1992), Cha concluded that, when national education systems emerged in Europe, the most frequent areas of the curriculum were the study of Languages, Mathematics, Social Sciences, essentially, History and Geography, and religious Education. However, as from the second half of the 19th century, the percentage of countries that adopted modern curriculum areas and the proportion of time allocated to each of them increases significantly. The trend is for the existence of a high degree of isomorphism in the curriculum areas of the education systems of nation-sates with different levels of development and traditions.

2   Methodology

In the analysis of the dynamics of universalisation, we started with the same methodology of Meyer, Benavot and Kamens (1992) where we grouped school knowledge into areas of knowledge in order to compare the curriculum structure of Portuguese primary education with that of the countries studied by those authors. We considered as indicators of universalisation the presence/absence of those areas in the curriculum. The universalisation process has its origins in the comparative analysis of the experiences and models of school organisation of foreign countries. In order to ascertain the existence of processes of "mimetic isomorphism" in the reforms of primary education of the Portuguese liberalism, we used the preambles of the reforms of 1835, 1870 and 1901 and of the bill, discussed in the Chamber of Deputies, of the reform of 1844 as our source. The reform of 1836 has a very short preamble and the reforms of 1878 and 1897 were published without preambles. The preamble of the reform of 1894 has no comparatives references. The texts were codified in the Maxqda computer programme in order to undertake a structural analysis from the presence or absence of comparative references. To determine the dynamics of nationalisation and localisation, we used the decrees of the reforms, school regulations and programmes as our source. As indicators of the dynamics of nationalisation, we took into account the weight of school knowledge in the areas of Language and Social Sciences ascertained from the complexity and growth of school knowledge and the official statements for their teaching. As indicators of localisation, we searched for references to the adaptation of school knowledge to the economic, social and cultural reality of the schools.

In the analysis of the content of Chorography and general Geography textbooks our source was the Diário do Governo (Government Gazette), which throughout the 19th century released the list of officially approved textbooks for primary education. We used the MaxQda software for the categorization while using as unit of registration the theme.

In the analysis of curricula practices, we used the Official Survey applied to public and private schools in 1875 as our source and we codified the variable of attendance to the school knowledge offered by the schools with the help of the PASW Statistics 20 software.

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3   Formal curriculum: Dynamics of nationalisation in the curricula of the reforms of the primary education in the Portuguese liberalism

The concept of nationalisation of the curriculum is here understood both in its broad and narrow sense. The historical process of nationalisation of the primary school curriculum, in its broad sense, dates back to the liberal Revolution, namely, to the Constitution of 1822, where the generalisation of primary education under the Portuguese liberal state is formalised and the process of curriculum standardisation starts with the specification of a set of official and national school knowledge: "In all places of the kingdom, where it is suited, there will be schools sufficiently equipped to teach the youth of both sexes how to read, write and count and the catechism of the religious and civil obligations" (Constitution of 1822, Chapter 4, Article 237). However, due to the Dictatorship (28-34) and the Civil War (1832-1834), primary schooling is only regulated in 1835 with the first education reform of the Portuguese liberalism instituted by Magalhães da Fonseca. The historical process of nationalisation of the curriculum is, therefore, complemented with the regulation of what to teach and how to teach. The reform of 1844, implemented by Costa Cabral, spreads the school knowledge by 2 levels of education with the introduction of a vocational Education level, and the reforms of 1870, 1878, 1895, 1897 turn it later into an educational level that is complementary and optional.

By the narrow sense of nationalisation of the curriculum we mean the introduction, in the primary school curriculum, of knowledge related to the culture of the country and that enhance national identification, namely, the study of Portuguese Language or Literature, Portuguese History and Geography. The education reforms of the Portuguese liberalism contribute to a growing nationalisation of the curriculum when, for the first time, they formalise, in the historical formation process of the Portuguese primary school curriculum, the study of language and Geography, as History had become a curriculum subject in 1805 during the reign of Maria I (Notice of 5th March 1805).

History and Geography are school knowledge of the primary school curriculum since the first education reform (See Table no. 1) and they consistently remain consigned to the teaching of "Geography and National History" throughout the 19th century, with the exception of the Reform of 1844 that introduces "General Geography and History" in the second level. "Geography and National History" become particularly important due to the information given to teachers in the decrees of the reforms, school regulations or school knowledge programmes, about the material to be used in the reading exercises.

Table no. 1: Curricula of the primary education reforms from 1835 to 1844

	Reform of 1835	Reform of 1836	Reform of 1844
Language	Reading; Writing; Elements of Portuguese Grammar.	The Art of Reading; The Art of Writing; Principles of Portuguese Grammar.	Reading; Writing; Grammar exercises; Portuguese Grammar.
Mathematics	Arithmetic.	Counting;	Counting; Arithmetic.
Religion and Moral	Civility; Moral; Religion.	Civility, Moral and Christian Doctrine.	General principles of Moral; Christian doctrine and Civility; Sacred History.
Social Sciences	Notions of History and Geography; Political Law.	Brief notions of History, and Constitution.	Principles of Chorography and Portuguese History; General Geography and History.
Arts	Linear Drawing;	Linear Drawing.	Linear Drawing.
Physical	-	Physical exercise according to age.	-
Vocational education	-	-	Geometry applied to industry; Bookkeeping; Gifts for females*.

Source: Adapted from Decree of 7th September 1835, Decree of 15th November 1836 and Decree of 20th September 1844.

* Only for females.

If until the second half of the 19th century teachers were recommended to begin reading classes with textbooks centred exclusively around Christian doctrine and morals, as from then History and Geography are school subjects that gain relevance. The information now given to teachers on the material to be used in the teaching of Moral includes profane History, adding a secular moral to the religious moral. The History books officially approved for primary school now convey a concept of History as a lesson of moral, full of exemplary behaviour of heroes.

Thus, from the official observations of exercises directed at the teaching of reading and Moral we notice a fall in the importance of the teaching of Religion at the expense of the country's culture, especially of History and Geography.

Regarding the curriculum area of language education, the education reforms of the Portuguese liberalism begin what will contribute for the growing process of curriculum nationalisation by adding new subjects to the primary school curriculum for the first time, such as "Reciting" and "Calligraphy", and by making other subjects already introduced in the Reform of Marquis of Pombal (Law of 6th November 1772) more complex, such as "Grammar" and "Writing Exercises".

Table no. 2: Curricula of the primary education reforms from 1870 to 1897

Reform of 1870	Reform of 1878	Reform of 1894/1897
Language		
Reading; Writing; Elementary notions of Grammar and Writing exercises; Grammar and exercises of Portuguese language; Reading and Reciting prose and verse; Calligraphy.	Reading; Writing; Elements of Portuguese Grammar; Reading and Reciting prose and verse; Calligraphy and Writing exercises; Grammar and exercises of Portuguese Language.	Reading; Writing; Portuguese Language; Exercises of Writing, Drafting, Reading and Reciting.
Mathematics		
Arithmetic of whole and decimal numbers; Legal System of Weights and Measures; Arithmetic and elementary Geometry and their most common applications.	Four operations on whole and fractional numbers, Principles of the Metric System; Arithmetic and Elementary Geometry and its most common applications; Legal System of Weights and Measures.	Fundamental operations of Arithmetic and Notions of the Legal System of Weights and Measures; Elementary Arithmetic and Geometry and their applications.
Religion and Moral		
Christian doctrine; Elements of sacred History; Moral, Religion and Sacred History.	Moral and Christian doctrine; Moral and Sacred Hystory.	Christian doctrine and Moral Moral and Sacred History.
Social Sciences		
National History; Notions of Geography and Chronology; Notions of the Constitution and the rights and duties of the citizen; Elements of Chronology, National Geography and History.	Elements of Chronology, National Geography and History; Rights and duties of citizens; Duties of a mother*.	Elements of Chronology, National Geography and History; Rights and duties of citizens; Chronology, National Geography and History.
Sciences		
Elements of Physics, Chemistry and Natural History Elementary notions of natural History*.	Principles of Physics, Chemistry and Natural History; Principles of Physical and Natural Sciences*.	Notions of Physics, Chemistry and Natural History, applicable to Agriculture, Industry and Hygiene.
Arts		
Linear Drawing; Singing; Linear Drawing and its applications.	Principals of Drawing; Linear Drawing and its most common Singing.	Drawing Elements; Linear Drawing; Linear and decorative Drawing; Music.
Physical education		
Elementary Gymnastics combined with vocal exercises; Popular Hygiene; Gymnastics and Hygiene.	Gymnastics; Elementary notions of Hygiene.	Elementary Gymnastics; Gymnastics; Swimming.
Vocational education		
Notions of Agriculture; Bookkeping; Surveying; Elements of Agriculture and rural, industrial, and commercial Economy; Sewing, Sock making, Marking, Tailoring and home Economics*; Lace making, Flower making, etc*.	Elementary Notions of Agriculture; Bookkeeping; Principals of rural and industrial Economy; Home Economics*; Needlework*; Gifts of coloured embroidery, measuring, making moulds and making lace and flowers*; Decorative Drawing*.	Crafts; Notions of Economics, Accounting and Bookkeeping; Gifts for females*.

Source: Adpated from Decree of 16th August 1870; Law of 2nd May 1878; Decree of 22nd December 1894 and Law of 18th March 1897.
* Only for females.

3.1   Formal curriculum: Dynamics of nationalisation in the curricula of the reforms of the primary education in the Portuguese liberalism: Analysis of the officially approved Chorography/general Geography textbooks

Between 1845-1910, 20 Chorography books, 15 general Geography textbooks and 5 textbooks that include both school fields are officially approved for primary schooling. The content analysis shows that the books of Chorography/general Geography play a key role in the nationalisation of school knowledge, as they are centred round the national reality in 3 dimensions: the State, the Nation and the Territory. The most frequent knowledge about the State, entered in Chorography/Geography textbooks, is the territorial divisions that the liberal state implemented (geographical, administrative, ecclesiastical, juridical, military, electoral). The uniformity of the administration of the territory is related to the strengthening of the central government and also to the construction of a unitary State capable of creating a political-territorial unification connecting the citizens to the State as a possibility of the existence of a Nation-state. The Nation is "imagined" based on the History of Portugal (the Origin of the territory, Dynasties, the Discoveries), the Catholic religion and the form of the representative monarchical government distinctive from the

civilised and civilising European continent. Regarding the territory, textbooks show the image of a country favoured by the climate and soil productivity with many natural resources. In a similar study, coordinated by Horacio Capel, undertaken in the Spanish context, about 100 geography textbooks, published in the second half of the 19th century, to be used in primary and secondary education are identified and the authors also point out these 3 dimensions of analysis.

3.2 Formal curriculum: Dynamics of "localisation" in the curricula of the reforms of the primary education in the Portuguese liberalism

We understand the concept of "localisation" as the adaptation of some areas of the national curriculum to the social, economic and cultural reality of the students in order to provide them with learning experiences that are anchored in the daily life of their communities (Pacheco, 1995). The local construction of the curriculum is first undertaken, although shyly, in the reform of 1844. The "localisation" of the curriculum is naturally consubstantiated in the introduction of vocational Education with the aim of preparing the student for the working world.

The reform of 1870 widens the school knowledge allocated to vocational education and, for the first time, the adaptation of the curriculum content to the place is stated clearly.

The local construction of the curriculum remains in force only until the reform of 1878.

3.3 Formal curriculum: Dynamics of universalisation in the curricula of the reforms of the primary education in the Portuguese liberalism

The concept of universalisation of curriculum knowledge is understood in the sense of adoption of curriculum areas considered as ´modern´ and that were being implemented in the European context throughout the 19th century, being Prussia one of the pioneer countries in this field, namely, Sciences, Arts, Physical Education and Vocational Education (Meyer et all., 1992).

Tables 1 and 2 show that the evolution of the curriculum structure of the Portuguese primary school fits the typology outlined by those authors. It is only from the second half of the 19th century, with the Reform of 1870, that the modern curriculum areas are consolidated in the Portuguese curriculum structure. The area of the Arts is formed in 1835 with Linear Drawing, but it is only developed from 1870 with the introduction of Singing and Music. The area of Physical Education emerges timidly in the reform of 1836 under the name of "Physical exercise according to age". The area of vocational Education is created in the Reform of 1844 only with the school subjects of "Geometry applied to industry" and Bookkeeping. The Reform of 1870 introduces the area of Sciences.

The process of universalisation of the curriculum has its origins in the comparative analysis of the models of school organisation of foreign countries. From an analysis of the preambles of the reforms and the bill of the reform of 1844, one can conclude that the comparative references are recurrent in order to justify the measures adopted and related to all the matters of school organisation. The Document Portraits on the presence of comparative references show that these practices became increasingly more recurrent in the justification speeches of the reforms throughout the 19th century.

Document Portrait of the Presence of Comparative References in the Reform of 1835
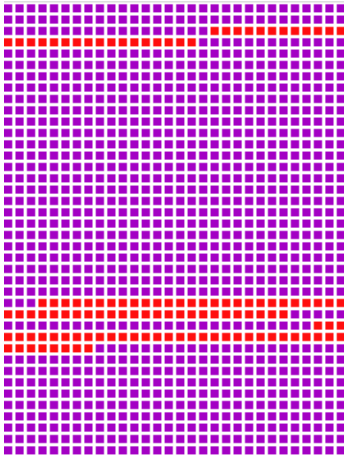
Source: The author.

Document Portrait of the Presence of Comparative References in the Reform of 1844

Source: The author.

- ● Absence of comparative references
- ● Presence of comparative references
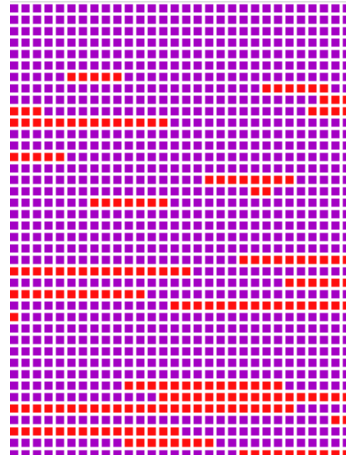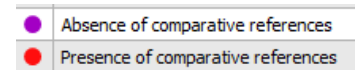
Document Portrait Presence of the Comparative References in the Reform of 1870
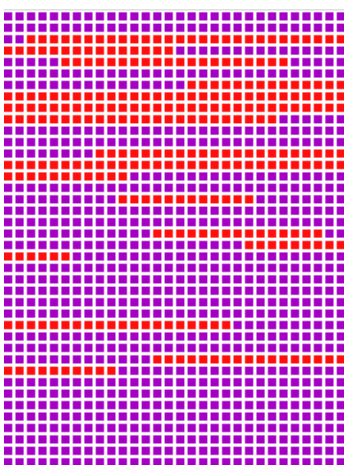
Source: The author.

Document Portrait Presence of the Comparative References in the Reform of 1901
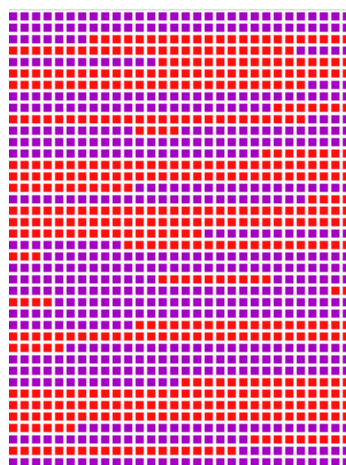
Source: The author.

4   Real curriculum: Curricula Practices in primary schools in 1875

The process of "mimetic isomorphism" may lead, as mentioned in many studies, to a gap between (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Stevenson & Baker, 1991) the formal curriculum and the real curriculum or the school knowledge implemented in the primary schools of industrialised countries independently of having a centralised or decentralised administrative authority. In the Portuguese case, the survey ordered by the government to public and private primary schools in 1875 reveals that only a limited number of school subjects was taught at schools, hence the questionnaire of the survey only inquired about attendance of the school subjects presented in Table no. 4

Table no. 4: Attendance of school subjects in public and private primary schools in 1875

	Reading	Writing	Christian Doctrine	Arithmetic	Metric system	Grammar	History	Chorography	Drawing
Public Schools	98.7	98.3	97.4	96.7	75.8	42.8	27.7	25.9	13.8
Private Schools	99.1	96.5	95.4	89.1	44.0	30.7	23.7	21.1	14.5

Source: Official survey applied to primary schools in 1875.

The results shown are for a universe of 2,134 codified schools, being 1,211 public schools and 923 private schools

5   Conclusion

For these reasons, there is a progressive development of the dynamics of nationalisation and universalisation in the curricula throughout the 19th century. These two processes lead to a conscious "rhetorical construction of the curriculum" by the legislators. The progressive extension of the school knowledge of the Portuguese primary school curriculum is designed through a process of "mimetic isomorphism" that is inadequate to the social, cultural, economic and educational reality of the country, a fact that was not unknown to the national legislators judging by the preambles of the reforms where the lack of qualification of the teachers and poor school attendance is recognised. Already in 1872, Manoel Francisco Botelho recognised that the ineffectiveness of the reforms of primary education were due to the "damaging tendency of modelling our instruction based on foreign programmes and regulations, which, while being beneficial in their own countries, would be inconvenient, impractical and in some respects pernicious in ours" (Botelho 1972, p. 4-6).

The reform of 1901 reflects a change in the extension of school knowledge that in general terms characterises the entire second half of the 19th century. For the first time in the education reforms of the Portuguese liberalism the curriculum structure is somehow fitted to the social, cultural and economic reality of a country ridden by illiteracy and economic backwardness.

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The discourse of reforms of public instruction, 1835-1901.

Concepts and ideological conceptions in the legitimation of primary education and the curriculum of the Portuguese liberalism

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is, within a perspective of comparative historical sociology, to identify and systematise the forms of political legitimacy of the purposes of primary education and the curriculum structure conveyed in the texts of the reforms of public instruction in Portugal. Legal instruments and their reports will be taken into consideration, from the pioneering text of the reform of Rodrigo da Fonseca Magalhães until the last education reform introduced by the constitutional monarchy in 1901, while using the methodologies of qualitative analysis. With this aim in mind, a lexical and categorical corpus was built in order to allow the identification of the fundamental concepts of each regulatory text and, from such concepts, the ideological conceptions associated with the legitimation of the political action. The political discourse on the aims of primary education and the curriculum structure was built according to the views of the policy makers about public education and the mimetic effects of European experiences, disseminated through "foreign missions" or reports on the primary education system of other European countries as it was common practice at the time. The outcome of the different ideological conceptions is often mirrored on the proposals for curriculum change, on the legitimating discourses of school knowledge and on its rationale. This process leads to a growing complexity of the curriculum frameworks throughout the 19th century.

Keywords: Liberal Reforms in Education; Legitimation of Primary Education; Legitimation of the Elementary Curriculum;

1   Introduction: World culture or liberal ideology of modernity?

One of the most relevant contributions of sociological institutionalism represented by the work of John Meyer and his collaborators at Stanford University is identified by the thesis of standardisation of national education systems producing social institutions that denote more similarities and homogeneity across countries than it would be predicted by the recognised diversity of national societies and cultures. Viewed from a 20th century perspective, isomorphic convergence would be explained by the fact that "world models exercise increasing force over time on national educational systems, producing diffusion and standardisation at an increasing rate" (Krücken & Drori, 2009), as conceptions of a "Global Common Educational Culture", historically based on rationalisation, universalism, belief in progress, and individualism as foundational cultural assumptions.

As Evan Schofer (2012) points out, "world society theory is a theory of modernity" and the idea of a "world culture" can be identified as the ideological and cultural foundations of modernity.

Historically, this long process of convergence of modern institutions, namely state compulsory and mass education, suggests "core mechanisms of the rapid diffusion" (Krücken & Drori, 2009, p. 210), like those associated with the rise and expansion of "rationalised models of the nation-state" and lately "the worldwide integration of educational sciences and professions and by organisations that carry this material providing detailed models of the proper national education system". The context of diffusion tends to be facilitated by an integrated world stratification system where dominant models are ready to be copied, especially in an innovative domain like education and educational policies, as they are considered decisive to national progress and modernisation.

This approach centred on "mechanisms of diffusion" is reinforced by the contribution of Jürgen Schriewer (2000, p. 108) about the "triple nature" of "transnational transmission and diffusion processes", especially those based on:

1.   educational ideology associated with the conception of modern development;

2. the general acceptance of rational models of public schooling, conducted by the state;
3. and finally, the world process of educational expansion based on compulsory and mass education generalisation, namely in the second half of the 20th century when it reaches the maximum impact.

Considering this theoretical framework, we can identify some methodological issues that can be expressed by the following hypotheses:

1. both contributions tend to overvalue "mechanisms of diffusion" disregarding correlated mechanisms of adoption, adaptation, resistance and, especially, political and national legitimation;
2. the idea of "world culture" tends to coincide with the liberal ideology of modernity, understood as world view and cultural system (Gertz, 2000) that combines different concepts (Freeden, 1998) and conceptions (Rawls, 1999, p. 5), such as liberty, moral order, progress, rationality and science as emerging "valid knowledge" (Wagner, 2008, p. 12-13), founded on the legacy of the Enlightenment and the western tradition of Christianity;
3. there is no fundament to consider an autonomous "educational ideology" out of the liberal ideology of modernity. Social construction of education, especially in the 19th century European cultural context, can be seen as a desacralised myth of faith in progress and human improvement built on an effective process of progressive rationalisation of educational knowledge and school organisation.

The particular experience of the Portuguese liberalism in the 19th century assumes some characteristics that help us understand the external influences on the process of formation of the national education system:

1. A peripheral and backward European society aiming to recuperate the old wealthy economy of the past, where the idea of material progress and generalised public education were the keys to open the doors to prosperity.
2. Portugal must be considered among old nation-states with secular traditions of independence, cultural, religious and ethnic homogeneity, features that would apparently facilitate the diffusion and expansion of the western models of modern education.
3. However, after 75 years of education reforms, evidence shows a structural distance between the ideological discourse of the elites about education, mostly influenced by the French liberalism and republicanism, and the lowest school enrolment compared with other European countries for the same period. This is what Soysal and Strang (1989, p. 187) defined as "rhetorical construction of education" common to southern European countries like Spain, Italy and Greece.
4. Considering this *problematique* we will try in this paper to identify and systematise the forms of political discourse and narratives on the purposes and the basis of primary education and the curriculum structure conveyed in the texts of the reforms of public instruction in Portugal. The central question is how far the "rhetorical construction of education" is an expression of liberal ideological conceptions or/and a process of mimetic adoption of a pre-existing "educational model" based on a rationalised curriculum organisation and content.

2   The education reform discourse and the methodology

Our documentary corpus consists of the legitimating discourses of primary education expressed in the preambular texts of the education reforms during the Portuguese Liberalism, except for the reform of 1844 where we have used the supporting Report of the bill submitted by the Câmara dos Deputados (Chamber of Deputies) on 7th March 1842 and that formed the basis of the reform as there was no preambular text. In the research we have conducted for the reforms of 1878 and 1897 we did not find any preambles or supporting reports. A lexical and categorical corpus was built in order to allow the identification of the fundamental concepts of each regulatory text and, from such concepts, the ideological conceptions associated with the legitimation of the political action. As methodology we have privileged content analysis, using the theme as a unit record and the computer software MaxQda for categorisation and lexical search. The results are summarised in the following two tables:

TABLE 1: Themes and subthemes of the legitimating discourse of the reforms of primary education of the Portuguese Liberalism.

	1835	1836	1844	1870	1894	1901
Social order						
Individual Safety	X					
Safeguarded property	X					
Liberty and Peace of Individuals	X		X	X		
Individual/National Improvement						
Material Improvement	X		X	X	X	X
Intellectual Improvement	X	X	X	X		X
Moral Improvement	X	X	X	X		X
Physical Improvement				X		
Political Order						
Obedience to liberal Institutions	X		X	X		
Citizenship			X	X		X
National Consciousness				X		
Independence of the Nation					X	X

Fource: The authors.

TABLE 2: Conceptual and lexical occurrences of the primary education Reforms of the Portuguese Liberalism

Lexicon	1835	1836	1844	1870	1894	1901	Total
Instruction	11	1	280	54	23	54	423
Education	1	-	60	25	2	7	95
Nation	4	1	39	19	2	7	72
Moralisation	3	1	60	4	-	5	73
Development	2	-	35	6	4	8	55
Civilisation	1	1	44	4	-	9	59
Industrial	-	-	72	1	-	1	74
Portuguese	-	1	28	16	1	4	50
Enlightenment	2	-	44	1	2	-	49
Progress	5	-	3	6	1	3	18
Improvement	-	1	27	1	-	3	32
Freedom	2	-	8	6	-	6	22
Citizen	6	-	7	2	2	1	18
Science	1	-	9	2	-	2	14

Fource:The authors.

3   The first reforms: freedom, order and citizenship

The decree of 7th September 1835, from the Minister of education Rodrigo da Fonseca Magalhães establishes the first reform of public primary schooling. This reform is in force only for a few months, being replaced by the Decree of 15th November 1836 from the new minister of education Manuel da Silva Passos. The reform of 1835 is legitimised in a long preambular text that remained unpublished until the present days (MR, 1835, Folder 2126)

This document reveals the 3 themes of the legitimating discourse of public primary education in Portugal in the 1830s. As we can see from TABLE 1, only the first reforms of primary education include the theme of "Social order" and, mainly, the reform of 1835 where this theme is exclusively present in the subthemes of "Individual safety" and "Safeguarded property" showing a greater concern with social control, justified by the very weakness of the political regime after the Civil War of 1832-34. This justifies the fact that the theme "Political order" is centred on the subtheme of "Obedience to liberal institutions".

In these two pieces of legislation, primary schooling is understood as an instrument of social and political integration of the members of society. Education is considered as the vital pillar of freedom and order that the new liberal regime intended to consolidate. School knowledge is restricted to minimum knowledge aiming at "introducing childhood in society" and structured in a single level of education. The mastery of basic skills was essential for the creation of "useful" citizens, granting them autonomy and moral responsibility, without which the regime would be difficult to

consolidate itself. The idea that the liberal regime could only survive with a population educated by the public school summed up the main concern of the political elites.

4   Moral, intellectual and material progress: the reform of 1844

The third reform of primary schooling of 28th September 1844, introduced by the Minister of Education António Bernardo Costa Cabral, has its roots in Bill no. 67, which was presented in the Câmara dos Deputados on 3rd March 1843 and discussed on 10 and 11 May. This reform is the most stable of 19th century - it was in force for 26 years – and the one that presents higher support for its purposes:

"[A] representative Monarchy would be inconsequent and highly responsible if it did not popularised education, if it did not open the door of human knowledge to all social classes, if it did not spread throughout the people, who make a living from their labour and industry, the means to improve that same industry and make that labour more profitable. […] Moreover, labour and industry are the great element of civilization, and the wealth of the Nations, and the former must be free and expeditious, and the latter enlightened and intelligent so that both are fruitful. To achieve this great result the so-called industrial schooling must be generalised among people" (DCP, 1843, p. 113)

The reform of 1844 unequivocally introduces, for the first time, the association of public instruction with the conception of progress, understood as the moral, intellectual and material improvement of individuals and society. The idea is to train workers that are useful to the material progress of the country, specially equipped with knowledge and professional skills capable of delivering material improvements, particularly in the areas of agriculture and industry.

This concern with the education of citizens, but also of "enlightened" professionals, led to the organisation of the curriculum into two levels of education – the first with elementary subjects, the second with subjects directed at vocational training. Hence, the introduction of Geometry applied to industry and Bookkeeping to the curriculum, subjects considered as "necessary knowledge and of great use in the different industries".

5   Scientific culture and rationalisation of the curriculum.

The reform of primary schooling of 16th August 1870, introduced by António da Costa, highlights the theme of "Individual/national Improvement", being the only reform that mentions the subtheme of "Physical improvement". This is translated into the permanent inclusion of Gymnastics and Popular Hygiene in the curriculum: "The absolute necessity of education and instruction of the people is based on physical, moral and intellectual conveniences, on the political and social order, and finally on the development of work and the economy" (Decree of 16th August 1870, 1871, p. 478).

This legal document includes an innovation, which will remain in force until the reform of 1897, related to a considerable extension of school knowledge. In the male school curriculum, it broadens the subjects related to vocational training by introducing sciences like Surveying and rural, industrial, artistic and commercial Economy, and the Natural Sciences such as the "Natural history of the three kingdoms of nature" that introduces students to the country's natural resources and proposes ways to use them.

6   National identity and simplification of the curriculum

In the reforms of primary schooling of 22nd December 1894, introduced by João Franco, and the reform of 24th December 1901, introduced by Hintze Ribeiro, the novelty in the legitimising discourse of primary education is the absence of the theme "Social Order" and the introduction of the subtheme "Independence of the nation" in the "Political order" theme. The emergence of the nationalist discourse in education gains strength against the humiliation caused by the British Ultimatum (1890), reflecting the painful national awakening caused by that event. Now the purpose of contributing to a "civilised" country, but also "autonomous" with the capacity of building its own path, is asserted.

"These are, in general, the main provisions of this decree, where we have placed all our goodwill to correct, by improving when possible, the different branches of primary education, the essential basis of prosperity and independence of the nation. Many of the teachers' complaints have been answered; in the organisation of regulations and programmes needed for the implementation of this law, the most sacred interests of education will be equally safeguarded, interests that must be so dear to those who know and want to boost the progress of their territory, as a civilised and autonomous country" (Decree 24th December 1901, 1902, p. 1235)

The scenario of an economic, financial and political crisis aroused nationalist feelings and led the government to adjust its conception of primary education to the harsh reality of a backward country, dominated by the illiteracy of its population and disappointed with the march of progress that had not been able to break free from the dominant cultural atavism. It was within this context that the reform of 1901 undertakes to simplify the organisation of the curriculum by considerably decreasing the different branches of school knowledge but keeping the "modern" areas, as a result of their inappropriateness to the social and cultural reality of the country.

"We expressly limit the teaching of the mother tongue to the elementary and practical knowledge of the principles of grammar, and regarding arithmetic, whose usefulness is so real, we guide its study in order to facilitate the solution of simple everyday problems, as this is the common application of numbers. We only cut the crafts, as it is difficult to establish a technical education among us, as it has been the fact in most countries where their implementation has not yet passed the paper, with the exception of a few schools especially open for that purpose. It can even be said that, for the same level of instruction, our programmes will not be far short from those in use in the most advanced nations " (Decree 24th December 1901, 1902, p. 1230).

7   Conclusion

In all the reforms and parliamentary debates on education during the liberal period, the sources of inspiration are easily identified: the European political and educational reality transmitted through the works of authors who are mostly French. From the invocation of political leaders like Guizot to the reference to the works of Victor Cousin – particularly his reports on educations in the German states and the Netherlands – and Émile Girardin. The discourse on education denounces the guiding principles of the reforms, but their support is based on the ideological pillars of the European liberalism. The public school is always understood as an instrument of consolidation of the regime and as a support for the material, intellectual and moral progress of the nation.

The thesis of the influence of a common "educational model" and the "isomorphic convergence" does not find full evidence in the Portuguese experience of the 19th century, but it is closer to the conclusions of Tröhler, Popkevitz and Labaree when, regarding teaching and curriculum technologies, they highlight the fact that they have not risen from a single citizen model or ideal, but rather from the different historical experiences, particularly from the "competing visions about the social order that emerged in the new political philosophies about the relation of the individual to collective norms and values, and technologies often borrowed from previous religious pedagogical structures" (2011, p. 21). We suggest that the "educational model" is a product of "convergence", but even this is neither linear nor immune to different national historical experiences.

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The National Geography Curriculum for Basic Education in Portugal: Practices, Discourses and Changes.

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Abstract

In the last few decades, the concept of national curriculum for basic education in Portugal, in terms of political discourse, has been conceived first as a previously designed plan and then as a project, to being once again viewed as a plan today. These conceptions of curriculum have also been reflected in the design of the Geography Curriculum Guidelines.

This study intends to illustrate actual practices developed by geography teachers. It also intends to show just how radical the change in the Geography curriculum has been. From Flexible guidelines, that allowed the teachers to manage it according to the school's context, to guidance that transformed the learning process of Geography into a technical curricular activity with a unique design, ready for application, in accordance with centrally pre-established directives in a top-down administrative logic.

Keywords: Curriculum, Geography Curriculum for Basic Education, Discourses, Practices

1   Introduction

In the pedagogical field, the term curriculum, from the Latin word *currere*, has experienced different conceptions over the history of Education and, given its ambiguity and conceptual variability, it has either been defined as "a previously designed plan based on aims and purposes" (Pacheco, 1996, p.16), or "as a process resulting from the application of the said plan" (*ibidem*).

In Portugal, until the end of the 20th century, the curriculum was conceived as a set of universal national programmes. Associated to a disciplinary matrix rooted in the only scientific areas taught in school, the curriculum was translated into a written document which announced the intentions of education and teaching. The essential elements were defined at higher levels and the teachers were obliged only to serve as mere transmission chains of what was prescribed at national level in a universal manner (Leite, 2002).

With the Curriculum Reorganisation (CR) of 2001 (regulated by Decree-Law No. 6/2001, of 18th January), the curriculum comes to be regarded as a set of learning outcomes considered as necessary in a given context and time, and the sequences adopted with a view to their implementation or development. The goal was to "break with a view of curriculum as a sum of disciplines and a set of norms to enforce in a supposedly uniform manner in all classrooms, and to support, in a context of the schools' growing autonomy, the development of new practices of curriculum management" (Abrantes, 2001, p.34). A National Curriculum (NC) was devised at central level, centred on the set of learning outcomes students were required to achieve. It was also intended to be (re)configured by the teachers according to the environment of their schools and the students they were to teach.

At the beginning of the current decade, there is once again a shift in the concept of NC and, according to the Ministry, it should now be understood as "the set of contents and aims that, appropriately articulated, are to form the basis for the organisation of education and the assessment of the students' performance" (D.L.nº139/2012). This legal document establishes that the curriculum is implemented on the basis of study plans and the knowledge and abilities to be acquired and developed by the students. They take as their reference the disciplines' programmes and the learning goals to be achieved in each schooling year and cycle of studies. The Goals establish that which we can

consider as the essential learning students are required to accomplish and constitute the referential for teachers, parents and guardians (*ibidem*).

This is a political discourse on the conception of the curriculum which is different to the previous one, and the focus falls again on the students' cognitive development, taking as a reference the formal learning aims and contents as established in the curriculum programmes and learning goals.

As a consequence of these conceptions of curriculum, Geography Programmes and Geography Curriculum Guidelines (GCG) were designed, and we will here describe their main guiding principles.

This study intends to illustrate actual practices developed by geography teachers. It also intends to show just how radical the change in the Geography curriculum has been. From Flexible guidelines, that allowed the teachers to manage it according to the school's context, to guidance that transformed the learning process of Geography into a technical curricular activity with a unique design, ready for application, in accordance with centrally pre-established directives in a top-down administrative logic. We will then draw a few final considerations.

2 Geography Programmes and Curriculum Guidelines following the different conceptions of curriculum

With the Curriculum Reform of the 1980s and 1990s, the Geography programmes for the 7th and 9th grades were reformulated, and they contained themes, contents, specific aims, and strategies. In the study plans for basic education - 3rd cycle, Geography was absent in the 8th grade of schooling. Students would first come into contact with the subject in the 7th grade, and would only return to the subject in the 9th grade.

With the Curriculum Reorganisation of 2001, the subject is present in all schooling years, included in the area of the social sciences. The design of the Geography Curriculum Guidelines (GCG) assumed that, at the end of Basic Education (BE), students should be geographically competent. That is, upon concluding BE, the student should be able "to master spatial skills and be capable of spatially visualising the facts, relating them amongst themselves, to correctly describe the environment in which he/she lives or works, to prepare a mental map of that environment, to use maps of different scales, to understand spatial patterns and compare them with others, to be able to find their way on the terrestrial surface (…), to critically interpret and analyse geographical information and understand the relationships between territorial identity, culture, heritage and regional individuality" (ME-DEB, 2001, p.107). The guidelines were designed to include actions to be performed by teachers and intended to promote educational experiences, with a view to developing competences in research. And, to this end, the teachers' mission consisted in developing experiences such that students would have the opportunity to learn to observe, to record, process information, raise hypotheses, formulate conclusions, and present results. In order to become geographically competent through geographical education, the students should learn to answer questions such as: "Where is it located?, Why is it located there?, How is it distributed?, What are its characteristics?, What is its impact?. And how should it be managed to the mutual benefit of mankind and the environment? (*ibidem*). It was assumed that the "search for answers to geographical questions implies research into the location, situation, interaction, spatial distribution and differentiation of phenomena on the earth's surface" (*ibidem*). Thus, the official documents conveyed the decision to group the competences into three domains: The Location, The Knowledge of Places and Regions, and the Dynamism of the Interrelations among Spaces. Different learning experiences were suggested and the competences were to be developed over the course of the three levels of Basic Education. The teachers were responsible for organising the teaching-learning process in the way they saw most appropriate to the contexts of their school and class, giving students the opportunity to accomplish activities which enabled them to develop competences on knowing how to think about space and being able to take action in the environment in which they live.

It was upheld that geographical education, in its conceptual dimension, enabled the understanding and application of concepts such as space, territory, place, region, environment, location, geographical scale, geographical mobility, spatial interaction and movement, as well as establish relations among them. In its instrumental dimension, it encouraged the development of skills related with direct observation, with the use, drawing and interpretation of maps, the interpretation of photographs, and the graphic and cartographic representation of statistical data, always with the aim of integrating the different features of places in a spatial context, so as to develop the process of knowing the World. Thus, the two dimensions of geographical education played a formative role contributing to a greater awareness of citizenship.

Based on a central organising theme, "Discovering Portugal, Europe and the World", the GCG defined six main topics around it, and their management was intended to focus more on the interpretative aspects of the different educational experiences than on the descriptive aspects of the programme contents. It was the teachers' responsibility to define the strategies required to implement and develop the NC, based on the themes defined, adapting their decisions to the context of each school and class. The programme themes could be studied separately or in an integrated manner. Their distribution over the three years of the 3rd cycle of basic education should be articulated with the schools' and classes' curricular projects, without ever neglecting the logic of the cycle.

The GCG also set out the methodology to be followed, which was to always have the case study as its basis, that is, teachers should employ concrete examples, at local, regional or national level, taking Portugal as a reference, and two countries that could be considered similar and/or contrasting examples selected from an established list. The world scale should be used mainly in the study of phenomena that could only be understood at global level, such as the major mountain ranges, the major rivers, the distribution of world climates, vegetation formations and the population.

Within the methodology to be applied in teaching this science, there was a concern with designing a NC based on a set of open themes, which could be managed locally in the context of each school and each class. Teachers were able to interpret them and configure the geography curriculum according to local specificities. Hence, the GCG were articulated with the directives of the Flexible Management of a National Curriculum which was intended to also be thought locally, fostering the idea that it be regarded as a project. Calling upon the subject's teaching methodology, based on case studies and conducting the teaching-learning process at different scales of analysis, local, regional, global, the national curriculum enabled a local curriculum to be configured which was able to foster successful achievement by students, who were necessarily different, in a school intended for all.

The Decree-Law No. 139/2012, of 5th July, institutionalised the curriculum goals and, although the GCG's central theme, "Discovering Portugal, Europe and the World" is maintained, the topics set around it are now called Domains, and are ordered in a hierarchical and sequential manner the domains are divided into subdomains and general aims which are specified in meticulous descriptors of cognitive performance which enable the assessment of the formulated aims.

Two domains have been set for each schooling year, for the 7th, 8th and 9th grades. Seven subdomains have been identified for the 7th grade, with 33 general aims and 128 descriptors, while the 8th grade has 12 subdomains, 40 general aims and 155 descriptors. Learning goals for the 9th grade have yet to be approved. In sum, many aims and descriptors have been ordered hierarchically, which have to be taught in only two academic years, bearing in mind that Geography classes are only 90 minutes a week in terms of hour load. These learning goals do not in any way seem feasible. It will be almost impossible to teach the subject and develop skills related with direct observation, the use, drawing and interpretation of maps, interpretation of images, cartographic representation, statistical data, with the aim of integrating knowledge and features of the places in a spatial context and develop a process of knowing the world. It will be very difficult for students in Portuguese schools to learn based on a teaching-learning process where, by discovery, they are motivated to educate themselves geographically. That is, to know how to discuss real, social and dynamic issues, that can be applied (Hugonie, 1989). It will be very difficult for the students to experience teaching-learning situations which will enable them to answer basic questions which geographers have always sought the answers to: Where is it located?, How is it distributed spatially?, What factors have contributed to its location and distribution?, What are its characteristics?, What are its impacts on society?. What we can foresee instead is the teaching of geography focused on the mere memorisation of facts and concepts, setting it at a distance from that which is today understood as what should be taught to young people. Once again, it will be the preponderance of the teacher as consumer of the curriculum and not its configurator.

From GCG based on educational experiences to be provided to the students, establishing a set of specific competences which can lead them to think about space and to take action in the environment in which they live, we now have GCG that are centred on the students' cognitive performance.

3   Modes of teaching practice developed by teachers

A decade has gone by since the conception of the GCG as prescribed by the Curriculum Reorganisation to our days. In a recent study, we gave voice to the GCG's authors, to teacher trainers and to teachers themselves, on the modes of teaching practice developed, based on interviews and class diaries (Martins, 2011).

The authors' opinion was unanimous that in terms of practices, routines had been developed, although they had verified that teachers had generally failed to adopt the modes of pedagogical practice required by a curriculum that asks the teachers to abandon their traditional role. In the authors' view, for the teachers it is important that they teach contents in class, and there is no management of the curriculum as specified in the GCG. They continue to resort to textbooks, which have become structuring elements in the process of curriculum development and the teachers do not ultimately adapt them to the local realities and to their students.

On the other hand, the teacher trainers we interviewed, apart from showing some receptivity to the NC, revealed a degree of scepticism as to the whole process as it has been implemented in schools and by the Ministry. They feel they are self-taught and isolated within the schools and, having been confronted with the change, they drew on their personal experience, admitting they knew very little or nothing about it. Possessing the necessary qualifications and knowledge to follow a teaching career, the majority did not take sufficient command of them, such that they would be able to deconstruct and transform them in accordance with their students. Even though there were teachers among the group we interviewed who did adapt the curriculum locally, it was not a general trend. It was however generally held that the NC has limitations, seeing as what really matters it that students learn, since life is made of tests. With few exceptions, these teachers almost always considered that there had not been sufficient information or training, and assumed a passive role, as mere executors of programmes.

When we gave voice to the teachers about their practices, we found teachers who organised their classes following a predominantly conductor-like/technical line. They would prepare their classes developing strategies and resources in which they always played a central role, leading the teaching-learning process, intended for students to learn the contents, resorting to the revision of subject-matter dealt with in previous classes, and basing homework on the textbook and the activities books. But we also found teachers who applied strategies and resources aimed at fostering the students' participation, seeking emancipation and free initiative. They would do so by previously organising research works and creating situations which would lead students to constructing their own knowledge.

4   Conclusion

At the end of the 20th century, political discourse in Portugal on the curriculum formulated a conception of a study plan centred on the structure of knowledge within the so-called classical disciplines, which should be transmitted to the younger generations by teachers who complied with previously established purposes. The students were required to follow a structured path in the construction of learning, being practically ignored as people.

At the turn of the century, the discourse shifted to a conception of curriculum understood as a set of educational experiences to be experienced by the students in the school context, which has a flexible dimension in accordance with the situations and circumstances of its application. It is understood as a learning process conceptualised on the basis of ideas of a project in permanent construction, according to the local contexts and participants involved.

However, this conception of curriculum in terms of discourses changed rapidly and, a decade later, the concept shifts back to a plan centred on contents and aims to be achieved, now institutionalised with the Learning Goals.

This back and forth in discourses on the conception of curriculum, either as a plan or as a process resulting from the application of that plan, has profoundly marked the programmes and the GCG in the last three decades.

We are however aware that this is not the case in terms of practices. Based on the study we conducted, it seems that, although the GCG resulting from the Curriculum Reorganisation were designed from scratch, by a team at the origins of the NC for basic education, few changes were made in terms of practices, according to the teachers we interviewed. The Geography teaching-learning process continued to be predominantly accomplished following a conductor-like/technical line. Very few teachers actually (re)interpreted the NC and the GCG.

With the application of the learning goals, as they have been defined, we believe that the few teachers who (re)interpreted the GCG and developed strategies and resources aimed at fostering the students' participation, seeking their emancipation and free initiative, are going to face serious restrictions. It will be very difficult for them teach geography in such a way as to encourage the students to think about space and to take action in the environment aware of their mission as citizens.

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A Discourse of Teacher Autonomy: Changes in the Estonian Public School Curriculum of 1996, 2002, 2011.

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Abstract

Teacher autonomy as a desired professional quality of modern teachers is related to the increasing awareness of the importance of teachers' roles in educational planning. The latter goes back to the 1970s and the enthusiasm for school-based curriculum development (SBCD) in Western countries. In Estonia curricula had been strongly centralized during the Soviet time, thus the requirement for each school to develop their own curriculum that appeared in the first after-war national curriculum of 1996 was a very big change for Estonian teachers. Some critics said that the change happened only on paper first but the real changes did not occur until much later. However, it is often the discourse that starts shaping social practices.

In the following paper teacher autonomy is defined as related to both professional action and professional development; each has three aspects: 1) self-directedness 2) capacity 3) freedom from control. There are two sides of the coin. Therefore, one cannot study autonomy without studying control. Since curriculum is one of the central normative documents guiding teachers' work the language used in the curriculum can have a powerful influence on teachers. Thus, the discourse of teacher autonomy and control was studied in the Estonian curricula of 1996, 2002 and 2011. The study is based on the discourse-historical approach of critical discourse analysis (Reisigl, & Wodak, 2009).

The results of study show discursive changes in understanding autonomy; while the 1996 curriculum emphasizes the change of teachers' and school's professional role and increased autonomy and responsibility, the next curriculum institutionalizes autonomy and stresses teachers' duties. The recent curriculum mitigates teachers' agency by substituting teachers by "learning environment."

Keywords: teacher autonomy, control, discourse, curriculum

1 Introduction

Teacher autonomy as a desired professional quality of modern teachers is related to the increasing awareness of the importance of teachers' roles in educational planning. The realization that teachers cannot relate the externally imposed curriculum in a meaningful way to their students (Dewey, 1966) and that every centrally designed curriculum reform is doomed to fail if the practical experience of teachers is not taken into account during curriculum planning (Schwab, 1970, Law, Galton, & Wan, 2007:143, Westbury, 2008:46) led to the changing role of teachers from curriculum implementers to curriculum developers (Sabar, 1991). The latter goes back to the 1970s and the enthusiasm for school-based curriculum development (SBCD) in UK, US, Australia and Israel (Westbury, 2008). In order to adapt centralized curriula to the needs of local schools and students or to create new programs and materials teachers needed to be granted more autonomy. However, the autonomy given to teachers has varied in most Western countries with the change of challenges faced by the society and the change in politics. At the end of the 1980s a new wave of centralization and standardization of education started in many countries leading to tighter control of education and less freedom for teachers in interpreting the curriculum according to their own pedagogical preferences (Pinar, 2004; Ball, 2006).

In Estonia, curricula had been strongly centralized during the Soviet time (1945-1991), thus the requirement for each school to develop their own curriculum in a joint effort of teachers that appeared in the first post-soviet national curriculum of 1996 was a very big change for Estonian teachers. Teachers had been used to the top-down decision-making and clearly prescribed curricular content and had to take now the responsibility for making independent decisions. Some critics said that the curriculum change happened only on paper first but the real changes did not occur until much later. Despite the conceptual change in the overall rationale of the curriculum towards more autonomy the subject syllaby of 1996 curriculum remained tightly prescribed and overloaded with content (OECD, 2001).

In the following paper teacher autonomy is defined as related to both professional action and professional development; each has three aspects: 1) self-directedness 2) capacity 3) freedom from control. (Smith & Erdoğan, 2008: 84) First, teachers need to have sufficient freedom to direct their own work and make their own plans, then they need to have the professional skills and resources in order to be able to profit from the given autonomy, and last, the given freedom should not be reversed by excessive control. Since there are two sides of the coin, one cannot study autonomy without studying control.

The autonomy of schools must be seen in a global context of decentralization of education as an attempt of making more efficient use of locally managed resources and empowering local governments, communities, school leaders and teachers by encouraging inclusive democratic decision-making. The decentralization researcher Rhoten (2000: 602) speaks about two waves of decentralization: the first at the end of the 1980s was mainly driven by calculations of financial efficiency and the second wave in the 1990s emphasized the democratic aspect of decentralized governance. In Estonia, the decentralization of education is associated with the transition to democratic governance and market economy which took the form of neoliberalism by the end of the 1990s (Toots, 2009, 64). School autonomy has been used by the politicians as a slogan that conjures up democratic decision-making and local empowerment (Marsh, 2010, 288). However, behind that slogan the central questions of this research arise: How empowered are teachers in Estonia by the curriculum? What kind of autonomy do they have and how is their work controlled?

Teacher autonomy can be studied on several levels: the political or legislative level, the organizational level of school, cultural and social expectations and the individual teacher's level. Since curriculum is one of the central normative documents guiding teachers' work the language used in the curriculum can have a powerful influence on teachers and also reveal the guiding ideology of curriculum-makers on the political level. Thus, this research is focused on the study of discourse of teacher autonomy and control in the Estonian curricula of 1996, 2002 and 2011 for general education schools. The aim of studying three consecutive curricula is to detect changes in rhetoric which may indicate changes in ideology.

2 Method

In order to critically study teacher autonomy and control in Estonian national curricula the method of critical discourse analysis (CDA) was used. CDA is an interdisciplinary field between critical linguistics and social sciences. It conceptualizes languages (discourse) as a form of social practice or behavior and tries to make people aware of the mutual influences of language and social structure (Titscher et al., 2000: 147). In educational settings the method has a strong potential in examining more subtle or covert power relations and the related ideologies which manifest themselves by a certain use of language.

Discourses can only be understood in their historical context and they are intertextually connected to other discourses. This study follows the discourse-historical approach (DHA) of critical discourse analysis (Reisigl, Wodak, 2009) which is based on a three-dimensional model: first, the contents or topics of a specific discourse are identified, then discursive strategies are investigated and last, linguistic means and linguistic realizations are examined. The research is carried out following five questions:

1. "How are persons, objects, phenomena/events, processes and actions named and referred to linguistically?
2. What characteristics, qualities and features are attributed to social actors, objects, phenomena/events and processes?
3. What arguments are employed in the discourse in question?
4. From what perspective are these nominations, attributions and arguments expressed?

5. Are the respective utterances articulated overtly; are they intensified or mitigated?" (Reisigl, & Wodak, 2009: 93)

Based on the five questions five discursive strategies are examined: nomination, predication, argumentation, perspectivization/framing or discourse representation; and intensification/mitigation. The analysis of Estonian national curricula was limited to the so-called "general part" of the curriculum which comprises the rationale for education at the general education schools including the philosophical background, values, rights and duties of the school staff and other important information without the specifics of the school subjects. Therefore the study does not answer the question as to what differences there are in the scope of autonomy of different subject teachers. Instead, emphasis is put on how the curriculum defines teachers and their activities or their rights and duties. Since the 2011 curriculum separates for the first time the basic school from the upper secondary school there are actually four curricula under scrutiny: 1996, 2002 and 2011 curriculum for basic school and for the upper secondary school.

3 Results

The discourse analysis of Estonian general education curricula points to a paradoxical development of the concept of autonomy. While the autonomy of schools has gradually increased since 1996 the position and agency of teachers has actually weakened and their individual autonomy decreased. These developments are illustrated by the changes in the language of curriculum.

3.1 Nomination

In 1996 the curriculum refers 18 times to teachers, 16 times in 2002, 10 times in the basic school curriculum of 2011 and only 3 times in the upper secondary school curriculum of 2011. Gradually, "teachers" are replaced by other agents or abstract terms used as subjects such as "schools", "school staff", "school family", "teachers' council" or "learning environment."

Agency of subjects is often emphasized by the use of transitive verbs. However, constructs like "teachers choose" and "teachers decide" which emphasize teacher autonomy and agency in the curriculum of 1996 disappear in the next curricula where such active expressions of agency are only granted to the schools. The 2002 curriculum states clearer than before the duties of teachers, such as the obligation of compiling the lesson plans for each class or keeping the motivation of students high, never mentioning any choices or independent decisions. Instead, emphasis is put on school autonomy which is understood as collective decision-making involving teachers, school leadership, students and parents as opposed to individual freedom. The 2002 curriculum seems to have the most normative character compared to earlier and later versions.

Although teachers are required to participate in the process of school-based development it is still not clear who is meant when the curriculum refers to the decisions of schools. Could it be that school autonomy means in some contexts only the autonomy of school leadership? For instance the 2002 curriculum states that requirements for the lesson plans are stated in the school curriculum. However, it is unlikely that teachers may decide what these requirements are, even though theoretically they should be consulted in all phases of SBCD.

Thus, the autonomy of teachers is difficult to separate from the autonomy of schools and it seems that the curriculum is intentionally vague about the role of school leadership and teachers. According to the curriculum of 1996 teachers can decide about assessment forms and criteria, forms of instruction, methods and integration of subjects. The 2011 curriculum adds to this indirectly decisions about materials, field trips and projects. The choices of schools include the evaluation system, forms of study, emphasized study areas, elective courses (since 2002) and topics of the new individual project of students, called "creative work" introduced by the 2011 curriculum for basic schools. Special attention in the 2011 curriculum is given to the special needs students by granting schools considerable freedom regarding their assessment. This freedom is expressed by frequent use of the modal verb "may" which appears 31 times in the basic school curriculum. However, sometimes it is not clear if the "may" is voluntary or just a euphemism for strong recommendation.

3.2 Predication

The characteristics given to teachers in the 1996 curriculum are the role of a "guide, supervisor and encourager" who plan and create learning activities and cooperate with other teachers, students and parents. Especially the cooperation with others is an emphasized quality in the 2002 curriculum. It also introduces the concept of "learning environment" which defines teaching as "organizing of learning environment and learning activities of students". The 2011 upper secondary school curriculum takes the role of learning environment one step further and attributes to it agency by itself: "Learning environment supports the development of students in active learners, carries the basic values and school spirit and maintains and develops the local and school traditions." According to this definition it seems that once the learning environment is created the teacher can stand back and is not needed since the "environment" takes care of basic duties of teachers.

This tendency of mitigation of teachers' agency in the three subsequent curricula is somewhat reversed in the basic school curriculum of 2011 which states that teachers are the "key persons" in developing the attitudes of students. This can be seen as a reaction to the heated debates in Estonia about the ethical crisis in society and the role of schools in moral education of students and in creating shared values. Estonian schools were criticized for having focused only on transmitting knowledge and not using their potential of building the character of students (Sutrop, Valk, & Velbaum, 2009).

3.3 Perspectivization

The way teachers' activities are described in all studied curricula indicates a strong social-constructivist view on education with emphasis on learning instead of teaching. The influence of other discourses on prescribed duties for teachers can be studied in the example of the 2002 curriculum which emphasizes individualized lesson plans for each class and retaining the motivation of students. This can be interpreted as an influence of the hegemonic life-long learning discourse introduced by the Lisbon strategy in 2000 by the Commission of the European Union. Born of the desire to make the economy of European Union the most competitive knowledge-based economy in the world the ideas of society accommodating the personal choices of people and the necessity for motivation for life-long learning were emphasized in order to achieve full employment (Lisbon European Council, 2000). The discourses of life-long learning and knowledge-based society are considered to be a product of neoliberal ideology since they stress as the ultimate goal of society economic competitiveness (Aava, 2010: 48). Another cause for stressing motivation of learners as one of the main tasks of teachers was the internationally worrisome rate of basic school drop-outs in Estonia (OECD, 2001: 75).

3.4 Argumentation

In the first place, curricula are not argumentative texts, rather they have normative character as they are legally binding. Therefore we cannot find full arguments that would contain the description of a situation that needs to be changed with several options how to do that followed by a decision for the better option that would lead to the expressed goal. Instead, we can find partial arguments or normative statements that justify the policy. Regarding teacher autonomy the 1996 curriculum is first arguing that the SBCD changes the role of teachers by requiring them to participate in the development process of the school curriculum and development plans, and grants more autonomy to the schools but also demands more accountability which is served as a prerequisite for trusting the schools with more autonomy. It also justifies the introduction of national standardized graduation exams for upper secondary schools in 1996 listing the benefits for students – nationally standardized graduation exam grades and graduation diplomas with a national quality assurance and unification of graduation exams with the entrance exams to the university. Although not stated as such and as a possibly unintended consequence of the neoliberal market-driven ideology, the standardized graduation exams became soon one of the primary tools for benchmarking schools and measuring teacher effectiveness which was encouraged by the ranking lists of schools created by media.

3.5 Mitigation

None of the curricula speaks overtly about teacher control. Still, it is understood that the requirement of compiling lesson plans, participating in the SBCD, student assessment, external evaluation of schools by comparative tests and teachers' self-evaluation can be regarded as measures of control. Most measures have an evaluative character driven by self-control of teachers and schools instead of overt inspectorship or other exercise of power. Especially the 2002 curriculum emphasizes the responsibility and accountability of teachers and schools. This does not mean that the inspectorship did not exist. Although not mentioned in the curriculum the systems of school-internal and external evaluation were developed in the early 2000s, school inspectors received training in cooperation with the English Office for Standards in Education OFSTED – which shows that the neoliberal education reforms in England served as an example for Estonia (OECD, 2001: 83, 84).

4 Conclusion

The study shows discursive changes in understanding autonomy; while the 1996 curriculum emphasizes the change of teachers' and school's professional role and increased autonomy and responsibility, the next curriculum institutionalizes autonomy as a concept of collective decision-making and stresses teachers' duties instead of liberties. At the same time the neoliberal rhetoric of life-long learning is recontextualized in the 2002 curriculum and teachers' agency is mitigated through the intensification of social-constructivist discourse which puts the learner in the center and gives the teacher the role of facilitator and coach. The recent curriculum of 2011 shows significant differences in teachers' role in basic school and upper secondary school. While basic school teachers are granted an important role in the moral education of students the upper secondary teachers are linguistically substituted by "learning environment". There is no overt control discourse, rather the self-control of teachers and schools is stressed. Teachers only seem to be empowered collectively, i.e. as a teachers' council. Alone, their autonomy is mainly restricted to choosing their teaching methods and materials. However, in order to get a more complete picture of teacher autonomy other sources of data should be investigated such as interviews with teachers and school leaders, school regulations and observations of school practices.

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Recognition of experience: Challenges for the Curriculum and assessment

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Abstract

This paper presents some results of a study developed with adults who did not follow formal curriculum courses, but look for the certification of their competences acquired throughout experience (Canário, 2006) in a New Opportunities Centre (NOC). New Opportunities Initiative (NOI) is intended to lower the lack of qualifications of the Portuguese adult population.

This study had the following aims: to analyze the practices of recognition, validation and certification of competences (RVCC) underlying NOI; to understand who/how/what is assessed from the experience and how prior learning and competences are highlighted; to understand how do assignments that were asked during the training by trainers and included in the Learning Portfolio evidence the life experiences and contribute to adults' certification.

We analyzed the curriculum course of these trainees: their (degrees of) participation / assessment in the development of the devices, used either to explore the experience or to certificate their competence; the influences of this process in their lives and the role of the team responsible for NOC. To this end, we held semi-structured interviews to adults and to the responsible for training, that, once transcribed, were submitted to content analysis (Bardin, 1995), as well as the Learning Portfolio.

In order to deepen this specific problematic, we conducted a case study in a NOC, located in the island of Madeira (Portugal). The participants were divided into two samples: responsible for the training; trainees/certified adults (elementary and secondary school).

The major results of our study show that the RVCC process has been in the translation, interpretation and meaning of knowledge and its recognition. The knowledge results from experience and this one has been reevaluated taking into account new experiences, which were balanced with past experiences.

*Keywords: adult education; assessment; competences acquired through experience; curriculum.

1   Introduction

This research work is part of a Ph.D. project in Educational Sciences, Curriculum Development, which took place from 2007 to 2011 at the University of Minho (Portugal). The project was center around the issue of recognition and validation of experiential learning, in the perspective of adult education. These new practices were registered into a paradigm of Education / Lifelong Training. They valued the informal and non-formal learning of adults that were acquired during their personal, social and professional journey (Pires, 2002).

The NOI was officially announced and launched in December 2005. It is a vast public sponsored program contemplating Accreditation of prior learning (APl), Recognition of prior learning (RPl) and adult education, targeted at the entire Portuguese low- skilled adult population (estimated at around 72% of the labour force below secondary studies, or circa 3.5 million adults according to the 2001 Population Census).

Barely five years after its announcement, about 450 New Opportunities Centers were put in place to operationalize the initiative at field level. These NOC registered a record of 1.6 million enrolments and have topped the impressive figure of 430,000 certifications (9th and 12th grades).

The New Opportunities Initiative was an innovative approach to motivate low-skilled adults to embark in a system of informal and non-formal skills recognition, accreditation and certification, with the complement of formal learning, to obtain 4th, 6th, 9th and 12th grades education diplomas or/and a vocational certification (Carneiro, 2011). The same author added that the initiative addressed two distinct areas of intervention: the qualification of youth (curbing the high rates of failure and drop-out from initial education and training systems) and the qualification of adults (improving access and encouraging participation of the labour force in training programs and vocational education).

Indeed, NOC was the result of several generations of researchers in this area. According to a central referential, "lessons learnt from the New Opportunities Initiative", the researcher Carneiro (2011) pointed the following goal of its paper: evaluative research can, and should, be widely used to improve the knowledge density and quality of public policy. So, this work was essential to evaluate the NOI.

In addition, Carlsen (2011) defended that the NOI was one of the largest governmental programs in recent decades to massively upgrade qualifications acquired. It demonstrates among others that recognition of prior learning (RPL) was crucial in order to improve competences needed in our societies today.

Even the last author defended that the example of Portuguese NOI could be followed by other countries, it's a fact that NOC's do not exist anymore and they were replaced by Centers for Qualification and Professional Teaching (Centros para a Qualificação e o Ensino Profissional, CQEP). The former was closed because of: the existence of too many NOC, the lack of financial structure from the Portuguese government, political needs' to support other measures, which can promote higher levels of employment (Agência Nacional para a Qualificação e o Ensino Profissional [ANQEP], 2012); besides the latter was planed to 2012/2013, it does not open yet. So, at the present time, CNO's trainees haven't a training / educational offer.

Recognition, validation and accreditation (RVA) of the outcomes of formal, non-formal and informal learning is crucial for making lifelong learning a reality. So, RVA provides a pragmatic approach to including new standards and competences in the education and training system in order to be able to participate in the fast changing societies we are living in (Carlsen, 2011).

The theoretical assumption of our research is that lifelong learning – from pre-school to postretirement – is "all learning activity undertaken throughout life, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competences within a personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspective" (Commission of the European Communities [CEM], 2001, p. 33).

And this is one of the nuclear NOC presuppositions, emphasizing others: centrality of the learner; importance of equal opportunities; quality and relevance of learning opportunities; coherent and comprehensive lifelong learning strategies (a partnership approach on collaboration for strategies to work; the needs of the learner are taking into account; an adequate resourcing, in terms of financing; a facilitate access of culture of learning by anyone, anywhere and at any time; mechanisms for quality assurance; evaluation and monitoring aim striving for excellence); priorities for action (valuing learning focus on the identification, assessment and recognition of non-formal and informal learning; information, guidance and counseling aim to facilitate the access and quality to learning; investing time and money in learning) (CEM, 2001).

According to Delors (n.d., p. 36) "in short, 'learning throughout life' must take advantage of all the opportunities offered by society".

We may infer about the adults' need for the acquisition of the key competencies for lifelong learning, because as stated by Europa [EU] (2011, p. 1) key competences

> "in the shape of knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to each context are fundamental for each individual in a knowledge-based society. They provide added value for the labour market, social cohesion and active citizenship by offering flexibility and adaptability, satisfaction and motivation. Because they should be acquired by everyone, this recommendation proposes a reference tool for European Union (EU) countries to ensure that these key competences are fully integrated into their strategies and infrastructures, particularly in the context of lifelong learning".

1.1 From the evaluation of NOI (view by experts) to the closure of NOC

Before the decision of political government to stop progressively the financial support to NOC thought its extinction in 2013, Carneiro (2011, p. 75) pointed some questions, that according to the author perspective the initiative: i) Why was NOI an exemplary case for other public sector reforms? "Because in the case of public sector innovation, knowledge can be the driver, not competition, as often heralded for business or corporate embedded change"; ii) Why was NOI a success story?

> "Because the evaluative research sheds new knowledge on how an innovative educational supply that is service- oriented successfully replaced an old school order that was industry-oriented. the potential demand was always there, low-skilled adults felt the frustration of incomplete schooling and the handicap resulting from insufficient or inadequate qualifications; however, only an appropriate supply, tailored to the adult population's needs and aspirations, coupled with leadership and effective institutional change management, allowed the spontaneous upsurge of a longstanding repressed demand for additional learning.

iii) Why was NOI a significant policy benchmark?

> "Because it is a unique experience by all international standards. NOI results are widely documented and the policy is strongly accountable. Strengths and weaknesses of the programme are systematically evaluated, subject to confirmation and/or correction in successive appraisal cycles. NOI bears witness to a policy innovative momentum leveraged by a flow of new knowledge and related recommendations resulting from evaluative research. Evidence gathered so far shows that NOI is also a powerful driver towards a lifelong learning model that works".

2   Approach and methodology

"Formal education systems tend to emphasize the acquisition of knowledge to the detriment of other types of learning; but it is vital now to conceive education in a more encompassing fashion" (Delors, n.d., p. 36). Then, NOC intend to solve the problem of qualification's lack among adults.

In this context, the research focused on specific targets, of which we emphasize: analyze the practices in the dispositive of recognition, validation and certification of competences. So, this research proposed an assessment system: who / how / what were able to assess from the experience and how prior learning and competences were evidenced? How did the works – that were asked during the training by RVC professionals and/or trainers and included in Reflective Learning Portfolio – depict the life experiences and contribute to adults' certification?

Based on this framework, we have elected the following issue: "to what extent do adult training approaches, that support theoretically the processes of recognition, validation and certification of competences, also frame the educational practices which intend to give this processes a continuity?". To deepen this specific problematic, we conducted a qualitative investigation, of descriptive and interpretative nature (Van der Maren, 1996), a case study in a NOC, located in the island of Madeira (Portugal). The investigation's participants were divided into two samples:

1. Responsible for the training (n = 12): 1 NOC Director (**D**) and 1 Coordinator (**C**), 3 RVC professionals (**P**), 4 RVC trainers (**F**) – in this study, the RVC trainer and the RVC professional were named by trainers –, 1 NOC Regional Coordinator (**CR**) and 2 external evaluators (**Av. E**);
2. Trainees / certified adults (**AC**) (n = 10), five who obtained the certification in elementary school, B3 level (AC6 to AC10) and five in secondary school (AC1 to AC5).

The main data gathering instruments were semi-structured interviews and Learning Reflexive Portfolios, as well as the legislation in force.

The documentary research was the data verifying and collecting method, giving a special focus on the Key Competences Referential (documents that orient the practices of RPL), not only to elementary school, but also to secondary school.

The data analysis technique was content analysis (Quivy & Campenhoudt, 2003), obtained mainly from interviews and portfolios. Social recognition, value of experience, regulation, autonomy / participation are the nuclear dimensions that were analyzed from the discourse of the interviewees and portfolios.

We analyzed a portfolio of each level, and designated it by PRA1 to the portfolio constructed by the adult of elementary school and PRA2 to secondary school one. In the RVCC process, the portfolio was the instrument that although "the subject of permanent (re)construction throughout the process" (Gomes et al., 2006, p. 49), it was while a "memory" / "summary of their learning" and an "author project" (Gomes et al., 2006, pp. 39-40); "organizes work and sets out the powers given by the candidate" (Gomes et al., 2006, p. 75), settling for such objectives and challenges, elements of portfolios were negotiated between the adult and the trainers and the choice was also significant in situations of learning, accounting clearly the skills acquired in formal, non-formal or informal contexts. Having in mind the principal three data gathering instruments, we defined our model to analyze them (in special, interviews and portfolios).

The pedagogical reference framework directly clarified the pedagogical choices, serving the integrated competence-based approach. The integrated reference guide for competences was a reference framework which defined the competences to be mobilized by adults before, during and after their training. By reference framework we meant an institutional, contextual projection as well as a projection for referentialization (Figari, 1996). The aim here was to define guidelines in terms of reference guides in order to develop not only a coherent, but also a dynamic pedagogical approach which could be updated according to the evolution of the society and the training. So, the reference guides for competences were used as tools for building integrated reference guides for training and assessment.
In this context, this research adopted the analysis model of Figari (1996), naming it by ICP, that means, induced (I), constructed (C) and produced (P). A content analysis of all interviews and Reflective Learning Portfolio was done according to four dimensions of our study, adapted to the reality of the RVCC processes.

The ICP model (Figari, 1996 cit. in Machado, 2007, p. 84) – see Table 1 – should be understood in a circularity relation, where the induced level (before the entrance of adults in NOC, that corresponded to value of experience dimension) leaded the level of the constructed (during their training, that could be interpreted by both dimensions: regulation and autonomy participation), which leaded to the level of produced (by the end of the training, after their certification, which were based on the dimension of social recognition); that, in turn, leaded us to the beginning of the process (induced), through new and renewed questions.

Table 1 – ICP model: adaptation to RVCC process

Levels	Management logic	Evaluation functions	Temporal sequence	Analysis context	Dimensions
Induced	. Project	. Diagnostic	. Before	. Individual . Social . Professional	. Value of experience
Constructed	. Learning	. Formative / Regulation	. During	. Institutional . Pedagogic	. Regulation . Autonomy / participation
Produced	. Product . Assessment	. Certification	. After	. Effects . Results	. Social recognition

3   Presentation and discussion of results

The third point introduces the results of the present investigation; having in mind, firstly, the dimension above and, secondly, the changes caused by RVCC process according to the assessment perception of subjects and the development of curricular areas.

3.1   Social recognition: importance and effects

In the case of adults' interviews (AC), we analyzed the social recognition and concluded on the reasons why adults enrolled in the NOC.

We found that the motives were of various kinds, justifying them with andragogy, which underlined for certain situations of adult learning (Knowles, 1989). The need-to-know were verbalized by that some adult (elementary and

secondary school), because they have left formal school early, proved by the need to further study and to complete the corresponding grade, whereas others showed interest in entering at University: "As we become aware of this problem, adult educators have been working at creating front-end learning experiences in which adults are helped to make the transition from dependent to self-directed learners" (Knowles, 1989, p. 83). The readiness to learn, following the previous situation, or the desire to (re) start the process of learning depended, in some cases, on their personal desires (or "dreams") and, in other cases, it could mean a better professional life, because of certification obtained. Thus, we corroborate Pires (2002), which argues that orientation to learning has shifted from a concentration on the matter to a concentration on the problem.

Adults considered this process as a unique opportunity to praise and enjoy, which were promoted by politicians; an idea verbalized in the interviews by adults of the two levels and recorded in PRA1. By the way, it seemed that adults had in mind that the New Opportunities Initiative could potentially take them to the metaphor of the door opening, which could symbolize a higher level of qualification and/or a possibility of academic and professional progression (Lopes, Cerol, Magalhães, & Carneiro, 2009) which is recognized not only as a dynamic of a personal self-realization, but also an affirmation of their social and professional lives.

So, as indicated by the investigation of Pires (2002), the self-concept could develop from a human personality dependent to a human self-directing, that in our study, also emerged as a kind of personal challenge, a (re)cognition of the person itself and what it meant. As Lopes et al. (2009), we considered that the main acquisition of NOC process could be related to aspects that increase the self-concept. The role of learner's experience seemed to assume the following paper: the adults of both levels faced themselves as individual persons with a unique life experience (Knowles, 1989), which is the main resource for carrying out the RVCC process, valuing lifelong learning of adults. They assumed the centrality of the subject and the continuity of educational process in space and time (Pires, 2007), because the experiential heritage of each person was the best resource in the implementation of new learning (Canário, 2006). Following the study of Pires (2002), despite the identification of external motivational factors (e.g. expectation of promotion), when they decided frequent to Centre, the major motivation of interviewed adults seemed to attend particularly their pressures and/or internal stimuli (personal and professional satisfaction, better life style and self-esteem).

Also according to the opinion of trainers and Regional Coordinator (CR), the major motivation that adults had to learn, in what concerned their frequency in NOC, resided in the stimuli of an internal nature. Therefore, we found that the frequency of adults in NOC was due, in the opinions of respondents, the reasons of an internal nature, with a focus on personal satisfaction and self-esteem, so trainers and CR used exactly this too terms. However, Knowles (1989, p. 85) referred the follow: "but that this motivation is frequently blocked by such barriers as negative self-concept as a student, inaccessibility of opportunities or resources, time constraints, and programs that violate principles of adult learning".

So, the study of Cavaco (2008, p. 565) note that "the policies and practices RVCC fit a broader strategy in which adults take responsibility for managing themselves, through the use of 'biographical solutions' (Lima , 2005, p. 54), to solve structural problems such as poor education of the Portuguese population and unemployment".
Otherwise, the portfolios witnessed the reasons why adults stop studying: it was a financial issue. This is a common situation to thousands of Portuguese adults, who had no economic resources, or state aid, they were limited to compulsory schooling. Then, the RVCC process may be considered a purpose/design, while an opportunity to increase the schooling of the adult population, as argued by the interviewees AC.
Regarding intrinsic expectations of adults, desires and/or needs of each one in advance, we concluded that the adults of two levels revealed that the other actors denounced certain respect for their own wishes, needs and expectations. However, the responses of the adults of secondary school were more hesitant compared to elementary one; we wonder that this was due to the fact of the latter were being certified for a longer time, which probably made the elementary team much more experienced. Besides, the adults of B3 level exposed two opposite levels of expectations: from the absence of pre-defined expectations, going through difficulty expectations in what concerned the RVCC process. Also the adults of secondary school shown to have different expectations about the RVCC process, which seemed to be fully satisfied, for most part of them. Another candidate of secondary school voiced that the process took too long, from enrollment to certification, which was due to the fact that there were few trainers for a large number of candidates.
The politicians seemed to accept these difficulties, revealing the existence of a representativeness degree at it on the national panoramic.

For the two levels (B3 and secondary school) – according to the moment of entrance on NOC, proposed in the model interpretation (Figari, 1996), which Table 1 reflects – the context of analysis was interpreted toward their individual,

social and professional realities; as well as their competences were submitted to a process of diagnostic evaluation because, according to Hadji (1994), this was the function of orientation and in the

> "most of the time he/she [trainer] is a listener, helping the adults to build the narration of their life path, asking questions, and guiding their reflection; sometimes the professional adopts a register of analysis, which is especially noticeable when he/she diagnoses the adults' competences based on the narration and the benchmarks; and also a register of influence may be adopted, when the adults are shown the analysis that the professional carried out, which is essential to make the adults aware of the competences they possess or can learn" (Cavaco, 2007, p. 28).

Following the sentences of the last author, in relation to the frequency of the RVCC process, adults expressed some satisfaction with the importance gave to their knowledge or competences acquired through experience, by trainers. However, one more time, the adult of elementary school felt more motivated compared to the candidates of secondary school: these last adults were the first to obtain the secondary school certification in NOC. The learning was supported in Key Competences Referential, in which neither the candidates of secondary school, nor the team responsible for the process in the RVCC knew its Referential very well.

3.2   Value of experience

Regarding the value of experiential learning and life histories, all adults of two levels noted the importance that the process of valuing the experience had on their personal and professional life. Similarly, the appreciation of the experiences and life stories seemed to us very visible in the portfolios, by the way that elementary and secondary school's adults wrote and described their lives with a certain sense of pride and enthusiasm. In turn, the role that trainer attributed to the adult experience, most mediators seemed to value the life experiences of adults, while the value of experience recognizing and professional experience do not appear so obvious.

Respondents felt that, during the RVCC process, the practices adopted by mediators not only valued their experiences / stories of life, but also made possible the mobilization of knowledge, demonstrated by readings and researches on certain subjects from some adults of the two levels. The act of writing, like reading, beyond helping the individual to design and develop their mental outlook, is also essential to the development of individual autonomy in a society dominated by the written language (Alonso et al., 2002).

The RVCC process also seemed to allow the re-structuring of ways of thinking as a way to be able to think the past to rebuild the future. Pires (2002) argued that, thought the experience, the subject established its relationship with the world, with others and he built itself, in order to the experience is at the center of all activity. For its part, Freire (1994) defended that the child's experience (from yesterday) and educational activity, thus politics, from the man (of today) must be constructed together.

According to Dewey (1971) there were two important principles of experience: the experiential continuity assumed that every experience carried something of the past experiences and modified, in some way, the subsequent experiments, leading to a continuous growth of education; and the interaction assumed that experience was what it was because a transaction had occurred between the individual and his environment.

We asked adults about the competences acquired through life and really recognized in the process and we realized (and we supported the adults answers) by the level of induced (Figari, 1996), which emerged as a picture and background image in much of the analysis to this issue (Table 1).

The awareness of competences acquired through experience resulted by the thoughts of adult, to show that and/or what adult was able to do. According to Pires (2002, p. 187), the RVCC process "requires [...] the responsibility of the person in a process of self-assessment, which is linked to identity issues, strongly increasing or weakening the image of itself". This is also confirmed in the Cavaco´s study (2008).

3.3   Assessment perception(s)

When we questioned adults about their views / perceptions about assessment, they revealed an assessment perception as a recovery of their own persons, through their life stories and work carried out to portfolios, insofar as

trainer guided them in order to their understanding of what they were intend to do, such was ahead narrated by Cavaco (2007).

This seemed to be a "dialectic paradigm of assessment", which questioned the traditional "construction of indicators"; and the acceptance of "classical methods" are not restricted to use the "uniform methods/instruments" in the assessment of the RVCC (Figari, 2008, p. 69).

So, during this formation – as propose into our interpretation of model of Figari (1996), Table 1 – the assessment of competences seemed to have completed a formative role / function, as a way of regulation (Allal, 1986; De Ketele, 1993; Alves, 2004), to the extent that the work proposed by professional and trainers of RVC were returned to adults for improvements (De Ketele & Roegiers, 1999), culminating into an disclosure of their competences, which were interpreted based on the institutional context and on Key Competences Referential, evidenced on portfolios (which assumed the guidelines of its Referential). Regarding the relation between assessment and life stories, we concluded about an assessment of practical know-how, which was witnessed in interviews and portfolios; because all works which were asked by the team, were based on personal or professional life of adults.

Based on De Ketele and Roegiers (1999), we asked whether the evaluation criteria were or were not present during the assessment process of the prior learning: with the exception of the criteria for improvement and quality of operation, the remaining criteria were present. The correction criteria, associated with the collection and critical analysis of information written, was the most frequently mentioned; followed by the judgment criteria and the satisfaction criteria, which denoted an assessment of the practical of know-how. Using the author's words (De Ketele, n.d.):

> "They are mainly based on strategies for social recognition, mechanisms for promotion and career patterns that change according to the related criteria for validating training activities and achieving proven results; the strategies also include attachment courses and missions, integration in a team that gives satisfaction, possibilities of publishing the results of individual works and sharing proceeds of consultancy services".

The behavioral criteria – which involved information given voluntarily by adults, as well as their own autonomy at work – was related to the know-being, in which the candidates were shown freedom to put their imagination (on) to work, to write his life into portfolios. The efficacy criteria reported to the quality of product: "They will help in meeting the challenges by establishing among themselves effective, efficient and equitable structures and forward-looking management processes" (De Ketele, n.d.). The criteria of orientation referred to the adults' guidance made by the trainer, so

> "the contents of knowledge whereas higher education is expected to reflect further on problems to be resolved in family terms and should therefore orientate training towards skills to be acquired (i.e. the capacity to mobilize a set of knowledge, know-how and behavior required in finding solutions to situations and problems facing a given 'family')" (De Ketele, n.d.).

Finally, on the selection criteria, the adults referred to the function of the final jury, the certification assessment. Talking about "self-assessment of education sector organisations" – regulation, learning and change," the referential (Melo & Reis, 2011, pp. 323-325), analyzed here, mentioned that even "some NOC did self-assess, and though the large majority declared that they did it, empirical evidence showed that these were not rigorous exercises", perhaps because of "no model or procedure for self-assessment was enforced and, though the central agency promoted some SWOT exercises". About regulation and accountability, it said that "the state establishes mechanisms of accountability by the organisations and promotes self-regulation aiming at organisational learning and continuous improvement". It means that "in the context of the NOI, self-assessment is not a question of promoting autonomy and improvement but of promoting improvement through autonomy"; and

> "in the context of self-assessment of the NOC, accountability […] going a step further, this account is complemented, or even overcome, by the act of giving account of what the organisation has learned about the way it operates and how it will improve. In the new paradigm, organisations are asked for smart accountability. The trend goes from accountability and improvement to accountability for improvement".

3.4 Autonomy / participation of adults

In what concerns the candidates' autonomy, it seemed clear the effective participation of the actors in all RVCC process, namely, the adults were participative and cooperative in the possible elaboration of devices / instruments used in Centers (because there are legal and national instruments, which are implemented and adapted to each NOC reality): adults were the one who mostly determined what was done and how it was done.

We concluded that the process of recognition, validation and certification of competences is located in the translation of the knowledge (the adult produces new knowledge, reflecting the earlier) and in recognition (not only by the authority that validates but also by the adult himself and others related).

Another study (Valente, Carvalho & Carvalho, 2011, pp. 161-162) seemed to corroborate the paragraphs ahead, when they referrer about the motivation for enrolling in the NOI: "in general, obtaining an additional degree later in life; a feeling of personal fulfilment; the adults' perceived 'value of education'; the initiative is considered as a strategic way to provide education and training for their low-skilled employees, with higher levels of personal involvement in the organisational development".

3.5 Development of curricular areas

For the further development of curricular areas, according to the study of Cavaco (2008, p. 572): "The problem situations are based on exercises that require the mobilization of a wide variety of competences, in various areas of knowledge (mathematics, Portuguese language, citizenship, information and communication technologies) in an attempt to test adult competencies".

We considered that the changes of the RVCC process made – either in personal life and/or professional, or in the relationship of the acquisition / validation of competences to solve daily problems –, were situated at the level of produced (Figari, 1996), that's to sat, the effects (what really happened before the certification). We could conclude that the RVCC process changed, essentially, the way adults saw themselves, increasing their self-esteem and it was a particular effect to their personal level, proved by the results of the interviews and also by the analysis of portfolios. Then, by the produced level (Figari, 1996) we linked the product, the final result, the most awaited moment by adults: so, being that moment subsequent to the action, they saw their competences certified by a certification / diploma (Table 1).

At this time, the assessment fulfilled, therefore, the function of certification, so it controlled acquisitions that took place at a particular time from the past (Pacheco, 1994), which was processed at the end of the process (De Ketele & Roegiers, 1999) and it was found to "to serve the function" to "know if certain person corresponds to the expected profile [...] for this function" (De Ketele & Roegiers, 1999, p. 57).

We also asked trainers about the proposed activities to highlight / evidence the experiences of adults, and we verified that practically all trainers said that the life stories allowed the mobilization of knowledge, the awareness of prior learning and the appropriation of experience. The restructuring of the thinking forms was less spoken.

So, the areas of training / curriculum construction - in which adults talked about the difficulties that they felt or not in fields of the Key Competences Area - were, in this investigation, understood in light of Quintas (2008), which conclude that the construction curricular is based on the belief that life of every day could be the object of the pedagogical action and that the knowledge and competences acquired more sense when transported to the daily lives of adults. The ultimate goal of Key Competences Area was the construction of the portfolio of each adult.

For discourse analysis, adults were able to demonstrate their competences at work, which was also evident when we analyzed the portfolios. Accordingly, Quintas (2008) state that adults bring with them a history of schooling and informal learning performed in the workplace and community. The competences – as a way to mobilize / transfer knowledge, skills and attitudes – were specified with work done on the computer, for example. For Alonso et al. (2002), the demonstration of competences intended to convene, mobilize and profitable value competences that adults had already owned, although in an isolated way. Through the analysis of two portfolios, we could easily establish the correlation between the competences evidenced and the achievement of the corresponding level: "assessed, recognized, validated and, ultimately, certified" (Alonso et al. 2002 p. 100). In our opinion, it was present here the two essential foundations of the processes of RPL: recognition and validation.

3.6 Portfolios

The value of prior learning and life stories was also analyzed based on: the themes developed in Key Competences Area for elementary and secondary school and the preferences of adults for the same areas. We saw that there were several topics covered in PRA1 and PRA2 and that the preferences of adults for issues depended on the personality and experience of each one. In reference to adults' preferences for the areas of Key Competences Area – that is, what adults liked least and what they liked best to address on their process – the responses were equally varied.

Relating their works and their life stories, the portfolios had emerged as an important instrument for learning and assessing; there seemed to have a very close relationship between each candidate and his portfolio, in that, portfolio was a treasure of memories. In this regard, Behrens (2008) call attention to the fact that even if the story described the adult's experience, it transformed his reality and it would enhance the identity of the person; yet, the story did not stop telling the truth, because it was the expression of the essence of the actor. Thus, the adult triggered a cognitive process, because the process of writing allowed a reflection among past events experienced and a possible prospect of these experiences.

Having in mind that the portfolio is a collection of work that tells the story of the efforts and progress of their players in a given area, through self-reflection (Klenowski, 2005), no wonder it's an instrument worthy of special attention in education / training approach by focusing on skills development, as is the case of the RVCC process.

The main results showed that Reflective Learning Portfolio presents the elements of the portfolio: selection of content, reflection, self-assessment of acquired experiential (Ollagnier, 2006), control between breadth and depth of representation and self-worth which leaded to a self-effective regulation. So, the portfolios proved to be a very useful tool for assessing the skills acquired through experience, as well as the progress made throughout the process, reflected in self-esteem of their authors. It also allows passing of knowledge to a knowledge reflected intentional. Summarizing, "the compilation of evidence of the competences of the individual gained throughout life in the portfolio as the main assessment tool for the RVCC processes within the NOI" (Mendonça & Carneiro, 2011, p. 114).

3.7 Highlights of RVCC process

According to Valente, Carvalho and Carvalho (2011, p. 176): "So far, our research findings suggest that important achievements are taking place and that a strong argument in favour of this new education paradigm to promote lifelong learning opportunities for low-skilled adults can be made". So, this research asked about the difference that RPL really made, pointing the most distinctive elements of learning experiences: (i) adults seemed to value the RPL experience because of its dimension of self-recognition, that's to say , the RPL gave them the opportunity and the resources to reflect on their life experience, taking stock of their acquired knowledge and skills and recognizing what and how this can be used in an educational ladder; (ii) "this process […] also seems to have had important implications for the adults' self-image and self-confidence to succeed"; (iii) " they realize that their experience has value, not only for them, but also for the formal education system, which is granted by the validation and the certification procedures of the RPL leading to a final certification" (Valente, Carvalho & Carvalho, 2011, p. 164).

In the meanwhile, other two distinctive elements would be mentioned: 1) "the self-assessment dimension, which is required by the RPL in its initial phase (the recognition phase). This self-assessment of learning gaps, based on a set of pre-defined key competences standards, is above all an individual task, although greatly supported by the NOC professionals, and seems to be a crucial element for furthering learning and skills achievement"; 2)

> "the RPL process is in itself highly demanding on skills use. It is assumed that a minimum level of foundations skills is acquired; otherwise the RPL process is compromised. But some of these foundation skills, such as reading, writing and communication skills or computer and internet use are also widely used and enhanced by the RPL process. […] Also learning to learn skills are widely enhanced by the RPL, especially through a self-regulated learning capacity".

In sum, on one hand "the RPL process seems to be an important path towards self-confidence and self-motivation to learn" and on the other side, "further learning activities, especially those aiming at additional educational attainments, are of adults' particular interest as they consistently reported. Motivation for lifelong learning seems to have been enhanced" (Valente, Carvalho & Carvalho, 2011, pp. 165-175).

So, the same authors (Valente, Carvalho & Carvalho, 2011, pp. 166-170) defend that after the qualification, 'personal fulfilment' was seen "as the major gain"; otherwise, "self-esteem and self-confidence" were also "perceived as personal gains". Referring to learning outcomes, at first sight, "the most highly ranked key competences were the literacy skills (reading, writing and speaking) and the e. Skills (computer use and internet use) with effects on changing

daily habits after certification. On second thoughts, "learning to learn skills were also among the highly ranked key competences. These skills include self-image and self-esteem, critical thinking, motivation for learning, learning strategies and participation in education and training. Although all seem to have progressed, the most significant improvement was in self-esteem and motivation for learning". Finally, "soft skills such as personal and social skills, civic competences and cultural awareness and expression were also referred to, but this progress remains less consistent".

Our study corroborates the last researchers. The changes that the RVCC process performed in personal and/or professional adults' experience, after completing the function of certification evaluation, were essentially changes emerged over the level of adults' actions, their thoughts, making each one reflect on the person who was / is / will be, increasing their own self-esteem, as we had already seen. It seemed to be, in the words of Freire (1975), the awareness of the subject, that's to say: it's the process by which people understand that their world view and the place it occupies is molded by historical and social forces, that opposes to their personal interests. Thus, it demands critical awareness, the ability to reflect and to act upon the world, with a view to improve this world. Education is viewed as the practice of freedom, in which the individual finds out its level of humanity, and acts upon the world, transforming it. However, we warn, as Cavaco's study (2008, p. 570), that assessment of competence is reflected directly on identity issues. If the assessment is positive it will help raise self-esteem and self-concept, but if it is negative the adult will feel the denial of recognition, which might have a lot of negative effects on their identity.

We were faced a similar situation that happened in the relation between the acquisition / validation of competences and the capacity to solve daily problems, implying here the effects were (also) more related to a personal level, which the interviews were highly registered into the effect of validate competences in what concerns solving problem situations. In this context, Freire (1994, p. 140) wrote, "even without undergoing rigorous and critical analysis that would allow its person to go beyond the 'common sense', the practice offers, nevertheless, a certain operating knowledge. This does not give the 'common sense', however, the right to be deeper than the knowledge itself".

According to Carneiro (2011, p. 32), "the NOI was a national strategic plan to speed up the pace of secondary level achievement in the Portuguese population in order to rapidly catch up with European averages. About the beginning of NOI, in December of 2005, "the Portuguese Government established a national priority to overcome the low qualification levels of the Portuguese population, in line with the renewed Lisbon Strategy and the European Agenda for economic growth and social cohesion". So, the aim to recognize "upper secondary completion was a crucial threshold to enable lifelong learning rich world, the initiative summons and represents a national strategic effort regarding further investment in education and training systems and the will to overcome organizational barriers". In this respect, one of the responsible from formation suggested a "challenge" (D): the creation of a team that believed in the RVCC process, which would be able to change the way of being, of assessing to identify. However, Cavaco (2008) warned, in her investigation, the specificity and the difficulties experienced by RVCC teams at innovative practices of RPL.

Regarding the social impact, after certification, adults were aware to the fact of the benefits of RVCC process to their lives, because beyond the importance of the professional / qualification point of view, they highlighted the mainly importance on a personal level, the well-being with themselves and the fact the "no longer have to put into the children statement that they have only the elementary level" (CC). The NOC had also social and political impact which corroborated the results of NOI: "No other adult education programme had motivated such a large and rapidly increasing participation among the Portuguese low-skilled adult population" (Valente, Carvalho & Carvalho, 2011, p. 146).

However, based on this scenario, we discuss the current state-of-the-art about the CNO's change of policy guidelines, with no one (re)cognition of national studies (from researchers interested on the subject); which, in our perspective, could greatly contribute with guidelines and (others) alternatives.

We base our opinion on the following and actual facts: according to Government elements of Agência Nacional para a Qualificação e Ensino Profissional [ANQEP] (2012) – towards the oversizing current network of NOC, the shortage of funding (and this funding also need contemplate another measures), particularly with a view to promoting higher levels of employability – the Government decided: 1) to reduce the number of supported NOC, "because of non-established goals [of INO] or at the request of the promoters [CNO]" and 2) then the legislation (Portaria n.º 135-A/2013) creates the CQEP, which replace the NOC. The Government guidelines seems to print an (in)defined legal framework of adult education.

4   Conclusion

Under this paper, we aim to explain that RVCC is a located process of translation, re-cognition and cognition, it "challenges" the formal curriculum and assessment.

The major results of our study indicated that the RVCC process had mainly been found in the translation, interpretation and meaning of knowledge and its recognition. Between the knowledge that comes from experience and the recognition of competences, experience was been reevaluated from new existing experiences, which were confronted with past experiences. This seemed to be the dynamic that promoted the development of the adults. It was a cognitive work of deconstruction and reconstruction of knowledge; as the interviewees acknowledged that their life experiences were valued by the responsible for the training, in spite of the difficulty felt in interpreting and attributing a symbolic value to the adult's experience (Pinto, 2010).

According to Carneiro (2011, p. 75), "through all analytical lenses, NOI seems to capture the essence of future lifelong learning policies. Moreover, NOI addresses the recognised need to find creative new paths to render continuous learning as a tangible and viable reality to most of the working population".

However, the introduction of RVCC practices demanded a profound change in the education / training systems, because the RVCC processes were not limited to the enforcement of a set of procedures and methodologies, in a technicist and technocratic teaching-learning perspective.

This would imply the change of educational representations and practices and the evolution of traditional education / training models, both in actors and structures, so that they can coherently integrate the principles and presuppositions that underlie recognition and validation. In the scope of assessment, these practices call into question the importance attributed to summative evaluation and diplomas, extolled in traditional education; valuing formative evaluation as a way to assess and regulate, which in the RVCC process has intended to improve the functioning of the system as a whole.

Besides, the validation of prior learning was in tension between several logics which can clash: the personal, the economic, the normative and the socio-political one. The personal logic was the candidate's one who, throughout the RPL, aimed to develop or build its own identity. In some situations, this might conflict with the economic logic of its workplace that cared about the greatest productivity; or with a normative logic compulsory by the experts which were always concerned about universal standards; or with a socio-political logic that, in the search for greater profitability, could conflict with individual desires or with the priorities of the other logics. So, the candidate to VPL was an actor that met other actors who could hold logics different from its own.

The role of the trainer was particularly interesting to study, because he can increase one of these logics (and that possibly according to moments); its position is thus far from being comfortable.

The tensions related to the situation of the candidate vis-a-vis the logics often contradictory had a considerable influence on the process of the validation of prior learning which is primarily a located process of translation, re-cognition and recognition.

This process involved several stages (identification and translation of the experience knowledge, staging, validation and recognition). This area (between several logics, because of the existence of different actors) attended a certain number of difficulties for the various actors. Between the experience knowledge's identified at the beginning and the recognized knowledge's (and not recognized), a whole process took place where frameworks are construct, deconstruct and rebuilt.

Overall, we believed therefore that this study might integrate, in a meaningful way, the research agenda for assessment, by the following reasons: i) because the practices of validation of prior learning recognize the experience, valorize the competence and not only the knowledge, by questioning the formal qualifications; while, simultaneously, promoted the implementation of new referential ii) by the possibility of knowing the speeches about the value of formation instruments / training devices, as is the case of the Portuguese system of RVCC.

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The Voucher Fallacy: Thomas Paine, Democratic Schooling, and Educational Inequality

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Abstract

Despite its limited treatment in his own work, Thomas Paine's authority on democratic education has been widely invoked by parties interested in privatizing public schooling in America's poor, inner-city districts through educational voucher programs. Claiming Paine as the founder of their ideas, scholarly and popular authors have cited Paine's brief proposal for funding rural schools in Rights of Man (1791).

We argue that Paine's plan for offering vouchers to the rural poor of 18th century England bears no clear relation or support to current voucher proposals: Paine's plan does not replace an existing public system with vouchers, but uses government's negative capacity to limit excesses in the social sphere (1776). This negative argument is only achieved against a backdrop of more complex questions about schooling as one element of democratic society. As Paine's proposal and contemporary voucher proposals both respond to the failure of existing schools to serve all students, we consider Paine's influence on American public schooling, distinguishing between the distributional ideal of a publicly funded education and the formative educational ideal of an education for the public, expressed in the American judicial doctrine that separate is inherently unequal. From McClintock's (2004) concept of formative justice, aligned with Weithman's (2010) understanding of motivational adequacy, we argue that Paine employs schooling as one site where a universal right might contribute to a broader confluence of formative influences. In line with a number of otherwise divided thinkers on social justice and education (CFE v. NYS, 2006; Anyon, 1997; Ravitch, 1983) Paine does not see education as a means toward equalizing economic conditions, but as one of many elements of a democratic culture in which equality serves as a regulative ideal.

Keywords: Thomas Paine; school vouchers; educational inequality; democratic education

A nation under a well regulated government should permit none to remain uninstructed. It is monarchial and aristocratical governments, only, that require ignorance for their support. Suppose then four hundred thousand children to be in this condition, which is a greater number than ought to be supposed. After the provisions already made, the method will be:
To allow for each of those children ten shillings a year for the expense of schooling, for six years each, which will give them six months schooling each year, and half a crown a year for paper and spelling books.
Public schools do not answer the general purpose of the poor. They are chiefly in corporation-towns, from which the country towns and villages are excluded; or, if admitted, the distance occasions a great loss of time. Education, to be useful to the poor, should be on the spot; and the best method, I believe, to accomplish this, is to enable the parents to pay the expense themselves (Paine, 1791, V.5).

Thomas Paine's authority in democratic theory typically extends to debates regarding the integrity of individual conscience as the basis of democratic participation, or the necessity of limiting government in the name of personal freedom. One area of debate in which Paine's name has recently been widely invoked, despite its limited treatment in his own work, is that of equitable opportunities in publicly-funded schools. Parties interested in privatizing public schooling in America's poor, inner-city districts through school vouchers have claimed Paine as the founder of their ideas, citing the brief proposal above. Tying a contemporary policy proposal to an authorial intent of one of America's founding fathers is a common rhetorical move in contemporary American politics, and in this case creates the appearance of a positive relationship between democratic ideals and market forces in public education. But those who

found contemporary voucher plans in Paine's thought ignore significant themes in Paine's politics that would nullify their claims in light of the regulative role that Paine sets for government in relation to social and economic inequalities. Their work begs for critical analysis, as it fails its own standard of anchoring public policy in original intent.

The present paper might seem to be an exercise of swinging at shadows, given the dearth of refereed scholarly sources addressing the supposed connection between Paine's voucher proposal for rural English communities and contemporary voucher proposals for existing districts in the United States. But addressing a widely-held belief propagated largely through unregulated channels of contemporary popular media holds a peculiarly Painean value. Positively, it allows for public engagement in an area of politics where a democratic thinker's words have been uncritically invoked. Negatively, the lack of scholarly attention to Paine's influence on school vouchers has not delegitimized false claims, but instead has allowed their flourishing under the guise of limiting government authority.

Contemporary Uses of Paine's Voucher Proposal

Citing Paine's support of vouchers has become a popular rhetorical device among voucher proponents who take the authorial intent of America's founding fathers to serve as a sufficient guide for contemporary policy. Those who use Paine's name employ a strategy of making school privatization appear both conservative in its association with national origins and revolutionary in its undermining of public schools. Bringing these conflicted images together, voucher advocates suggest that vouchers can be both a radical departure from tradition and perfectly in line with original American ideals. While many sources simply include Paine's name as an early voucher proponent, others fictionalize Paine's proposal to fit the political aims of contemporary voucher plans. Here, we highlight some of the more egregious misuses of Paine's words.

Selectively referencing Paine's voucher proposal and combining it with selections from Adam Smith and Milton Friedman, Coulson (n.d.) argues that "The excerpts listed above all argue that schools need not be run by the government, and several argue that they should not be. In truth, Paine's proposal diverges from Smith's and Milton's work insofar as it says nothing about whether schools ought to be run by the government. Paine's contribution to the intellectual history of public schooling is his call for government responsibility in ensuring that inequalities in education are adequately addressed by the state. Coulson broadcasts his own caricatured understanding of politics by equating public education with the "totalitarian approach to education" undertaken by the ancient Spartans. Paine's proposal, by contrast, only critiques public schools insofar as they "are chiefly in corporation-towns, from which the country towns and villages are excluded." In other words, there are not enough schools to go around.

Browne et al (n.d.) claim that "[Paine] theorized that educational choice would promote competition and lead to the success and vitality of the best schools." Like Coulson's, the work of Browne et al has no basis in any of Paine's writings, but merely projects an anachronistic misunderstanding based on current arguments for school vouchers. These authors in turn cite Bierlein (1993, p.93):

> [Smith] believed that anyone paid from the public purse, including teachers, lacked motivation for performance possessed by those in the private realm. Therefore, some means to introduce competition into the system was essential. Paine took this idea one step further by proposing that England provide each pupil with an education allowance good for 6 years at any school of choice. His theory was that educational choice would promote competition and lead to the success and profitability of the best schools.

Bierlien comes closer to describing Paine's proposal, but loads it with motivations that, once again, cannot be found anywhere in Paine's work. Bierlien in turn cites Kirkpatrick (1990), whose work is unabashedly one-sided, as is evident from his book's title, and adds neither intelligent argument nor factual clarity to the record. Again, Paine's proposal says nothing about competition, success, or the vitality of schools, but as these suit the ideological commitments of current voucher movements, the authors fictionalize Paine's account to fit their own beliefs.

Perhaps the most egregious mishandling of Paine's voucher proposal comes from Cookson (2004):

> The American revolutionary Thomas Paine advocated a voucher system because he felt that compulsory education violated individual conscience. He was following the perspective of John

Stuart Mill, who believed that state-sponsored education was a contrivance for molding people to be exactly like one another.

Cookson's claims falsify Paine's ideas in two ways: first, Paine's proposal is entirely economic, and says nothing at all about conscience. Second, Paine's proposal was written about fifteen years before Mill's birth, and Paine died when Mill was three years old, making any influence from the latter to the former quite difficult.

A single scholarly article by West (1967) recognizes no connection between Paine's proposal and Friedman's but for the most general idea of paying public funds to private schools. Some authors have found connections between Friedman's proposal and the G.I. Bill (Lowe, 1995) while still others have suggested that current voucher plans closely resemble Southern states' use of vouchers for the purpose of continued segregation. Recognizing the flawed manner in which Paine's ideas have been applied to educational policy, we turn to interpreting his political philosophy in order to establish a stronger basis for future applications.

Paine on Society, Government, and Education

While Paine (1794) makes his views on some aspects of education manifestly clear - critiquing religious instruction for its cultivation of anti-scientific thinking in the young – his support for universal, public education emerges through a number of unconnected but nonetheless coherent statements, including his proposal for educational vouchers discussed above, his claim of education as a human right (1793), and his critique of monarchy as devoid of intellectual authority (1776). As Paine's view of education is directly tied to social and political concerns, any reading of Paine's voucher plan must begin by considering schools' place in the social order.

In *Common Sense* (1776), Paine argues two points that serve as basic conditions for any democratic form of schooling. The first of these is the founding of governmental legitimacy on the basis of knowledge. Paine's argument against monarchy as a legitimate form of government takes as its most fundamental assumption that the authority to govern must be founded in the knowledge of those who lead. A royal ruler, Paine argues, fails to meet this most basic requirement insofar as the monarchical crown is passed from one bearer to another by virtue of familial inheritance rather than by knowledge of how to lead.

As the founding of political legitimacy in knowledge and understanding sets clear requirements for leadership, it also establishes a foundation for democratic political participation and defines an essential element of democratic life, namely the exchange of ideas and the priority of education as both the means of preparing rulers and the mechanism by which those better prepared to lead might be distinguished. Modern democracy – at least in Paine's view – is rule by those who know how. Based on this definition, taken up in one way or another by a wide variety of democratic thinkers, modern democracy and universal education have become inseparable concepts, tied together by the ideal of all human beings participating in a shared, perfectible nature.

Yet if knowledge serves as the legitimate foundation for political power, and education the mechanism by which knowledge empowers a people to lead, Paine's political philosophy draws an important distinction between education as a social function that allows human knowledge to be reproduced and developed from one generation to the next and the government's role in public schooling. According to Paine, social forces emerge organically from various ways of living together that humans have developed over thousands of years. In contrast, government forces are designed and imposed upon social groups for the explicit purpose of limiting the overreaching effects of human desire that accrue within the social order, producing inequalities that subvert the stability of social life. Government regulation presents human actors with a "necessary *evil*" in Paine's words insofar as it limits some individuals' pursuit of goods they would otherwise choose in the absence of constraints; government is nonetheless a "*necessary* evil" because without it, according to Paine, unchecked social difference would grow to inhuman proportions, undermining the complex unity that makes society possible.

While most voucher proponents mistakenly associate Paine's description of government as a "necessary evil" with a simple advocacy of small government, or a skepticism regarding all government, Paine does not call for small government at all. Against the misattributed Thoreauian quotation "That government is best which governs least," Paine calls for a government that exists contingently in relation to the social inequalities that it serves to limit. The greater and more numerous the inequalities that persist in society, the greater the need for government intervention. While this relative formulation of government does entail the paradoxical perspective that government governs best

when it makes itself obsolete, it bears no resemblance to the political doctrine espoused by contemporary voucher proponents of small government by means of privatization.

Reframing education in light of Paine's distinction, we can easily recognize knowledge as a currency of social life which becomes inevitably inequitably distributed through education based on relative economic advantages multiplied over generations. Aside from the limited experiments in democratic education undertaken since Paine's time, the entire history of formal education has served the preservation of privilege among a small, elite class. Privileged classes' investment in their children's education results in a greater accumulation of power and wealth in the hands of the few. What begins as a socially sanctioned good for particular individuals becomes an evil for society, insofar as it produces power differentials too great to address by civil means.

If, according to Paine's distinction, education falls under the category of the social, government's role is to limit the inequalities that educational benefits create. Paine's concern with government's role in limiting social inequalities establishes a governmental responsibility to limit the difference between the basic educational experiences of the richest and poorest students. His interest in knowledge as the basis of governmental legitimacy raises the stakes of the government's role in schooling insofar as education produces benefits for both the individual and for society that are unlike others. For the individual, the benefit of education allows for the representation of private interests in the public sphere in such a way as to limit virtually all other forms of inequality. For society, extending this benefit to all increases each person's capacity to represent his interests publicly, thus promoting the rule of law and aiding the work of government in limiting other forms of social inequality.

Elucidating the appropriateness of Paine's voucher proposal to his views on democratic government also demonstrates the mistake of claiming Paine as the intellectual founder of the contemporary voucher movement. Contemporary voucher plans fail Paine's stated requirements because rather than preserving the government's responsibility of limiting excesses of inequality in society, contemporary voucher programs would relinquish government authority, in the form of tax revenue, to competitive private organizations that have neither an interest in promoting common goods nor the authority to minimize inequality.

Conclusion

Current debate on educational equity swings between the cynical view that equity can be measured in dollars regardless of the recipient's ability to make use of the lessons they learn and the naive view that a good teacher can overcome the effects of intergenerational poverty. Both of these views are stuck in the idea of education as a means of distribution: one as a begrudged duty and the other as a gift. Both forget that the end of education is not the delivery of a good to a group of individuals, but the social change that results. Paine's corrective to current voucher plans helps us articulate the question: Do other government powers serve to limit social inequality, or do schools work in opposition to the inequalities generated by other effects of the law?

McClintock (2004) and Weithman (2010) have each offered new ways of seeing educational justice beyond the constraints of a distributional view. Both take the limits of educational distribution as their starting point, and both suggest, as Paine's work does, that schooling inequality is merely an indicator of a larger educational injustice, in which the development of agentic democratic citizens is thwarted through a systemic cultivation of despair. McClintock coins the term 'formative justice' to describe the measure of agency a person has been granted through their education in steering his or her life toward a goal of completion. Weithman similarly coins the term 'motivational adequacy' to describe the degree to which a person has faith that the institutions to which he or she is subject will provide the skills or direction necessary to achieve some kind of success. Both take a view of education that extends beyond the school, and both are indirectly supported by a varied collection of social theorists (Anyon, 1997, Durkheim, 1997, Ravitch, 1983) who see schooling saddled by expectations of equity that cannot overcome the inequities produced by overarching social and political forces.

Just as Paine viewed school vouchers as one more way that government could contribute to minimizing social inequality, we might ask how education, as the cultivation of agentic human subjects, might be achieved with greater equity through a variety of social avenues that are not only susceptible to governmental influence, but also capable of being restructured according to the demands of concepts such as formative justice and motivational adequacy, so that the work of schools is not taken up in isolated opposition to everything else the social world has to offer. Without this

extension of educational thinking beyond the distributional metrics of school funding, the democratic promise of universal schooling will only amount to empty rhetoric.

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The curricular differentiation in the music lessons context: teaching to different types of learners

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Abstract

This study has as its main focus to characterize the way the curricular differentiation practices are put into action within music lessons - to know the paths in which teachers work to develop musical learning. In addition to the expected theoretical interest, this subject is of a deep interest to me, both as educator and professional in music teaching, once in this area it seems to be common the perception of musical education as reserved only to talented artists, not perceived as a cultural tool to the education of everyone.

The purpose of this presentation is founded on the review of relevant literature and research carried out within the PhD in Sciences Education, Catholic University, Catholic Porto. The empirical data, not analyzed here, will be discussed further in the light of reflection produced on practices in the classroom, still under development in the empirical work.

In the general board of reference, we'll call on classical references, studies and research. On what the music teaching is concerned we'll call on the studies of Hallam (1996; 2006), Haddon (2009; 2011), Crappell (2011), Brand (2009), among others.

The idea is to come up with basic principles of existing curricular practices in this context. How far do music teacher include differentiation in the music learning process? How far do they taking into account individual differences between students? How teach music to different types of learner with different types of interests? It appears that curricular differentiation is not constructed and sustained with the musical experience and expectations of students. Based on the data and the theory, a critical reflection at the end of the study will be produced on the role of the teacher with a view to showing the many gaps that still exist in curricular practices in the field of music teaching is necessary to ensure that every student has the opportunity to improve and enrich his individual learning.

Keywords: Curricular Differentiation, Music Education, Music Teaching and Learning

1   Introduction

The presentation of the subject matter "The curricular differentiation in the music lessons context: teaching to different types of learners", focuses on the reconsideration of specialized bibliography and on the competences acquired throughout the professional activities, mostly shaped by a personal motivation in understanding the inclusive curricular differentiation transported to the music lessons context.

As it is known, the scientific and technological development brings evolution and a constant need for reevaluating the current knowledge in every field of expertise. Innovation emerges as a reflection of this society which is in constant and accelerated change, the society of knowledge and information. In this sense, arises a need for a new meaning of curriculum and subsequently a new way of teaching its essential contents. The teacher becomes an innovator instead of a mere communicator, and so the educational and formative system is restructured.

In this line of thinking, Morgado (2005, p 21) mentions that "the improvement of the education system begins essentially on the reconceptualization of the school's role, based on a larger autonomy level and in a certain commitment with the educative agents, favoring the curricular development and the innovation both centered at the school as institution", that is, the innovation/reformulation of the educative policies also implies the innovation/reformulation of the curriculum and consequently the way it is conveyed.

Messina (2001, p. 227), referring to Fullan's studies (2000) repeats that "innovation is more a process than an occurrence (…) a multidimensional process, able to transform the place where it happens and to transform itself." Indeed, to "innovate" we have to transform, but not in an immediate way, for immediacy doesn't solve any problems, it only dazzles them for a short period of time. This change is expected to be intentional, systematic and wanted. The education process happens gradually, even because the education system remains grounded in traditional education and learning practices, which will eventually obstruct the so anticipated inclusive curricular differentiation.

1.1 Curricular Differentiation

Paraphrasing Messina (2001, p. 232), *change begins in each one of us*, "through the creation of places which promote the possibility of the reflective thinking and doing, in which innovations have the opportunity to present themselves, to contradict and to transform."

With schooling massification and the patent school's public heterogeneity, processes of educational innovation appear, intending to act within school's context and curricular development. Accordingly, Leite (2003, p.23) affirms that education which accessible to everyone challenges the education professionals to "predict and conceive different processes and means of teaching, in order to provide conditions in which everyone feels recognized, respected and willing to learn."

A significative number of professionals within the teaching field have been developing researches on curriculum and on the way it is aimed and "conveyed" to the student, regarding his/her diversity and his/her course specificity, be it individual or social-cultural. Pleas for the curriculum to account for the specific characteristics (more or less evident) of the different students emerge" (Sousa, 2005, p.8).

Gaspar and Roldão (2007) refer that in order to "build the curriculum as a participated situated and analytical project, the construction accounts for the reality and the concrete agents in which play their part. In a similar line of thinking, Silva (2011, p.13) mentions that "the notion of curricular flexibility becomes fundamental, since it is necessary to adapt the teaching processes to the specific characteristics of the heterogeneous school population, which comes to school with different social and family conditions, different experiences, knowledge and interests."

In this perspective, the definition of goals and strategies accounts for the student's reality and the process is enriched. It is expected that teachers build proper tools which adapt to present and future demands.

As EIPPPETRA affirms (1995, p. 26):

> Teachers as change's cultural agents are at the centre of the student community and at the centre of the future creation process. Teacher's role will consist in helping, conducting, giving examples, promoting, facilitating and integrating assisted and autonomous learning, outcome of a personal evaluation of necessities, resorting to the diversified means of access to information and knowledge."

Within this context it is also essential to have an "effective decentralization of the central administration's powers and teacher's ability to build a real curricular autonomy, indispensible in order to operate the educative finalities in the best conditions" (Morgado, 2005, p.8), that is, it is important not to limit to a technical rationality but to rebuild to operate (Gaspar & Roldão, 2007).

At the moment, a curriculum's concept reconceptualization has been proposed and a curricular development aimed at every student's maximum competences is being sought for. In this sense what is expected is not the imposed artificial differentiation which grounds our education systems; the stratified curricular differentiation only hides the differences. It is expected that "the curriculum becomes differentiated so as to approach everyone from the intended results (…) preserve uniform treatments' equality for a diverse public – it has only emphasized the severe social asymmetries in a dangerous and unfair way." (Roldão, 1999, p. 39). Bemhaja (2012, p. 1459) also refers that "the sole adoption of disciplinary practices for conveying knowledge and the use of pencil and paper to comply with the program, are not consistent with the existence of differentiation strategies."

According to Gaspar and Roldão (2007, p. 130)

> the designation of curricular differentiation encompasses the group of curricular actions at different levels (curricular policies, school's curriculum management and organization, faculty practices and learning organization) deliberately oriented in such a way as to take into consideration the diversity of the school's public, in order to adequately promote their learning success.

In this line of thinking, understanding the concept of curricular differentiation assumes special relevance. In Roldão's (1999, p. 42) point of view:

> Differentiate it to establish different paths – but never to establish different levels of arrival because of the starting conditions. Differentiating isn't also the same as prioritizing goals to students of different groups – but to try, by every possible means, the more diverse, that all end up mastering in the best possible way the essential competences and knowledge for their personal and social life.

For Sousa (2008, p. 1) curricular differentiation consists in the "curriculum's adaptation to each student's own characteristics, thus aiming to maximize their opportunities of school success." According to him, "by taking each student's experience as the basis to the educational process, the curriculum is elaborated so as to make sense to the light of that same experience, that is, in a significative and differentiated approach" (Sousa, 2008, p. 6).

In a similar line of thought, Pacheco (2008, p.182) defines curricular differentiation as a concept which "essentially represents changes in the methodology and evaluation, assuming that the students share the same course in their options, but that some need to follow different paths, so that everyone may achieve the educative success."

Within this context, it is fundamental that teachers listen to their students and reflect on, about and to the action. Hence, there has to be a mentality for assuming risks (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1999, cit. in Messina, 2001, p.231). This consists in exiting the formal and standardized curriculum's comfort zone. Meanwhile, most teachers don't have an adequate preparation or the necessary conditions to operate in action, that is, to manage the process. This can be explained, mostly, due to the fact that many teachers are used to the "comfort" of the traditional and stratified pedagogical practice; they perform the same activities year after year, the same evaluative practices, thus accounting every student as the same. Also for being, in a certain way, limited to an educative system that controls their activities, that is, their decision-making power within the context they act on is limited; they're at the sidelines of the school system.

In this way, a larger autonomy in relation to the system is fundamental, so that the practice identifies itself to the user's necessities, instead of the power necessities which rule the school (Perrenoud, 1997).

Roldão (2009, p.41) highlights that:

> (…) historical and social characteristics (for example, the majority dependency of the State as employer, the scarce curricular autonomy, the non-production of regulation devices for knowledge and professional performance inside the range, schooling massification, among many others) have been creating a faculty's culture, grounded (as it is natural), still limited, by many aspects which do not only depend on the teachers, to functionalism conditions that influence the way in which teachers see themselves and are seen by society.

In the scope of the curricular differentiation it is necessary that teachers abandon the fear of being held responsible for the school failure and that they engage themselves in the promotion of change, so as to rebuild their student's experiences and actively engage them in this process, promoting their growth as critical and responsible human beings. A differentiating teacher:

- ✓ Changes "goals, syllabus, activities and evaluation according to the student's education necessities" (Pacheco, 2003, p.13).

- ✓ Assumes himself/herself as "a learning facilitator and a student's collaborator " (Heacox, 2006, p.18)

- ✓ Is an "organizer of teaching opportunities" (Tomlinson, 2008, p. 35)

It is evident that "change in the educative systems certainly involves adjustments in the curricular management and drawing, in the pedagogical practices and in the competences, believes convictions, values and teacher's personal

qualities, as well as their work conditions (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1993; Silkes, 1993 cit. in: Morgado, 2005, p.38). Therefore, the process of teaching something to someone based in a effective differentiation is extremely "complex and interactive" thus needing more than the professional teaching figure, teacher in action, but also the student's figure as an active and participative agent.

2   Music Education: different types of learners

Within the musical sciences framework, Hallam's studies (1996; 2006), Haddon (2009; 2011), Crappell (2011), Brand (2009), Garvis and Pendergast (2010) and Dravis (2009) all mention that teaching music in a mechanical, equal and unimaginative way stops the creative process which occurs while learning, thus blocking significative results and provoking a certain student's resistance. Researches within this field of studies also refer that there is no correlation between theory and practice. In regard to this aspect, authors present a controversy and question whether educators are really concerned with the way their essential teaching is conveyed to every student, given the fundamental implications of their own actions within this process.

Many music teachers remain, even today, grounded to the traditional mechanic universe. Hallam (1998) affirms that these teachers prefer to keep using the passive teaching patterns they are used to. According to Bainger (2010) this may sabotage the success of a ludic activity and inhibit the genuine exploration in music. With such a pattern, where students are considered equal and become hostages of the same mechanical and meaningless activities, there is a disintegration of the thinking and doing. Within this context Garvis (2009) refers that many music teachers focus mainly on the few talented students and disregard the others, thus contributing to the lack of confidence of the latter. They present more learning difficulties and as a result feel powerless as music students.

Haddon (2001) acknowledged that students need high levels of dedication, trust, determination and creative stimulation by experimenting different music making approaches. According to the author, "teachers should teach students to explore their own styles and musicality, instead of teaching them how to play." (Haddon, 2011, p.76). In this way Hallam (2006) affirms that students need help in order to become independent learners, so that they can adapt to new musical environments and may use their acquired skills as a means to overcoming new obstacles.

Many scholars developed their researches in order to introduce different approaches to music education and present the different possibilities and ramifications of music learning. The most identifiable characteristic of these authors defines a profound disintegration with the traditional pattern of music education and claim permanent modifications in the way of conceiving music education in society.

The traditional music teaching has a counter-productive impact on the student's learning, because the teacher is the one who detains the intended knowledge and the student knows nothing. The outcome of this quite mechanic pedagogy is especially evident in the difficulties students present along the teaching and learning process, for the creation of knowledge becomes more and more difficult and slow as time passes and the easy ideas are repeated several times without any significance. In addition, traditional teaching is, without any doubt, diminishing, since it implies a stationary state in which there is no significative or participative growth of the student.

Therefore, it is evident that most authors counteract to a uniform pattern of music teaching based on a "ready-made" curriculum (Formosinho, 1991) defending that teachers and students must be opened in order to establish connections. These so called connections are the source of the learning success. Concerning this subject, Brand (2009, p. 15) states that "effective music teaching reflects a special combination of pedagogical talents, personal magnetism, artistic and musical skills, effective knowledge, organization and communication." According to this, the progress of a student depends on the different ways in which knowledge is conveyed.

Within this context, the external influences to music learning cannot be disregarded. Joseph and Southcott (2010) report that music education is characterized by cultural diversity. Meanwhile, what is proposed in class many times does not correspond to the student's reality or to his/her own interests. Following from this, Crappel (2011), Bainger (2010), Russel- Bowie (2010), Joseph and Southcott (2010), Ferris, Nyand and Deans (2010), Brand (2009), Garvis (2009) and Haddon's studies (2009) refer that the correlation between external influences and learning are frequently disregarded by teachers within the context of music lessons, that is to say that teachers apply the same method to every student as if they were all the same. This reasoning highlights the differences in a stratified way and prevents an effectively differentiated management of the curriculum. In other words, it prevents the differentiation of processes

so that everyone may appropriate the curriculum, perceived as "the group of socially recognized learnings as necessary within a certain context and time and to the organization and sequence especially adopted to accomplish or develop it" (Roldão, 1999, p. 34).

In order to fight against this paradoxical situation, which outcasts the students who present more learning difficulties, it is elementary that the strategies which are used are "directed with didactic materials suitable to the student's expectations; that they take into account the student's particular characteristics and generate processes for an active and enjoyable musical practice" (Araújo, 2010, p. 29). Therefore, it becomes essential the use of an inclusive curricular differentiation which promotes student's active participation and entices them to learn music. An important fact is that, especially during the initial phase of study, the student generally does not understand the construction processes of the musical language. Due to this fact, the basic ideas are (or should be) conveyed to students by a "ludic" and metaphorical language. The main challenge of the teacher is to find a way of presenting the more complex ideas to students in such a way that they, regarding their diversity, may understand.

Within this context, the path that the teacher takes to reach the student is a fundamental factor. The construction of knowledge in music teaching is a slow process, which requires time and also that the teacher has the necessary competences which allow him to plan his lessons in such a way that they will not damage the student's development. Lessons should be structured by logical content sequences. There is a path that needs to be followed by the student and it doesn't allow passing over any certain stage. In order to help the student along this path the music teacher must be creative and should know how to transform the strictly technical content in practical lessons which may convey a place for the student's interests, and thus promoting his effective participation and the reconstruction of his own experiences.

3 Final remarks

Having in mind this theoretical frame of reference, we expect that this research allows us to catch a glimpse of the main beliefs and assumptions which guide the teacher's work within the scope of music teaching and to understand how these guidelines connect to the concept of curricular differentiation in the educational sciences' field of action.

The artificial differentiation imposed by a system isn't an asset; conversely, it presents itself as a boiling point for the student's competence development and for a consistent approach of the teachers. In addition, it becomes fundamental to conceptualize the curricular differentiation within the global scope, in order to understand the way it is expressed in music lessons, through a critical-reflective look.

An attentive regard over the developed curricular practices in music teaching, concerning teacher's actions and student's participation – that constitute the empirical work we're developing - may contribute to a new perspective of the singing teaching and learning process, thus providing paths so that the teacher may be "operative of the knowledge per excellency" (Arends, 1995) and that the students may effectively assume their role as participative agents in this process.

Music students, with their own distinctive particularities, demand a high range of competences in dealing with differences from the teacher, so that the impact of their interventions in class may be positive. The music teacher's job cannot found itself in dubious and mechanical information. For the results to be consistent, from a pedagogical point of view, the music teaching and learning process should combine its lines of action so that the musical and human development of the student walks side by side.

The fundamental contribution of this kind of studies lies on allowing a critical reflection of the teaching and learning processes of music teaching, not restraining themselves to the specific musical education process, but comprising, especially, the individual teaching of an instrument, which is characterized by a one-to-one relation. It should be noted that in the music teaching scope, the bibliography is scarce in what concerns curricular differentiation. For this reason, the starting point was a more general approach of the differences, with the intention of better understanding the reflection of these perspectives in the music lessons context.

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CULTURis: a creative Project between teaching and learning – vision on ICT in education

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Abstract

CULTURis presentation problematizes a relational environment within an innovative context, where school is called upon to respond, based on Curriculum Projects. It plays a role for the understanding and discussion of the changes of curriculum management practices in schools (inclusive spaces for learning), and their impact to improve students' learning in the Tomorrow's Education.

A collaborative action research methodology and pervasive and ubiquitous technologies (Fernandes; Machado & Carvalho, 2008; 2007) are adopted to make tangible the concept of leadership for learning and innovation. The methodology approach of this study promotes reflective and critical construction of knowledge (Stake, 2003).

Within the contemporary globalized world, in which we were forced to inhabit, some of us are not surprised with the disorder that it may pose, or even if it is a contemporary or an old disorder, as we perceive it rich in creative and innovative ideas (Viana & Serrano, 2010), creating an opportunity for collective development instead of an individual rise effort.

The sense for interdisciplinary innovation values the learning with meaning, capable of promoting the confidence building in what you learn. The globalization and interdisciplinary assume a real-time interactive dynamic, when conceptualized and investigated trough the information systems. It also assumes a multidisciplinary and interactive curricular management (for example, interconnecting different disciplinary organized knowledge), generating and transforming thinking as well as ways of perceiving the environment and human activity (the experientially lived articulated with the socially shared) (Viana; Machado & Serrano, 2012).

The main reason or reasons behind the development of this paper relate to the construction/transformation of what we perceive as design and creativity, of what we search in a meaningful relational environment for interdisciplinary innovation. This will be achieved through the creative project, as this is our belief, and because in the contemporary world, we know that this is the knowledge constitutive of human activity, capable of responding to the different challenges that the relation between learning and knowledge's requires.

Keywords: Creative Project; Tomorrow's Education; Vision on ICT.

1 Introduction

The key idea of this project is the creative interaction between Education/Training and Quality of Life which generates a process of reciprocity that promotes a smart sustainability (an intelligent sustainability) and originates the Creative City. This is the energy motor of Urban Education – Intervention and investigation with/in the city (Viana, 2011).

The Creative Project is a space capable of generating educational proposals, which influences the configuration of the teaching and learning as well as how to live in the knowledge in order to empower its citizens to promote learning styles and teaching conditions to construct sustainable urban education – placing the digital resources to emancipate to learning in the century XXI - the learning of future - promote the learning relations work-oriented. Create spaces that represent different learning styles, needs and interests of learners - customize the education/training, engagement with the learning spaces

According to Viana (2010), this key idea has also provides other ways to value the learning to be critical and creative, revealing itself as essential vector to comprehensive education, which might facilitate multiple forms of knowledge, thought and morality, to understand the subjectivities of the cognitive and emotional perspective, triggering a close relationship with the life events, a relationship of social school knowledge with the everyday (Young, 2010).

The digital world needs to make tangible the concept of inclusive ICT for supporting the development of vision on ICT in education. According to Fernandes, Machado and Carvalho (2011, p. 1) "Pervasive Computing, also called Ubiquitous Computing [1, 2], represents a new direction on the thinking about the integration and use of computers

in people's lives. It aims to achieve a new computing paradigm, one in which there is a high degree of pervasiveness and availability of interconnected information technology devices in the physical environment."

This project aims to develop approaches that can enable the construction of spaces of continuous discovery and co-responsible training and lifelong learning. These spaces will enable all citizens to be active players in their own development processes which will be innovative and creative in order to meet the challenges of the twenty-first century.

These approaches formalize the methods and processes needed to develop spaces that are able to provide citizens with the location and characteristics of learning environments, formal, informal and non-formal, within the city/urban education. These spaces, then, should give citizens of all ages and social conditions the harmonization of local cultures, in time, with the prospect of a globalized world in Europe. The challenges of rapid social and economic change should be considered by the approaches advocated within this project, enabling people with different needs and based upon those needs, develop essential skills for flexible adaptation, critical and innovative competencies for their immersion in the space, and for mutual and differentiated learning using the inter-institutional articulation and sharing of practices.

1.1 Research _ Project that support and motivate the study

This project, essentially, carried out from 2003 to 2007 aimed at investigating the ways in which Portuguese teachers are experiencing changes of educational policies which affect their professionalism. As curricular decision makers, they use the Project to support the processes of teaching and learning, and how the Curricular Project influences the organizational and professional development of teachers.

Within an innovative context, where school is called upon to respond, based on Curriculum Projects, this study plays a role for understanding and discuss changes of curriculum management practices in schools, and their impact in the improvement of students' learning – the ICT to enable the learners to have access/visibility from the place where they are.

1.2 Context of the Study _ Project that support and motivate the study

This study identified the following guidelines to improve Basic Education (Viana, 2007; 2008):

- Promote school inclusion as a principle;
- Promote curriculum reorganization of Basic Education in order to involve participants;
- Empower teacher to be curricular decision makers, using the Project to mediate the process of learning;
- Empower students to be project decision-makers improving their own learning.

Based on these guidelines we developed the research questions:

- How does the Classroom Curriculum Project contribute to the improvement of curriculum development at schools?
- How does the Classroom Curriculum Project contribute to the improvement of teachers' personal and professional development?
- How does the Classroom Curriculum Project improve the quality of students' learning?

1.3   Results – Nuclear ideas

The analysis of the data led us to understand the difficulties that teachers have to deal with, in schools and identify the issues that have to be addressed in continuous teacher training and development (Viana, 2007), in order to contribute to change effectively their teaching practice and the reorganisation of the school for urban education and for smart city (Viana, Machado & Serrano, 2012).

It was possible to identify Potentials and Constraints in the schools' and teachers' positioning towards the changes introduced by the Curricular Reorganization. The motivation (or its absence) influences both teachers and students (Day, 2004). The co-existence of two types of discourse: Rhetorical and Practical. A professionalism marked by ambivalence, conflict and the lack of clear references (Day, Flores & Viana, 2007).

* How does the *Classroom Curriculum Project contribute to the improvement of curriculum development at schools*?

In relationship to the first question, this study identified that:

At the level of discourse

- It articulates teachers' decisions;

- It promotes team work in a Dynamics that fosters autonomy;

- It integrates different knowledge;

- It is characterized by dynamics developed over common times and spaces.

At the level of practical action

- There is a relationship between the written and the lived Classroom Curriculum Project;

- There is a great concern about the written document;

- This document is added to the work routines of the Classroom Director;

- It reveals a perspective of the various projects as independent, in many cases elaborated by nominated groups;

- The National Curriculum is not an explicit concern for teachers.

* How does the Classroom Curriculum Project contribute to the improvement of teachers' personal and Professional development?

In relationship to the second question, this study identified that:

At the level of discourse

- It allows for and requires a systematic reflection on lived experience;

- It requires that teacher is a curriculum constructor, capable of responding with confidence to the complexity and singularity that characterizes educational situations;

- It requires for teachers collaboration;

- It enables teachers to put forward questions and living their practice in an implicated and meaningful way;

- It enables teachers to take coherent and adequate decisions to the specificities of both students and contexts.

At the level of practical action

- It avoids routine and calls upon critical action on innovation;

- It brings consensus to evidence as a curriculum management method and as an expression of contextualized professional development;

- It makes clear that training in the scope of the Classroom Curriculum Project clarify the necessary guidelines for the Curricular Reorganization;

- It places the teacher in a context that values his/her professional competence, which is embodied in an interactive, critical and evolving professionalism.

* How does the Classroom Curriculum Project improve the quality of students' learning?

In relationship to the last question, this study identified that:

At the level of discourse

• It potentiates pedagogical synergies for the development and reconstruction of the National Curriculum – making the integration of different knowledge;

• It constitutes an open and flexible process of approach to the curriculum;

• It allows for the organization of a meaningful and significant teaching and learning process, which motivates students trough active and responsible participation.

At the level of practical action

• It is based in a construction, grounded in active and interactive learning dynamics, sustained by research, by the desire to experiment in action, researching, criticizing and regulating the process of development of teaching and students' learning.

2 Methodology

The methodological approach comprises a comprehensive process that, according to Stake (2006:23) emphasizes "social issues and cultural values as much as the programmatic and personal dilemmas." Based on this understanding, is processed through an action of theoretical and practical nature, with a specific incidence in practice, designed based on an interactive and dialogic dynamic between participants, within an integrated perspective of research-reflection-action-training. The strategies developed will foster collaborative work, critical and creative (facilitator of continued questioning of multiple knowledge) in favour of personal and group interests, capable of providing a space for dialogue and exchange of experiences among participants in order to enhance critical and creative processes of learning sustained in creative project (Viana, 2010).

The methodology approach of this study promotes reflective and critical construction of knowledge by all stakeholders. ICT will respond, in an integrated manner, to the different needs of trainers/learners/employers at different stages of education/training, as a particular support to fulfil the potential educational/training. It aims to continuously construct, in a participated and shared manner, the sustainable development of intelligence, characterized by the ability of every citizen to identify and develop skills necessary for his/her well-being, creative and active participation in citizenship, inclusion and employability in a society of knowledge, within a perspective of lifelong learning in urban education.

3   A creative project

CULTURis is a plural research project that aims to answer to the multiple opportunities for learning, proper of contemporary societies, helping to promote the construction of collective knowledge. It is a project that uses technology of intangible to make tangible the concept of community/city creative and innovative in urban education.
This project aims to develop approaches that can enable the construction of spaces (Gregòri, 2005) of continuous discovery and co-responsible training and lifelong learning. These spaces will enable all citizens to be active players in their own development processes which will be innovative and creative in order to meet the challenges of the twenty-first century.
Based on the above mentioned data, our idea of a creative project is in development in this moment: aims to develop approaches that can enable the construction of spaces of continuous discovery and co-responsible of training and lifelong learning. These spaces will enable all citizens to be active players in their own development processes which will be innovative and creative in order to meet the challenges of the twenty-first century.

A Creative Project activates the innovation in digital World

• Claims from the education a critical action to serve the progress of communities - improving the living conditions to transform society in a civic society;

• A vital role is assigned to the community/city in educating its citizens (recovery and development of culture) – asks for behaviors and attitudes framed by *glocal*, to ensure a better integration of action in professional space and personal/community space;

• To facilitate the ownership of several roles and harmonious relationship with the different contexts where they live:

- Considers the multiplicity of knowledge;

- Collaborates in the development of the identity of teachers and students as well as their competencies to exercise leadership;

- Interdisciplinary constructs;

- Develop skills to meet the challenges of today's society;

- Try to respond to differentiated teaching;

- Try to respond to diversity;

- Have an inclusive vision.

3.1   Teaching with a creative project

What is teaching with a creative project?

- It's a collaborative work;

- It's understanding teaching as a space for participation and leadership;

- It's considering teaching a socially integrating space;

- It's perceiving the process of teaching as a preparation for life – work, leisure, consumption, entrepreneurship, culture, knowledge, ...

- It's fostering face to face interactions.

3.2 Learning within a creative project

What is learning within a creative project?

-   Is upgrading of learning activities;

-   Is to promote sustainable learning – multidisciplinary, integrated, innovative, empowering, emancipatory, universal;

- Is to guide learning in identifying and solving of problems.

3.3 Challenges for urban education

Invisible Society*, according to* Innerarity (2009:10), "(…) presents itself with more possibilities and meanings of the social virtuality, exclusion, risk, chance, simulation, alternative ,...) sets a new concept of reality: moves from immediately to a real place and imaginary - but must respect the meanings that the actors/stakeholders attribute to the social meanings."

Challenges for urban education provoke tension and conflict generated by the fast development of Science and Technology.

They are mediated by the Information Systems as far as:

- Work and develop processes to comply with a balance between the needs of societies and communities and what cities can offer;

- Articulate theoretical assumptions/policies and real contexts;

- Facilitate/work common interests in a participatory, collaborative and inclusive way - to work as a support in how to do/proceed;

- Mobilize available forces/offers and make them available, enabling each individual/community to build on them;

- Support the understanding of reality, in order to explore the thinking and imagination of each individual/community.

The challenges for urban education integrates Education and Training of children and youth (regular education, framed by the Dec-Law nº75/2008, new autonomy, administration and management) and training of young and adults as a government policy to improve the skills and qualifications of all (New Opportunities). ICT creates entities to take responsibility for quality, innovation in training and accreditation. A creative project, vision on ICT in education, recognizes an image/idea for teaching and learning as a value for the integrated development of re-imagining the curriculum and the city (urban education) as a cultural, plural and creative and *glocal* territory, driven by citizens.

The city/urban education takes:

- Culture;

- Education, a relationship between education and information/knowledge society;

- Training;

- Entrepreneurship.

The globalization phenomenon reconfigures, continuously, public space and the modus vivendi of the people. This contingency can be deconstructed in real time if the Information Systems:

- Develop and mobilize processes and languages that monitor and intervene in a responsible way – where carefully observation cannot be developed within a weak and short observation and it requires sustained decisions (Innerarity, 2009) – allow for distinguishing fact from fiction. Contact with things in real time;

- Work a new interpretation that they propose for space with the society/community/city – not a space as a receptacle for the actions of its citizens, but what comes between the people through their action – each city/urban education produces its own space, needs to develop processes articulated with the uniqueness of human activities.

4   Final Remarque – management complexity – promote a *glocal* development

Managing complexity to promote *glocal* development, requires the projection of educational proposals for education/training/cultural ability in order to facilitate adaptive behaviors:

* Constitutes a breakthrough time for a cross look - from the periphery to the center and back to the periphery (bordering & re-bordering);

* Globalization, Integration of knowledge, Citizen Culture and Interdisciplinarity are strenghts filled with emotions and signs demanding for a renewal of educational practices/training and of life in communities/cities – constitutes a new structuring place for *glocal* development:

- Increments exactly what we can reasonably expect, clarifying and regulating the risks involved, which is likely to be claimed to each other as members of local and global communities;

- In the management of information resources, coordinates and integrates critically the various media – people, information sources and technologies – monitoring and mapping/cartography of information, ensure the quality of information and the use with quality (effective), allowing informed decisions – the role of information systems as part of construction of meaning in re-imagining the curriculum – Creative and Innovative Response to the Challenges of Inclusion, the major challenge of urban education.

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Related Links:

European Commission Education & training

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Joint Research Centre
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http://is.jrc.ec.europa.eu/pages/EAP/eLearning.html

Europe 2020: a strategy for European Union growth
http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/employment_and_social_policy/eu2020/em0028_en.htm

External Evaluation: Impacts and Effects on the Performance of Mathematics Teachers

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Abstract

With this paper we explore the evaluation as one dimension of the curriculum studies, especially at the level of schools' external evaluation and effects on the curriculum practice (Santiago, Donaldson, Looney & Nusche, 2012). Starting with the presupposition, grounded on international reports and empirical studies (Pereyra, Kotthoff & Cowen, 2011; Steiner-Khamsi, 2012), and on globalization process as well as (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010; Afonso, 2012) that it is more and more visible the curriculum approach focused on the tests, we analyze, on the Portuguese context, in which way mathematics teachers offer the prospect of this approach, and yet in which way external evaluation contributes to change curriculum practices on 2nd and 3rd cycles of basic schooling. We present data collected through quantitative methodology, with a survey (n=61). The results are preliminary and are part of a master's dissertation in progress. They show that the curriculum approach focused on testing is strongly inscribed on national education policies and on curriculum practices, and are being positively shared by mathematics teachers, at least, at the level of discourse.

Keywords: curriculum; evaluation; national tests; accountability

Introduction

In a context of globalization and homogenization of cultures, the realities of the global market have had an impact on education, visible by the various educational reforms of recent years. Steiner-Khamsi and Waldow (2012) claim that we live in an era of reform travelers, namely, policy sharing knowledge, travel educational reforms from a cultural context to another, expanding the different parts of the world.

These policies and practices related to global education occur in superstructures that are above schools, national and local (Spring, 2009), with a constant dynamic interaction between global ideas about school practices and local school systems.

Allied to the idea of globalization arises the idea of standardization, understood as a movement towards uniformity, or a certain standard, whether intentionally or not (Steiner-Khamsi & Waldow, 2012), with the policymakers, at the level of education, stating the need of the school to meet the global economic needs.

This market effect on education exists not only through its influence on the definition of the competencies that should be developed and the organization of education systems, "(...) but also by emphasizing the quality, effectiveness and efficiency of them, to be measured, assessed, and improved through the sharing of best practices (...)" (Seabra, 2010, p.63).

In recent years we have been faced with a rising tide in the implementation of educational evaluation systems that aims responsibility and accountability (Ferrão, 2012).

Afonso (2011) asserts that, in the portuguese educational context, there are, under construction, four forms of accountability: the evaluation of teaching performance, the external evaluation of schools, national testing and rankings. In these global contexts of accountability, comparability becomes inevitable. The same author states that the *Programme for International Student Assessment* (PISA), within and beyond the European area, has had the effect of causing the obsession by comparing, particularly visible in the area of education. This is a clear example of the current "international comparativism", which has been fostered and developed, becoming socially and politically

longer valid, because of the image of credibility that this program has achieved, like other international testing programs, developed by the OECD, such as the project *Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study* (TIMSS).

In Portugal, as in many European countries, the current valuation of programs such as PISA, do not remove the importance and visibility to national tests. In a report prepared by Eurydice (2010, p.19; quoted, Afonso, 2012, p.475), we can read that, besides being indicators of educational policies and practices, the results of the tests, along with other parameters are used as indicators of the quality of teaching and, less frequently, the performance of teachers. The regular publication of school results, in the form of rankings, is another visible face of the changes in education, those which are seen as major measuring instruments of the (in)success and performance comparison, either students or teachers and schools.

Evaluate is a natural human activity that constantly, consciously makes judgments, resulting in different positions before the world around him (Alves, 2004). According to Stake (2006, p.61), "the evaluation is the pursuit of knowledge about the value of something," based on the determination of its merits and its defects. Although present in all the circumstances of human life, in the field of education, evaluation is particularly relevant in the "modern school" (Nóvoa, 2005, cf. Fernandes, 2005, p.13). Afonso and Costa (2011) reported that evaluation is viewed, internationally, as an institutional obligation in most developed countries since the last years of the twentieth century.

According to Marchesi (2002, p.35), the educational evaluation "may have two distinct functions: on the one hand, administrative control and accountability, on the other, improvements in the functioning of schools", and can be performed both internally and externally. Internal evaluation in school context is conducted by teachers themselves, or members of the educational community. Rather, external evaluation is conducted by individuals or teams outside the school, performing the most part, in order central educational administration.

In a review of models of schools' evaluation, Pacheco, Seabra, Morgado and van Hutten-Janssen (2013) observe that the evaluation appears with the aim of enabling the resolution of schools' problems, and it is understood as something that can help institutions improve their school results and know their mode of functioning (Stufflebeam, 2003a, cf. Pacheco et al, 2014). For these authors, the choice of a model always reflects political choices, which prevents it from having an holistic vision of school and all that it represents.

In Portugal, the Law number 31/2002, of December 20th, established the evaluation system of educational pre-school, basic and secondary schools, public and private, with the objective, among others, to promote the improvement of quality of education, as well as ensuring the educational success by promoting a culture of quality and accountability requirement in schools.

Integrating curricular, pedagogical and organizational components, in Portugal, the model of external evaluation of schools is a "formative instrument for assessing the quality school" (Pacheco *et al.*, 2013, p.6). Analyzing the frame of reference for the external evaluation of schools (2011 - 2012), it appears that this is structured in three areas: outcome (academic, social outcomes and community recognition), provision of educational services (planning and coordination, teaching practices, monitoring and assessment of learning) and leadership and management (management, self-evaluation and improvement).

In Portugal, the model of external evaluation of schools adopted the principles of the Scottish model - *How good is your school* (Azevedo, 2007; Pacheco, *et al.*, 2013). However, this model does not have the first domain of evaluation results, so that, as stated Pacheco, *et al.* (2013, p.31), "the trend is to affiliate it to productivist models or accountability models" once it is understood that the results reflect the school and the community work.

Thus, the school now lives under an "omnievaluation regime" (Machado, 2013, p.73) inevitably ally with the educational process, with the strengthening of normative prescription, with the implementation of external evaluation's mechanisms and with the setting of goals to meet. In this context, the approach of the curriculum becomes increasingly valued by the results, rather then the processes and, moreover, by the external evaluation for internal evaluation (Pacheco, 2012).

Research problem

The problem we investigate leads to the following question: How do mathematics' teachers of the 2nd and 3rd cycles of basic education reveal, at the level of their curricular and pedagogical practices, the effects of the schools' external evaluation? This question unfolds in the following research questions:

1. What are the impacts and effects on mathematics' teachers of the 2nd and 3rd cycles of basic education, resulting from the implementation of national tests at the end of the 6th and 9th year of schooling, in terms of curricular and pedagogical practices?

2. How do mathematics' teachers of the 2nd and 3rd cycles of basic education feel the impact of current educational policies of accountability at the level of valorization of the results obtained in national tests?

Methodology

In order to answer these questions, we conducted an empirical study of quantitative nature (Moreira, 2006), with the use of a questionnaire (Tuckman, 1994; Ghiglione & Matalon, 1997), prepared with items distributed by the Likert scale. Content validity was sought in reading texts on the issue (Moreira, 2013; Freitas, 2012; Guisbond, Neil & Schaeffer, 2012; Karp, 2012; Pacheco, 2013), having served as a basis for the formulation of items, associated to the categories "curricular changes" and "pedagogical changes" through an agreement between judges. The reliability was calculated using Cronbach's α (0.847).

Selected randomly from schools with 2nd and 3rd cycles of basic education of northern Portugal, the sample (n =61) of respondent questionnaire survey are female (68.4%) and male (31.6%). In terms of age, most lies between 30 and 45 (54%) and the remaining, have more than 45 years (46%). As for length of service, 3.4% have between 1and 10 years, 48.3% between 11 and 20 years and 48.3%, 21 years or older. The vast majority of respondents has a graduation (86.5%) and the others a master's degree (13.5%). In terms of disciplinary group, 54.9% teaches mathematics at 2nd cycle and 45.1% at the 3rd cycle of basic education.

Results

Analyzing the impacts and effects of external evaluation and national tests in the curriculum development, through the results of the questionnaire survey, it appears that the respondents agree that the curriculum goals established in recent years by those responsible for the education in Portugal, are seen as the content that students should learn and that, in general, correspond to the terminal objectives. However, most teachers do not agree with the fact that those curriculum goals replace the syllabus. In which refers to the curricular articulation carried out by mathematics teachers, the results reveal a large uncertainty about the effects of the schools' external evaluation in this practice. Similarly, the respondents indicate uncertainty in assessing the role that intermediate tests, implemented by the ministry of education, as effective management tools for improving learning outcomes.

In terms of pedagogical practices, and with regard to performances with students in the classroom, the results show that the surveyed agree that their teaching, in general, is increasingly directed at the national tests, considering the homework as a strategy that contributes, undeniably, to improve the educational achievement of students in mathematics. The majority of teachers surveyed also considers that he pedagogical support, provided to students in school, should be directed to the disciplines with national tests, having, however, greater divergence among respondents with regard to this issue. Despite this, the respondents did not agree that this support should be provided only to students who do not present a significant deficit in learning. However, when asked about the impact and effects of the external evaluation of schools, and particularly the national tests in mathematics, in the way of teaching, the results reveal uncertainty; it is unclear that there is any change in these teachers' work, because there is an external evaluation. Likewise, the results show the uncertainty of the respondents when asked if the teaching directed to the tests helps to improve educational achievement of students.

With respect to the internal evaluation, and as regards the curriculum practices, the results reveal great uncertainty by teachers. Does not appear that, for example, the realization of national tests and external evaluation of schools contributes to the realization of a global common math test, per school year, for all classes, neither for the development of equal tests for all classes of the same grade.

As regards the teaching practice, with respect to the internal evaluation, teachers surveyed agree, generally, with the inclusion of the classification of the intermediate tests at the final evaluation of the pupils. Further agree that the results of summative tests should be the component with the greatest influence on students' evaluation, however having this issue, a greater divergence of opinions. The results also reveal the uncertainty of the respondents with regard to collaboration between teachers in the production of internal assessment instruments, including the

development of criteria for correction/grading. The uncertainty increases further when asked if, as mathematics teachers, they value most summative assessment than formative assessment in the final classification of their students.

With regard to the effects of the external evaluation of schools and national testing in collaborative practices between teachers, the respondents do not agree that the evaluation focused on tests contributes to the individualization of teachers' work. However, it is not visible that the external evaluation of schools and national testing is to contribute to greater collaboration between teachers with regard to the organization of educational activities in the classroom (drafting tools, for example), or to the preparation of the contents of the teaching (defining strategies, sequencing, ...), or lesson planning.

The teachers surveyed agree, in a general and consensual way, with the realization of national math tests in final years of basic education cycles (4th, 6th and 9th years). They also consider that the results obtained in these national tests contribute to the construction of the social image of the school. As the result rankings, the majority of teachers surveyed agree that they contribute to increased competitiveness between schools, however there is uncertainty as to the contribution for the increase of competitiveness among the teachers who teach subjects assessed by national tests.

Most respondents consider themselves responsible for the results that students get, both in the internal assessment during the school year, both in national tests, although the degree of agreement is lower than in the previous questions. In general, most of the teachers surveyed consider that the student has the primary responsibility for their academic performance. Regarding the social and economic background of the student, there is an uncertainty when questioned about their influence on academic performance of students. It also appears that the respondents do not consider that the teacher is the most important factor in academic achievement of students. It should be noted that in this aspect of the assignment of responsibility for school success, there is a wide divergence of responses.

Despite agreeing with the holding of national tests in the final year of each cycle of basic education and feel some pressure to teach, along the school year, focused on the national tests, respondents do not reveal whether the students value more mathematics due to be the subject of an external evaluation by examination. The results also reveal uncertainty among the respondents, with regard to the fear of failing as professionals if the results of the national tests are not positive. The majority of respondents consider that the achievement of these national tests has not contributed to the improvement of their professional practice. Similarly, the results show that the teachers surveyed consider that the results of national tests do not reveal the actual student learning.

With regard to international tests (for example, PISA, TIMSS), the results reveal a blurring among the respondents as to their contribution to the appreciation of mathematics in the curriculum of basic education, not checking, these teachers, the obsession by comparing defended by some authors.

Conclusion

Seeking the justification for the curricular approach focused on testing, especially in organizing the evaluation of learning, taking as reference the schools of basic education in Portugal, there are, substantively, two effects of the external evaluation of schools: the discursive effect and the procedural effect. The results described above reveal that the changes set out in reports of schools' external evaluation are changes at the discourse level, not being effectively visible teaching focused on testing, given the high degree of uncertainty in many of the issues raised, although respondents consider that the national tests should continue to be implemented.

Another issue, and considering the effects of the external evaluation, concerns the agreement of math teachers surveyed with dominant discourses of curricular and pedagogical changes as they relate to valorization of results and rankings. Moreover, the respondents did not show the same consensus as to the usefulness of the intermediate tests in the management of learning, as well as to the existence of an evaluation focused on the results of summative tests.

Finally, the overall results reinforce the need to establish a more effective relationship between what is said and written in terms of academic literature and what teachers actually express at the level of their practices, especially when discussing curricular approach focused on testing, with emphasis on educational outcomes.

From the results presented here, deserves discussion the fact that the respondents consider, revealing a significant consensus, that the ratings of national tests do not reflect the actual student learning. Thus, knowing that most respondents also believe that the realization of the national tests has not contributed to the improvement of their

professional practice, it becomes urgent to reflect on the following questions: why do these mathematics teachers consider that national testing should be conducted at the end of each cycle of basic education? What benefit assign these teachers to carry out these tests? Although the results of the survey say that the rating of national test does not reflect the actual students' learning, do the pupils, in fact, learn more and better, because teachers teach more and more with their eyes set on national tests?

These are some of the issues to consider in the final results of the study.

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Curriculum and Pedagogical Innovation: an intersection (im)possible?

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Abstract

The title of this article suggests a complex relationship between the curriculum and the pedagogical innovation.

The question that I propose to explore here is not necessarily looking for an answer, nor a magic formula for the intersection between these two poles. I suggest we regard this article, regardless the approach adopted, as a scrutiny of the factors that condition (preventing or enhancing) this intersection and as a starting point to other approaches, on the relationship between the curriculum and pedagogical practices, in the context of the classroom.

Thus, this article is divided in four parts: I. approach around the concepts of curriculum and pedagogical innovation II. the curriculum as a condition of pedagogical innovation, III. the emergence of a new system of pedagogical intervention and IV. (im)possibilities of intersection between curriculum and pedagogical innovation.

In the end, rather than presenting conclusions, is to launch new (or old) queries around this issue, add questions to questions, raise new problems and make the way for further discussions and / or new lines of research within the curriculum research.

Introduction

Recognizing that the approach around the curriculum is too broad and complex to the extent that, as refers Gimeno Sacristan (1995), implies a systemic analysis, or in other words, a careful look at all social subsystems (cultural, economic, political, between others) that define and express themselves through it, it will focus on this approach in the level that the author defines like as the most immediate (or concrete): *subsystem practical and pedagogical of the curriculum*, which relates precisely to the processes and pedagogical practices. Thus, the discussion presented here involves the confrontation, theoretical although, between the prescribed curriculum and the context of their implementation / operationalization (classroom). Based on this confrontation, it will seek to understand how the curriculum affects pedagogical practices, blocking or potentiating the innovation in this context.

Following this line, this approach leads in another piece of the puzzle curriculum that has been neglected in the field of curriculum studies - learning.

As refers Young (1998), "focusing on learning should be the center of educational critical theory of the future" (p. 181) and, considering that "the curriculum is inseparable from learning and pedagogy" (Young, 2010, p. 48), this approach is unavoidable in the relationship curriculum-pedagogical innovation. In other words, the question behind this approach is as follows: To what extent the prescribed curriculum (curriculum decided centrally) promotes or not the innovation of pedagogical practices? We'll be facing an unavoidable impossibility?

1. About the concept of curriculum

The concept of curriculum contains, in itself, distinct meanings, and sometimes incompatible, that hinder their practical and theoretical conceptualization (Pacheco, 2006; Silva, 2000; Pinar, 2007; Young, 2010). Tomaz Tadeu da Silva (2000) refers, in this respect, that "what the curriculum is depends precisely on how it is defined by different authors and theories" (p.12). In this sequence, theories must be understood as "classification or synthesis of various conceptions of curriculum, presented either in the form of guidelines, ideologies, whether in the form of legitimation processes and knowledge models" (Pacheco, 2001, p.33).

Zabalza (2004) conceives the curriculum as "the entire set of actions taken by the school with the sense of "learning opportunities" (p. 28). Stenhouse (1984) goes a step further and addresses the curriculum as a concept that embraces the decisions taken at the political / administrative (curriculum and teaching program or project), the decisions taken at regional level and the school and the curriculum as analysis scheme of what actually happens inside the classroom. The latter remit to student learning resulting from the operation of the program and / or curriculum design.

Roldão (2003) argues that critical theory and post-critical have focused primarily "on the mechanisms of power and hierarchy and legitimation of knowledge that underlie the curriculum and its social construction" [and that] the direct approach to the curriculum as organized body of learning and teaching has remained practically untouched "(p.17).

2. About the concept of Pedagogical Innovation

The concept of pedagogical innovation, has gained more space, either in the discourse of educational policy, either in their own educational institutions. However, finding a clear definition of pedagogical innovation, able to cover all the meanings that the concept contains, it becomes a task too complex.

Hernández (1998) refers that pedagogical innovation has different meanings, depending on the actors involved and, in this sense, any innovation is always motivated by values (those who promote it, those of whom coordinates, the who puts into practice and who receives their effects).

The concept of innovation appears, usually, associated with the concepts of change and reform. Correia (1989) distinguishes it from synonyms commonly attributed to it stating that all innovation causes always a rupture, even partial, with traditional practices. In this sense, consider a change process as an innovative process requires:

> an explicit reference to the type of break that he produces with ancient practices, the actors who are responsible for producing change, the degree of decision that each of them had in the production process and development, and of course, a detailed reference to the amplitude change (Correia, 1989, p. 28).

Independently of the multiple meanings of the concept, pedagogical innovation "implies qualitative changes in the pedagogical practices and these changes always involve a critical positioning, express or implied, in relation to traditional pedagogical practices" (Fino, 2008, p.277).

In this sequence, pedagogical innovation refers, firstly, to changes related to educational practice, and particularly with the pedagogical practice of teachers and, secondly, to structural changes in the central administration and education policies, as these influence the processes, practices and actions of the actors involved.

In this context, the curriculum should be instituted as a mechanism designer and developer of proposed intervention, transformation and change in the educational system (Marcelo, 1994), transformation and process improvement of teaching and learning, with repercussions in student success (Pacheco, 1995) and can embrace processes "ranging from changing specific components - such as objectives and proposed contents, methods and strategies suggested, textbooks support - until the restructuring of the curriculum" (Ribeiro, 1992, p. 73).

The curriculum innovation can not turn off, so, its practical context, which implies a necessary articulation between the different contexts of curricular decision and a recontextualization of the curriculum to the local dynamics, regional and the specific dynamics of each school (Flores & Flores, 1998; Pacheco, 1996).

3. The curriculum as a condition of pedagogical innovation

Carlos Fino (2009) argues that "the first step in any process of innovation must coincide with an awareness of the existing constraints against it" (p.275). In this sequence, the author draws attention to the *cultural invariant* , whose origin is part of a common cultural matrix of schools, as the first constraint to be dismantled:

> An invariant whose presence will manifest a bit everywhere, existing even in the minds of those who have not been subjected to any process of formal schooling, which suggests surreptitious forms of

> organization of school space and roles that should be performed by teachers and students, coming to interfere in the definition what will be, possibly, a good architecture to the service of education (Fino, 2009, p.259).

These most characteristic aspects of *the cultural matrix of common schools* constitute, itself, hidden components of the curriculum, to the extent that this stereotypical representation of the school, as well as the roles and functions that are expected of different actors is, in itself, carries meaning.

Assuming that the curriculum is one of the major constraints of the transformation of pedagogical practices, it will look in the next topic, to list a number of factors associated with the prescribed curriculum that condition and hinder the pedagogical innovation.

3.1. An uniform curriculum

The centralist tradition of our educational system emphasizes, according to João Formosinho (2007), the prescriptive character of exhaustive programs that "it is up to schools and teachers just "meet "- not" hold "or" rethink "(p.10). In his article *The Uniform curriculum- Ready-to-wear-one Size*[1] the author gives us the account of a curriculum equal for all, totally unsuited to the diversity of students at a school for the masses. A curriculum is an instrument that not only told the teacher what he should teach, but also the time and duration of dedicated to teaching the respective program contents. "Is that the weekly and annual car is one of the organizers of the teaching and this is just a means in relation to the true end of education that is learning" (Formosinho, ibid, p.21).

The much proclaimed pedagogical differentiation is, in this scenario, a very complex process and, sometimes, impossible, the teacher putting major constraints in the operation, reformulation and reconstruction of the curriculum (Gimeno, 1998) in the classroom. A good part of the studies concerning the role of the teacher as an agent curriculum, reinforcing the idea that the teacher should be seen as a professional capable of making decisions, according to their knowledge, their values, their ideas, the their critical thinking in the context of practice (Schwab, 1969; Stenhouse, 1987; Well-Peretz, 1988). But the question that arises is: what is the degree of autonomy that the professor has (in curricular terms) to take decisions?

On the other hand, it should be clarified two issues here that are apparently distinct but mutually intersect: the *pedagogical differentiation*, which deals particularly with the organization of the processes and practices of *teaching-learning* and the *curricular differentiation* which relates to the curricular offerings.

Not intending to explore, in this context, the issue of curricular differentiation, it is particularly important to question to what extent certain model curriculum interferes with the pedagogical practices of teachers, potentiating or inhibiting pedagogical innovation. To what extent is it possible to articulate certain logical, focused on teaching-learning activity, with the prescribed curriculum, "when the school structure, the organization of time and space and the structure of teachers' work are regulated by a model [curricular and institutional] that goes against "(Roldão, 2003, p. 55) of such logic? What pedagogical logic induces the prescribed curriculum?

3.2. An decontextualized and abstract curriculum

Another aspect that puts the curriculum under suspicion relates to the nature doubly abstract (since its conception of the nature of the content itself).

Formosinho (2007) reported that, in its design, the *uniform curriculum* based on an abstraction, as it is based on

> "Average student" who learns "normal rhythm", taught by an "average teacher" in "school averagely equipped". Such a student, such learning rhythm, such teacher and such school exist only in the statistics and in the minds of "illuminists" who designed the curriculum. Not found in our schools (p. 22).

As regards content, school programs ignore microcultures regional and contextual, which accentuates the gap between school culture and everyday life.

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[1] Written in 1985 for the *Jornal de Notícias* and at impact it had, was to be published (in book) in 2007.

Pacheco (1996) argues that the introduction of regional and local components in the curriculum is "one of the fundamental points of curricular innovation" (p.153). In the same line of thought Blásquez (1994) argues that this decentralization should be made from the center to the periphery, of the central administration for educational institutions and that innovation should focus on school, which implies greater autonomy for the teacher and the adoption curricular projects locally situated and developed a collaborative logic.

3.3. An fragmented curriculum

Edgar Morin (2003) draws attention to the inadequacy of compartmentalized knowledge, grouped by subject, given the complexity of reality. Following this line of thought, the curricula to accentuate the separation of knowledge, fragmented disciplines, hinder and distort their apprehension and comprehension, given its transverse and multidimensional dimension. In a well designed curriculum become invisible, as regards Morin (*idem*), "the joint complex, the interactions and retroactions between the parts and the whole; multidimensional entities and essential problems" (p.13).

3.4. An instructional curriculum

The curriculum studies have focused, essentially, "on the understanding of practices based on the indicators (political, professional, administrative, legal, etc.), that permit discusses or the knowledge transformed into learning content, or the forms of their organization" (Pacheco, 2007, p. 57). The author refers that, at the same time the discourse around the school and the curriculum has been increasingly influenced by critical theories, curriculum practices are increasingly legitimized by the theory of instruction, based on the model of *technical rationality*.

How to refer Sacristan (1995) and Fino (2009), the teacher-student relationship is also conditioned by the curriculum that, explicitly or implicitly, determines the roles of each others and, consequently, the type of relationship that is generated in this context.

> Es obvio que el curriculum hace referencia a la interacción e intercâmbios entre professores y alunos, expresándose en prácticas de enseñanza-aprendizage bajo enfoques metodológicos muy diversos, a través de tareas académicas determinadas, configurando de una forma concreta el puesto de trabajo del professor y el de aprendiz de los alunos (Gimeno Sacristán, 1995, p. 29).

The curriculum, in its dimension expresses and hides, focuses mainly on the role of the teacher as a diffuser, performer and transmitter curricular content. And, if we understand the curriculum as a *project-in-construction* (Morgado & Pacheco, 2011), it "can not be limited to a predefined set of teaching materials and teaching procedures standardized and identical for all" (Morgado & Pacheco, 2011, p. 42).

4. The emergence of a *learning curriculum* - construcionism as a system of pedagogical intervention

Firstly, it is important to clarify the terminology learning curriculum should not be interpreted in the context of this work, as an opposition to teaching. Let us try to understand it, without any equivocation, as a way to draw attention to the importance of a teaching mode more focused on students and their individual needs. Or, alternatively, we can also interpret it as a clear opposition to the curriculum that leads to teaching centered on the figure of the teacher as a mere transmitter of knowledge.

Pedagogical innovation implies a profound reflection on the role of the teacher, the student and how both relate to learning (Fino, 2009). Appears, this sequence, a curriculum potentiator learning contexts, focused on students and in their specific needs and potential, in other words, a curriculum that allows students to be, themselves, the protagonists of their learning process and constructors of their knowledge.

Recognizing that the answer to how individuals learn is far from being answered (nor is it the purpose of this work), the proposed constructionist as a system of pedagogical intervention in a *learning curriculum*, should be understood only as an alternative system possible within many others that could possibly be considered. In this context, the choice of theoretical references that underpin this approach falls on Vygotsky, Papert and Fino.

The *sociocultural theory of learning*, supported by Vygotsky (1978) and taken up later by Papert (1991, 1993), shows us that learning takes place in a particular sociocultural context, being the knowledge socially shared and constructed (*construcionism*). The development of the individual results, thus, from its interaction with the world and with others, this interaction is mediated by artifacts and tools socially constructed and shared. These tools may have, as regards Fino (1998), "a symbolic structure, such as language, or utensils can be of any type, including software" (p.1). In learning contexts this interaction is not restricted to the teacher-student communication but also the environment, the context in which the communication occurs. For Vygotsky (*idem*) all cognitive functions appear twice in the child's cultural development: first *interpsychologically* (between people) and subsequently *intrapsychologically* (within the child). In this case, the internal reconstruction of external operations, Vygotsky gave the name of *internalization*, which is the result of a series of developmental stages which allow the child to turn interpersonal processes intrapersonal processes. The concept of *Zone of Proximal Development*, developed by Vygotsky, is of great importance in this approach, in that it leads to a conception of curriculum, in which teaching and learning can not be considered, from the standpoint of conceptual and practical, as a "disjunctive utterance" (Pacheco, 2013).

4.1. The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) as the principal support of a learning curriculum

The PDZ express the idea of a potential area of cognitive development, defined by Vygotky (1978) as follows:

> Is the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potencial development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration whith more capable peers (p.86).

In other words, the ZPD is the difference between the independent and assisted performance.

What implications does the ZPD in learning curriculum? Carlos Fino (2000), in his reflection on the ZPD of Vygotsky, lists three major implications of the ZPD in education: 1). a window of learning, 2). learning as metacognitive process and 3). the importance of peers as learning facilitators.

Regarding the first implication, "the idea of ZPD suggests the existence of a window of learning in every moment of cognitive development of the learner, considered individually" (Fino, *ibid*, p.116). For this reason, a group of students, there is not only exist a window of learning, given the high number of students. And here is one of the main fundamentals of a learning curriculum.

Suit different learning implies windows provide each student group a wide range of proposals (activities, content, materials) that enable them to customize their learning and build your knowledge.

The second implication of the ZPD suggests that any learning process involves, in addition to internalization, an awareness (by the apprentice) of their knowledge. And this process can be guided by the teacher who must confront the students with tasks or strategies that lead to this awareness. Faced whith this metacognitive process, the student is then able to start the learning process at a higher cognitive level gradually.

The third implication of the ZPD in education lies in the importance attached to pairs as learning facilitators:

> Teaching an group of children, whose ZPD (windows or learning) only partially overlap, raises obvious problems, which can only that can only be minimized by the use of appropriatestrategies, which may be based on peer interaction (Fino, 2000, p.120 .)

In other words, teach, or to intervene in a ZPD, in Vygotsky's perspective, implies a one to one, so, in a class with many PDZ this intervention, with only a mediator, would become almost inglorious task (especially in groups with a high number of students). The collaborative learning, mediated by more capable peers, is a strategy that can help solve (or mitigate) this problem.

The concept of mediation is of particular importance in this context, and in a *learning curriculum*, assuming the teacher and peers as mediators, imposes the question: How to set the mediator teacher? Being a teacher, in the perspective of Vygotsky, means acting in a ZPD, providing students the support and resources to enabling it to apply a higher level of knowledge than it would be possible without help. Or, in other words, attend the student so that it be able to act at the limit of their potential. According to Papert (1980) the role of the mediator is to provide "all child support while it builds their intellectual structures with materials obtained in the culture that surrounds it" (p. 49). In this perspective, students learn according to the opportunities given to them to build their knowledge. The table below presents the main characteristics, as a synthesis, of the

instructional curriculum (more centered in teaching) and curriculum constructionist (more focused on learning):

Instructional curriculum	Constructionist curriculum
Emphasis on teaching.	Emphasis on learning.
The teacher as a "transmitter of knowledge".	The teacher as learning facilitator (*assisted learning*).
Passive role of students in their learning process.	Active role of students in their learning process and knowledge construction.
Teaching predominantly unidirectional: from teacher to students.	Collaborative learning: interaction between all stakeholders (the importance of other social in the knowledge construction).
Educational practices oriented to reproduction and school results.	Educational practices oriented to reflection and critical spirit.
Designing curriculum that does not respect the rhythms and learning needs of individual students.	Designing curriculum that meets students' ZPD distinct.
Organization of schools and classrooms (hidden curriculum): spaces that determine the prominent role of the teacher and the passive role of students; organization of classes or classes according to age.	Organization of schools, classrooms and classes: promoters spaces of interaction within and between pairs, group work (cooperative learning); saturated spaces of *cognitive nutrients* (Papert); the criterion of age in the preparation of classes no longer relevant.
Use of Information technology and communication (ITC) as a teaching resource.	Use of ITC as tools for mediation of learning and cognition.

5. (Im)Possibilities of intersection between the curriculum and pedagogical innovation

The approach that was presented here, focused on learning and learners, in the rhythm, on the needs and learning capabilities of each one, is only a proposal to be explored the intersection between the curriculum and pedagogical innovation. But it will be operationally a *curriculum constructionist*? With classes and groups of students ever higher, with an evaluation system increasingly focused on results, with national tests at the end of the teaching cycles, which require "an articulation between the national curriculum and external summative assessment [which results] control purposes at the level of teaching contents, transformed into learning goals "(Pacheco, 2012, p. 4), there will be conditions for a constructionist approach of the curriculum? To what extent is this centrality in the results (or not....) to influence the pedagogical practices of teachers? What curricular autonomy have, effectively, the teachers?

Pedagogical innovation, with repercussions on pedagogical practices and the improvement student learning depends, firstly, the way the curriculum is designed and prescribed, allowing (or not) an effective transversality / interdisciplinarity of contents, an effective flexibilization of curricular content (according to regional and local specificities local and according to specificities of schools) and, secondly, of teachers (as the main agents of curriculum) and the   margin of maneuver that teachers have in developing the curriculum. Pedagogical innovation can not dissociate itself from the action of teachers (as professionals critical, reflective and attentive to emerging changes) and other educational agents (Pacheco, 1995), but the action of teachers does not depend, exclusively on, of themselves and their willingness to innovate. And it is between these two poles, between what is prescribed and determined centrally and what is possible to decide in the classroom, that the intersection of curriculum and pedagogical innovation can happen, or not.

(In) conclusion - a challenge to the study of *curricular cultures*

Pedagogical innovation implies, the one part, a deconstruction of models and curricular practices in force, but also, a restructuring of learning contexts. With regard to curricular practices, urgent direct curricular studies

for research into *curricular cultures*[2], understood in this context, within the meaning given to it by Morgado and Pacheco (2011):

> The notion of curricular culture is broader than the notion of teaching culture   or school culture, reporting on, the one hand, to values, beliefs, attitudes, conceptions and behaviors, that give meaning to the thought of the subjects in the curriculum construction in specific contexts, and secondly, to the curricular practices that develop for their implementation, as well as the relationships that are established between them (p.45).

In this context, talk about curricular culture implies a holistic approach to the curriculum, in other words, the study of discourses and practices that mediate the relationship between the various contexts of decision , through which it is configured and, simultaneously, the articulation between the various actors that interfere, directly or indirectly, in its operationalization (management bodies, teachers, students, parents).

That curricular Culture that govern the everyday curriculum of the classroom? As teachers take ownership of the prescribed curriculum? What interpretations, filters and (de/re) constructions determine the real curriculum (lived and developed in the classroom)? And the students? What sense assign students to the curriculum? What forms of intervention or decision have students in the construction of the curriculum? And the charge of education? How to watch the charge of education for the curriculum? What degree of intervention have this issue?

The study of curricular cultures, to the focus on the daily activity of the classroom, refers to a curriculum conception capable of embracing the scientific and pedagogical, knowledge and practice (Caria, 1997), the theoretical and the practical, the formal and informal, the expressed curriculum and hidden curriculum. And, in this sense, the answer to the question posed at the beginning of this paper, about the (im)possibility of intersection between curriculum and pedagogical innovation, although it can be discussed theoretically, lacks an empirical approach, under which the contributions of the study curricular cultures are of particular importance.

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Towards a Critical Analysis of Curricular Practices of Eight Higher Education Teachers

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Abstract

It has been argued that most curricular practices in higher education settings are still strongly based upon the so-called *telling paradigm* rather than some sort of *interactive* or *socializing* way to foster better teaching and better learning. Besides, assessment practices are quite often oriented to grade students instead of being a means to engage them in deeper and more meaningful learning. At the same time, it is generally acknowledged that there is a need for studies that are based on stronger empirical data, collected in real classroom settings. In fact, it has been stated that without studies such as those one cannot get thorough descriptions of how one teaches, assesses, and learns in higher education classrooms. Putting it in another way: one cannot come up with credible statements on higher education curricular practices. Research reported in this paper was aimed at describing, analysing, and interpreting eight higher education teachers' curricular practices within undergraduate courses of four knowledge domains: *Arts and Humanities*, *Sciences and Technologies*, *Health Sciences*, and *Social Sciences*. In particular, the study dealt with issues such as: a) teaching planning and organization; b) feedback nature, frequency, and distribution; c) classroom dynamics; d) teacher and student roles; e) tasks, resources, and materials used in class; f) class structure and time management; g) nature and dynamics of assessment; and h) student participation. For the purposes of the investigation reported in this paper, data were collected through classroom observations of eight volunteer teachers (two for each knowledge domain), interviews with each one of these teachers and with eight groups students as well. The study makes a discussion of teachers' curricular practices while teaching courses in each one of the four mentioned knowledge domains. As a result, some policy, practical, theoretical, and methodological issues that could be taken into account when one thinks about new and innovative approaches to curriculum studies and curriculum theory are presented and discussed.

Keywords: curricular practices; curriculum studies; teaching; learning assessment; higher education

1. Introduction

Research reported and discussed in this paper was developed within a wider three-year research project (2011-2014) involving 36 researchers from four Portuguese and three Brazilian universities (The research project has been financed by National Funds through *Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia* (FCT) -Foundation for Science and Technology – Project PTDC/CPE-CED/114318/2009.). The overall purpose of the project is to describe, to analyse, and to interpret teachers' curricular practices, particularly related to teaching and assessment, in a diversity of practical or theoretical/practical undergraduate foundational courses in each one of the following knowledge domains: Social Sciences, Arts and Humanities, Health Sciences, and Sciences and Technologies.

This paper is a result of part of a preliminary research work that took place in one of the Portuguese universities involved in the project and it is aimed at: a) providing a description, analysis, interpretation, and reflection on the curricular practices (teaching and assessment) of eight higher education teachers (two per each one of the mentioned above domains of knowledge); b) providing a reflection, taking into account the study research framework, on some policy, practical, theoretical, and methodological issues.

2. Research framework

Research literature has been pointing out that students learn better when assessment and, in particular, formative assessment or assessment *for* learning, is integral to the organisation and development of teaching (e.g. Black & Wiliam, 2006). Nevertheless, it is acknowledged that curricular practices at the higher education level, namely teaching and assessment, are mostly based in the so-called *telling paradigm* meaning that teaching is essentially a

process where teachers are supposed to talk and students are supposed to listen. Learning, under these circumstances, is generally assessed through tests and/or final examinations (e.g. Biggs, 2006).

In the last decades students have been entering higher education as never before. As a result of this, both traditional teaching and assessment practices have been questioned and under pressure to change. Besides, in the European context, the so-called Bologna process (1999) put together a framework aiming at transforming and improving pedagogy and curricular practices in higher education. Consequently, there is a growing body of publications claiming, for example, that: a) there is a need for a greater integration of learning, teaching, and assessment; b) more attention should be put on the need to improve higher education teachers' expertise in the teaching, learning, and assessment knowledge domains; and c) there is empirical evidence showing that it is possible to improve higher education teachers' curricular practices (e.g. Bryan & Clegg, 2006; Falchicov, 2005; Menges & Austin, 2001). Indeed, in a literature synthesis of 30 empirical studies developed in a ten-year time span (2000-2009) Fernandes & Fialho (2012) concluded that new and innovative ways to assess students' learning have necessarily to be related with profound changes in the organisation and development of teaching. They also inferred that innovative assessment, namely formative assessment or assessment for learning, could only make sense if, for instances, students are provided with quality feedback, are engaged in finding solutions to a variety of tasks, interact on a regular basis with their colleagues and their teachers, use self-assessments and different forms of "interactive assessments" (e.g. peer assessment, small-group assessment) to regulate their learning, and participate in the processes of curriculum decision-making at the classroom level.

These are all pedagogical issues at the classroom level, particularly curriculum development ones, that need to be understood and that are still under-researched because there still is a need to elaborate in-depth descriptions, analyses, and interpretations about higher education teachers' curricular practices. This meaning that there is a need to look for patterns in those practices across different teachers, different courses and different specific contexts. Hopefully, as it has been referred to in the literature, these patterns might elicit the construction of a framework that could be a heuristic means to develop in-depth discussions and reflections on theoretical and practical curriculum matters (e.g. Menges & Austin, 2001). These authors, in their seminal paper, provided an in-depth discussion on a research framework for teaching in higher education that takes into account five interrelated elements: context, content, learner, teacher and teaching and learning environment. Besides, they discussed a set of recommendations for future research in areas such as *Faculty Learning and Development*; *Interactions among Teacher, Learner, and Method Variables*; *Influence of the Discipline*; and *Context-Specific Research*.

Obviously, pedagogical and curriculum issues are closely associated and one needs to take that into account when it comes to interpret and to reflect on what happens within classroom contexts. Barnett (2009) provides a discussion where pedagogy plays a significant role in developing those dispositions and qualities that, according to this author, students need in order to acquire knowledge. Thus, Barnett distinguishes the "immediate" relationship between teachers and what and how they teach from the "mediate" relationship between students and the curriculum they experienced. As it has been pointed out by other curriculum researchers (e.g. Goodlad, 1979; Goodson, 1997; Pacheco, 2005) Barnett also stresses the difference between the proposed curriculum and the curriculum experienced by the students. Ultimately, he mentions, it is the pedagogical relationship that could provide students with the dispositions and qualities that enable them to appropriate the curriculum in a meaningful way. Although Barnett considers that a curriculum in higher education should be built on the grounds of a "project of knowledge", he clearly refers that knowledge and the skills that enable one to deal with the world are not enough. In fact, he argues that the idea of "being" is a third "pillar" that might enable people to deal with this world's high complexity and, in his view, must have curriculum implications. Young (2008) also underlines the relevance of knowledge in the curriculum and brings up the idea of "social realism", recognizing the social basis of knowledge but underlining its context-independent nature and the differences between knowledge and common sense. Young states that the "curriculum of the past", advocated by the so-called neo-conservatives, ignores the surrounding social context where the curriculum "lives". On the other hand, he mentions, the "curriculum of the future" which the so-called instrumentalists advocate, fails to acknowledge that cognitive interests determine the extent to which any curriculum enables one to acquire knowledge. According to Young, discussing what the students should learn has been a neglected issue both by public policies and by educational researchers. Thus, on the grounds of his social realist approach he provides a set of guidelines and foundation principles that should orient curriculum policies (e.g. knowledge needs to be conceived as a "non-reducible element in the changing resources that people need access to in order to make sense of the world (p.90)"; if a curriculum was based on everyday experiences then it would only be recycling those experiences; the relevance of a curriculum based on research and pedagogy; the curriculum content and forms should be seen as dynamic and ever evolving issues). In the process of rethinking curriculum theory Young (2008, p. 92) remarks that "(…) we cannot go back to tradition or God in deciding what to teach: we have only reason, knowledge, and history".

3. Method

This research was qualitative in nature and data were collected by means of: a) in-depth interviews with each one of eight participant teachers; b) interviews with eight groups of students; and c) a total of about 160 hours of classroom observations (about 20h per teacher). For each one of the above-mentioned knowledge domains two volunteer teachers, teaching two different undergraduate courses of a given programme, were deliberately selected to participate in the study. A research framework defined the main research objects (e.g. teaching, assessment) and, for each one of the objects, a set of relevant dimensions (e.g. classroom dynamics; teaching planning and organization; nature, frequency, and distribution of feedback; nature of assessment). Based upon this framework both interview and observation protocols were conceived and developed through a collaborative and peer-review process. These protocols provided the necessary basis to guide data collection processes and to reach acceptable levels of consistency.

Data organization and systematization was developed through three different phases. In the first phase and for each of the eight teachers, three narratives on teaching and assessment practices have been produced: one as a result of the observations and the other two as a result of teachers' and students' interviews. In the second phase these three narratives were synthesized into one providing an integrated description of both teaching and assessment practices of each teacher. Therefore, at this stage, there were eight narratives – one for each teacher/course. Finally, the two narratives for each knowledge domain were integrated into one and, as a result, a total of four narratives were obtained. Each one of these four narratives is an account of both the observed and perceived teachers' curricular practices.

The aggregation and transformation of data followed the recommendations of Wolcott (1994) and took into close account both the research framework and the instrumentation produced.

4. Presentation and discussion of the main results

As one could expect the eight participant teachers exhibited a range of approaches to teaching and assessment that could be understood through a large variety of student, teacher, content, and context-related issues (Menges & Austin, 2001). Nevertheless, one could also discern a number of interesting similarities including among quite different courses and/or knowledge areas.

Generally speaking, all participant teachers carefully planned and organised their teaching taking into account the syllabi distributed to the students. Both the syllabi and other materials (e.g. bibliography, tasks, pedagogical guidelines) were often available in Moodle platforms or in the college and/or programme website. Also, all classes had well defined structures that seemed quite clear to the students although they ranged from somewhat "poor" ones (e.g. two-stage organisation: teacher synthesis of the previous class followed by teacher talk on new content) to "rich" ones (e.g. multiple-stage organisation: a synthesis of the previous class; teacher talk; students working on tasks with the teacher as an available resource; synthesis; and evaluation of the work done). Mostly, students felt quite at ease in all classes and enjoyed the overall environment, the opportunities and conditions to learn, and their relationships with both their teachers and their classmates. Teachers, on their side, always showed a genuine engagement in their teaching duties (e.g. being available – online or personally - to help students out; providing materials and guidelines; articulating classes with other colleagues) and seemed to sustain a quite good rapport with students.

Classroom dynamics were quite different from class to class. In some classes students were seldom involved in any sort of activities or were over dependent on their teachers since these were either lecturing what they were supposed to learn or telling them what they were supposed to do (e.g. Art History course; Law course; Numerical Modelling course; Chemistry course). Typically, in such courses, students were either taking notes or writing down what their teachers were saying or were writing on the board. In other classes (e.g. Drawing course; Human Geography course; Removable Prosthodontics course; Pharmacology course) students were actively involved in the classroom activities, working in different dynamics (e.g. small groups; large groups; pairs), engaging in task development, and participating in discussions about task and content-related issues. Actually, one might say that in these classes students seemed quite autonomous in their efforts to learn and they even seem very pleased with their interaction with the tasks and with the modes of communication and/or interaction among themselves and with their teachers.

Teachers assessment practices were quite consistent with their teaching approaches. That is, those teachers who fostered student active involvement in their own learning tend to make use of both formative and summative assessments as a means to improve learning, to use a variety of assessment tasks, to distribute quality feedback on a regular basis, to make learning assessment integral to teaching and learning, to define criteria, and to engage students

in self and peer-related assessments. In these cases, teachers seemed to be quite aware of the role that assessment could play in student learning improvement and, therefore, grading students was far from being the main and priority issue in the assessment process. On the other hand, assessment practices of those teachers who mainly "told the curriculum" and expected students to listen tended to be rather narrow in scope. That is, instead of being integral to learning and teaching aiming at improving these processes, assessment was totally oriented to grade students. This view is quite consistent with the "telling and listening" perspective on curriculum development. Therefore, processes such as student participation, feedback distribution, self and peer-assessments, and task development were totally absent in those teachers' curricular practices.

The nature of tasks together with certain classroom dynamics (e.g. small-group work, tutorial approaches, student presentations,) rather than the nature of subject-matter itself, seemed to make a difference when one talks about issues such as high student involvement in curriculum development, distribution and use of quality feedback, interactive modes of assessment, transparency in the assessment process, teaching and assessment innovation, and ample learning opportunities. These were indeed the sort of "characteristics" that could be observed in courses such as Drawing, Removable Prosthodontics, Pharmacology, and Research Seminar on Human Geography and that are somewhat consistent with both results and recommendations of the literature above-discussed.

5. Conclusions and reflections

The following conclusions and reflections were selected for the purposes of this particular research paper.

1. The study showed that teaching and assessment practices at the higher education level could be frankly improved. Hopefully, this means that institutions and their faculty members could play a fundamental role in ameliorating student learning. Thus, faculty professional development emerged as an issue that should deserve more attention. Indeed, one could learn that most of the teachers involved in this research, even the ones that could promote excellent teaching and learning environments, made much more use of intuitive approaches rather than of pedagogical grounded knowledge. Obviously, this can raise questions about the sustainability of innovative curricular practices. On the other hand, institutions might play a more active and significant role in curriculum policy contributing, for example, to discussing and clarifying their "project of knowledge" and the relationships between knowledge, pedagogy, and "being" (e.g. Barnett, 2009; Young, 2008).

2. Students did appreciate to be involved in curriculum development and this seemed to work as a means to motivate them to engage in all sorts of activities that, supposedly, help them to learn. This is a quite interesting and challenging issue to be discussed at the curricular practices level taking into account perspectives on the cultural and social construction of the curriculum (e.g. Pacheco, 2005).

3. Task selection is probably one of the most relevant issues concerning the development of the curriculum at the classroom level. Indeed, results of this study suggest that task nature, task form, and task content together with other conditions such as classroom dynamics, could induce quite favourable environments for teaching, learning, and assessment to occur at the highest level (e.g. Fernandes & Fialho).

4. Although most of the empirical data of this study were gathered through classroom observations, teacher practices were, at a large extent, the unit of analysis. This is a methodological issue that one might want to consider in further research studies since the possibility of using the classroom as whole as the unit of analysis seems more consistent with efforts to come up with more integrated and holistic views about what happens in the classrooms (e.g. Fernandes, 2011).

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Analysis of Articles Published in the Field of Critical Thinking between the Years 2000-2012

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Abstract

This study aims to analyze the methodological parts of articles published between 2000-2012 in the field of "Critical Thinking" in Turkey. For this purpose, articles were evaluated in terms of their publishing dates, number of authors, methods, data collection procedures, sample characteristics and data analysis techniques. The articles were analyzed within descriptive approach by using document analyses. A total of 91 articles attained by scanning the journals between 2000-2012 in ULAKBIM Database and ASOS Index was analyzed by content analysis method with "Article Classification Form". As the results of analyzing data, they have been determined that there has been a rise in the number of the studies in the field of critical thinking since 2009, that articles have been written by a few authors, that quantitative studies have been preferred, that data has been collected by questionnaire or likert type scale and that data has been analyzed by descriptive or inferential analysis method.

Keywords: Critical thinking, content analysis, analysis of article.

1. Introduction

It is observed that there has been a huge increase in the number of educational researches having a crucial role in shaping implementation related with system of education. While one portion of these studies constitutes the basis of educational reforms, the other portion tests the reliability of previous research results by review of literature. (Odom, Brantlinger, Gersten, Horner, Thompson& Harris, 2005; Onwuegbuzie& Daniel, 2003).

A general evaluation of educational literature for specific periods not only gives information on the qualities of researches related with these periods, but also sheds light on next researches (Erdem 2011). Several meta-analysis studies on different disciplines are available (Arık ve Türkmen 2009, Göktaş ve diğerleri 2012, Ulutaş ve Ubuz 2008, Yücedağ ve Erdoğan 2011). It is aimed to put out more comprehensive and more advanced studies by recombining and organizing independent researches and their results in the same environment in terms of specific criteria.

Methodological analysis studies on researches in the field of educational sciences dates back to 1960s (Elmore&Woehlke, 1996). Thus research trends in the field of Educational Sciences has been revealed. They are determined that respectively survey and experimental models have been mostly used in Saracaloglu and Dursun's study titled "Analysis of Master's Theses in the field of Curriculum and Instruction in Turkey" and that mixed and qualitative models have followed them. It is concluded that tools such as questionnaires and achievement tests have been mostly used to collect data. It is determined that most of the articles (56%) analyzed in Erdem's study to make a descriptive analysis on studies published in Educational Sciences Journals are in descriptive analysis type. It is an expected finding that mostly descriptive analysis, t-test and ANOVA (58%) have been used as data analysis technique. It is revealed that respectively experimental, survey, correlational and case study have been mostly preferred. According to that study, only a few researchers conducted their studies by taking into account of development in research methodology and using causal comparison and qualitative research models.

The studies indicate that it is possible to see studies on analysis of studies on educational sciences in terms of field of subject and methodology. While meta-analysis studies on different disciplines are about to reach a certain level of saturation, a necessity that meta-analysis studies must be done for the subjects in these disciplines. Thus, meta-analysis on studies on critical thinking has been a subject for our study.

The aim of this study is to analyze articles about "Critical Thinking" published between 2000-2012 in the field of "Critical Thinking" in Turkey. For this purpose, articles were evaluated in terms of their publishing dates, number of authors, methods, data collection procedures, sample characteristics and data analysis techniques.

2. Method

2.1. Research Model

This research is a descriptive study. Articles were analyzed with document analysis within the framework of the descriptive approach. Document analysis comprises analysis of written materials containing information on case/cases to be studied (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2004).

2.2. Scope of the Study

A total of 91 articles attained by scanning the journals between 2000-2012 in ULAKBIM Database and ASOS Index was analyzed.

2.3. Data Collection

Content analysis method was applied on each article by using "Article Classification Form". "Article Classification Form" was developed by Sözbilir and Kutu (2008). In this study, revised version of the form by Ozan and Köse (2012) was used. The form consists of 5 basic charters: article tag, research pattern/method, data collection tools, sample and data analysis methods. Data collection tool has been given in Appendix 1.

2.4. Data Analysis

Content analysis method was used to analyze the collected data. The procedure in content analysis is to put together the similar data within the framework of specific concepts and themes and to comment it in a way the reader can understand (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2004). The results of the analysis are expressed with the frequency and percent values.

3. Findings

Content analysis method was applied to totally 91 articles in order to determine the research trends in "Critical Thinking" by analyzing articles published in that field in the years between 2000-2012. Frequency and percent values about publication year of the articles have been given in Table 1.

Table 1: Publication Years of the Analysed Articles

Category	f	%	Category	f	%
2000	1	1,1	2007	8	8,8
2001	0	0	2008	10	11,0
2002	2	2,2	2009	14	15,4
2003	3	3,3	2010	14	15,4
2004	1	1,1	2011	15	16,5
2005	8	8,8	2012	7	7,7
2006	7	7,7			
Total	90	100			

15 articles (16,5%) were published in 2011, 14 articles (15,4%) were published in 2010 , 14 articles (15,4%) were published in 2009, 10 articles (11%) were published in 2008, 8 articles (8,8%) were published in 2007, 8 articles (8,8%) were published in 2005, and 7 articles (7,7%) were published in 2006. Frequency and percent values about the number of authors of the articles have been given in Table 2.

Table 2: The Number of Authors of the Articles

Category	f	%	Category	f	%
1 author	32	35,2	4 authors	2	2,2
2 authors	49	53,8	5 authors	0	0
3 authors	7	7,7	6+ authors	1	1,1
Total	91	100			

When it is analyzed in terms of the number of authors of the articles, it is seen that 32 articles (35,2%) were written by one author, 49 articles (53,8%) were written by two authors, 7 articles (7,7%) were written by three authors, 2 articles (2,2%) were written by four authors, and 1 article was written by seven authors. The frequency and percent values about research type of the articles have been given in Table 3.

Table 3: Type of the Articles

Category	f	%
Research-review	73	80,2
Theoretic (Compilation)	18	19,8
Total	91	100

73 articles (80,2%) are in research-review type and 18 articles (19,8%) are in theoretic (compilation) type. Frequency and percent values about research methods of the articles have been given in Table 4.

Table 4: Pattern/Method in the Articles

	Research Pattern	Research Method	f	%
Quantitative	Experimental	True experimental	8	8,8
		Quasi experimental	6	6,6
		Poor experimental	0	0
		Single subject	0	0
		Sub total	14	15,4
	Non-experimental	Descriptive survey	43	47,3
		Correlational	6	6,6
		Comparative	1	1,1
		Structural equation model	0	0
		Sub total	50	54,9
Qualitative	Interactive	Cultural analysis	0	0
		Phenomenology	2	2,2
		Grounded theory	0	0
		Case study	2	2,2
		Critical study	0	0
		Activity research	0	0
		Other	0	0
		Sub total	4	4,4
	Non-interactive	Concept analysis	16	17,6
		Historical analysis	1	1,1
		Meta analysis	0	0
		Other	13	3,3
		Sub total	20	22,0
Mixed	Mixed	Explanatory	1	1,1
		Exploratory	1	1,1
		Triangulation	1	1,1
		Sub total	3	3,3
		Total	91	100

64 articles (70,3%) has quantitative method, 24 articles (26,4%) has qualitative method and 3 articles (3,3%) has mixed method. 8 quantitative articles (8,8%) in experimental pattern are true-experimental, and 6 quantitative articles (6,6%) in experimental pattern are quasi-experimental. 43 quantitative articles (47,3%) in non-experimental pattern are descriptive, and 6 quantitative articles (6,6%) are correlational. 2 qualitative articles (2,2%) in interactive pattern

are in case study type, and 2 qualitative articles (2,2%) in interactive pattern are in phenomenology type. 16 qualitative articles (17,6%) in non-interactive pattern are in concept analysis type. One study (1,1%) in mixed type are in explanatory type, one study (1,1%) in mixed type are in exploratory type, and one study (1,1%) in mixed type are in triangulation type. There isn't any research in structural equation model, cultural analysis, concept analysis, case study and meta-analysis. Frequency values about data collection tools of the articles based on research-review type have been given in Table-5.

Table 5: Data Collection Tools in the Analysed Articles

Category	Sub category	f	Category	Sub category	f
Observation	Participant	1	Questionnaire/Scale	Open-ended	2
	Non-participant	0		Likert	59
	Unstated	2		Other	0
	Total	3		Total	61
Interview	Structured	0	Documents		23
	Semi-structured	4			
	Unstructured	1			
	Focus group	2			
	Unstated	0			
	Total	7			
Achievement test	Open-ended	0	Complementary (Alternative) evaluation		1
	Likert	2			
	Other	0			
	Total	2			
Ability/personality test	Open-ended	0	Other		0
	Multiple choices	5			
	Other	0			
	Total	5			

When articles based on research-review were analyzed, it is found that mostly questionnaire/scale (f=61) and documents (f=23) were used in the articles. Most of the questionnaires/scales are in likert type (f=59). Most of the interviews were carried out with semi-structured forms (f=4). Frequency values about sample groups have been given in Table 6.

Table 6: Sample Groups in the Analysed Articles

Category	f	Category	f
Pre-school	0	Teachers	8
Elementary (1-5)	3	Administors	1
Elementary (6-8)	13	Parents	0
Secondary	7	Instructors	1
Undergraduate	40	Inspectors	0
Post-graduate	1	Other	3

When the samples were analyzed, it is seen that mostly undergraduate students (f=40) and elementary (6-8) (f=31) were included in the articles. Frequency and percent values about the sample sizes of the articles are given in Table 7.

Table 7: Sample Size in the Analysed Articles

Category	f	%	Category	f	%
between 1-10	3	4,3	between 101-300	25	35.7
between 11-30	0	0	between 301-1000	19	27,1
between 31-100	20	28.6	between 1000	3	3,3
Total	70	100			

35,7% of the articles have sample between 101 and 300. Frequency values about data analysis techniques of the articles have been given in Table 8.

Table 8: Data Analysis Techniques Used in the Analysed Articles

Category	Sub category	f
Descriptive	Frequency/percent	24
	Mean/Standard Deviation	39
	Graphs	0
	Total	63
Inferential	Correlation	20
	t-test	36
	ANOVA	25
	ANCOVA	2
	MANOVA	3
	MANCOVA	1
	Factor Analysis	1
	Regression	2
	Non-Parametric Tests	5
	Structural Equity Models	0
	Other	0
	Total	95
Qualitative	Content Analysis	5
	Descriptive Analysis	25
	Other	0
	Total	30

When data analysis techniques are analyzed, it is seen that descriptive analysis techniques were used in 63 articles, inferential analysis techniques were used in 95 articles and qualitative analysis techniques are used in 30 articles. Frequency/percent values were calculated in 24 articles with descriptive analysis, and mean/standard deviation values were calculated in 39 articles with descriptive analysis. Mostly t-test (f=36), ANOVA (f=25), MANOVA (F=3), correlation (f=20) and non-parametric tests (f=5) were used in articles with inferential analysis. When qualitative analysis techniques are analyzed, it is seen that content analysis was used in 5 articles and descriptive analysis techniques were used in 25 articles. Frequency values about subjects of the articles have been given in Table 9.

Table 9: Subjects&Topics of the Analysed Articles

Category	f	Category	f
Instruction	33	Assessment and evaluation	0
Teacher-student characteristics	69	Training technologies	0
Learning	3	Philosophy of education	0
Teacher training	1	Classroom management	0
Curriculum evaluation	1	History of education	0
Education system	0	Scale development/adaptation/testing	1
Values education	0		

Most of the articles (69) were carried out in "teacher-student characteristics", and 33 articles were carried out in "instruction". Also, 1 article was carried out in scale development/adaptation/testing or curriculum evaluation or teacher training.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

In this research, it is aimed to evaluate the articles published in the field of "Critical Thinking " in the years between 2000-2012 in Turkey in terms of publication year, the number of authors, method, data collection tool, characteristics of the samples, data analysis techniques, fields of the subjects and subjects and to determine the research trends in the field of "Critical Thinking". For this purpose, 91 articles were analyzed, and the following conclusions have been drawn:

It is concluded that the number of studies on "Critical Thinking" has increased since 2005, and more than half of the studies surveyed (55%) belong to year 2009 and later. The majority of studies (89%) have one author or two authors. Ozan and Kose (2012) suggested in their study titled "Research Trends in Curriculum and Instruction: a Content Analysis" that studies in the field of "Curriculum and Instruction" mostly have few authors. They commented this

situation as instructors at the Department of Curriculum and Instructors are not in cooperation with instructors at different disciplines or universities while they are conducting their studies. Most of the articles (80,2%) are in research-review type. It is obvious that qualitative and mixed type are less preferred than quantitative type (70,3%). This result is supported by study titled "Content Analysis on Articles about Alternative Methods of Teaching Mathematics Published in the Journals of Education Faculties Between the Years 2000-2011" by Yalcınkaya and Ozkan (2012). Majority of studies (78%) using quantitative research method were carried out in non-experimental pattern. Quantitative articles in experimental pattern are in normal distribution in terms of using quasi-experimental (6,6%) and true-experimental (8,8%). In majority of the non-experimental quantitative articles (86,1%), descriptive survey method was used. In Karadag's study (2010) titled "Research Models Used in Doctoral Dissertation in Educational Sciences: Level of Quality , that quantitative studies have a large majority was commented as not keeping pace with the progress in the field. Qualitative articles in interactive patterns constituting only a few part of the studies (4,4%) used phenomenology and case study and didn't prefer other methods. Vast majority (80%) of qualitative articles in non-interactive pattern constituting 22% of the studies are in concept analysis type. Meta-analysis method doesn't take place in the studies. Thus, it is clear that there is a need for studies containing different methods. The numbers of mixed type studies; explanatory, exploratory and triangulation are almost equal, which consists a small part of the studies (3,3%).

It is also found that mostly questionnaire/scale (67%) and documents (25,2%) were used in the articles. Most of the questionnaires/scales (96,7%) are in likert type. In Goktas, Hasancebi, Varisoglu, Akcay, Bayrak, Baran and Sozbilir's study (2012), titled "Trends in Educational Researches in Turkey: a Content Analysis", it is determined that mostly questionnaire and attitude/personality/ability tests were used, but observation and alternative tools were rarely used.

When the sample groups in the articles were analyzed, it is seen that mostly undergraduate students (40 articles) were studied with, and they were followed by respectively elementary (6-8) and high school students. There is no study with pre-school students. It is probably because of that the person must have a certain level of maturity for critical thinking ability. In addition, it is remarkable that only one study was carried out with each of the sample groups; graduate students, instructors and inspectors, and there is no study with parents or inspectors. Sample size 101-300 was most preferred one (35,7%), which was followed by sizes 31-100 and 301-1000. It can be said that this situation occurred as the most of the researches were carried out in accordance with quantitative method and questionnaires/scales were applied to large groups.

Inferential analysis was used in the most of the articles (95 articles) in terms of data analysis techniques. Also, descriptive analysis was used in 63 articles, and qualitative analysis was used in 30 articles. It is concluded that descriptive and inferential analysis techniques were used together. As a descriptive analysis techniques, the most preferred one was mean/standard deviation, secondly frequency/percentage was used, and graphs weren't used. As an inferential analysis technique, the most preferred one was t-test, which was followed by ANOVA and correlational analysis. Analysis techniques such as MANCOVA, ANCOVA, regression analysis and factor analysis were less preferred. There is no study using structural equity models. Qualitative researches preferred descriptive analysis as data analysis technique. Arik and Turkmen (2009) determined that respectively frequency/percentage, variance analysis and t-test were most commonly used. Similarly, Erdem (2011) determined that respectively t-test, ANOVA and descriptive statistics were mostly used. It was commented that researcher chose any method appropriate for his/her knowledge level.

The main focus was on "student-teacher characteristics" in the most of the studies. It was followed by "instruction". Articles were generally about how any sample or any instructional method affects critical thinking ability. Hence, it can be said that fields of subjects present the expected level of distribution. However, it is remarkable that studies focused on similar themes rather than enrich the scope by different fields of subjects.

Consequently, when the articles about critical thinking published between the years 2000-2012 are analyzed, it is concluded that there has been a rise in the number of the studies in the field of critical thinking since 2009, that articles have been written by a few authors, that quantitative studies have been preferred, that data has been collected by questionnaire or likert type scale and that data has been analyzed by descriptive or inferential analysis method. It indicates that mixed methods, multiple techniques and sample groups weren't preferred and that similar methods were used as generally similar themes like critical thinking level were preferred. It can be said that studies are repetition of one another.

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Education and culture: a complementary relationship

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Introduction

In the book Culture of Education, Bruner wrote the following:

> We are the only species who teaches in a significant way. Mental life is lived with others, it emerges to communicate and develops with the help of cultural codes, traditions and so on. But this goes beyond the school's domain. Education does not just occur inside the classroom (Bruner, 1996, p. 11).

According to this author, the children´s and young people's social and discursive construction, involves a complex of forces which is not limited to school. The construction of knowledge does not has a right place to happen, that's why it doesn´t arises exclusively in school. In other words, the knowledge's field is not restricted to formal learning environments, it also covers the informal environments of social interaction and cultural institutions themselves. Therefore, our relationship with the world is the basis of our knowledge.

It is in this perspective that cultural studies analyse institutions and cultural processes which confirm that the social and cultural realities are also involved in the transformation of identity and subjectivity. So, they defend that cultural instances are also pedagogical (Silva, 2000).

Therefore, this article focuses in an analysis of the curriculum and its relationship to culture, pedagogy and power. As such, I start it doing a reflection about the curriculum's concept and context, as a knowledge, culture and power issue, according to Giroux (1999), Pacheco (2001) and Silva (2000). Then, I refer the relationship of culture and pedagogy according to Bruner (1996), Giroux (1997), Silva (2005, 2000) and Titiev (1963), and I further analyse the way we teach for life in the life itself. Finally, I do an approach about the curriculum reconstruction that incorporates the identity, subjectivity, the everyday knowledge and interests of students, according to Giroux (1997), Rodrigues (2011), Silva (2000), Sousa (2002), where Sousa's concept of curriculum-as-life (2012), emerges as the template to create the curriculum.

Curriculum: a matter of knowing, culture and power

The curriculum lexeme has its etymology in the Latin word, meaning race course. According to William Pinar, the word curriculum, originally race course, derives from the Latin verb currere which means run. The emphasis is then placed on the act of run in the race course, a pathway that leads us to what we really are. As such, the curriculum presents itself as a matter of acquiring knowledge, subjectivity and identity, changing the people that run this route (Silva, 2000).

The term curriculum has received numerous interpretations because, despite its emergence as field of study and expertise, there isn't unanimity about its true meaning yet. Each interpretation was defined according to the designed reality by each researcher, thus influencing the criterion of knowledge taught and the identity and subjectivity of those who will be taught, thus creating the so-called "theories of the curriculum", theories stuffed of statements of how things should be (Pacheco, 2001; Silva, 2000).

However, inevitably, all these theories look into the same question: Which knowledge is considered valid or important to deserve to be part of the curriculum? Once:

> the curriculum is always the result of a selection: from a broader universe of knowledge and wisdom, we select the part that will be the curriculum. The theories, having decided which knowledge should be selected, seek to justify why "these knowledge" and not "those" should be selected (Silva, 2000, p.13).

According to Silva (2000), theories of curriculum, when selecting the type of knowledge they consider important, they also have in mind, other relevant issues: In what is that human being should become? In rational and illustrated people of the humanist ideal of education? In optimistic and competitive people of the current neoliberal models of education? Or in adjusted people to the ideals of citizenship of the modern nation-state? Each "exemplar" of human being, that each society considers to be the supreme perfection, matches a certain type of knowledge and of

curriculum. Therefore, the curriculum seeks to shape people who experience it, highlighting in their theories the question of knowledge and also the issue of "identity" and "subjectivity". According to a post-structuralist perspective, the curriculum is presented as a question of power, *i.e.*, when theories determine what should be the curriculum, giving privilege to a knowledge instead of another knowledge. When the theories select an identity or subjectivity as being the ideal, they establish a power operation. And it is precisely this question of power that separates theories from others theories, *i.e.* separates traditional theories from the critical and post-critical theories of the curriculum.

Now, it's relevant to open a parenthesis to underline that there isn't a particular theory to reveal us the curriculum's true meaning, but what a particular theory thinks to be the curriculum's essence (Silva, 2000).

Therefore, the curriculum does not have a unique interpretation. In the set of literary productions on Educational Sciences, we found copious definitions and concepts with identical and atypical definitions, which reflect the diversity of representations and methodologies that each researcher formulates and adopts.

The definition and contextualization of the curriculum referred in this work, follows Giroux's critical theory, once his studies are guided for the purposes of this work. Giroux concerns increasingly with the culture issue, in connection with the pedagogical and curricular issue.

According to Giroux the curriculum can no longer be read as a merely technical an aseptic field and as such out of the original context. The curriculum has no longer nothing to do with that instrument of transfer of knowledge, without social intention. Giroux uses studies conducted at the School of Frankfurt on the cultural dynamic and the critique of technical rationality. He draws the curriculum from concepts of emancipation and freedom. Giroux looks at the pedagogy and curriculum as a cultural field of conflicts (Giroux, 1999; Silva, 2000).

According to Giroux, emancipation and freedom have the intention to aware individuals to the existence of control, of inequalities and of power, intrinsic to the curriculum. According to him, the curriculum should incorporate desires, ambitions, thoughts and the students' active participation, formerly removed (Giroux, 1999).

For the author, the dynamic focus of the curriculum is founded on the cultural studies and, according to these studies, the curriculum is an instrument that expresses meanings and is constructed socially and culturally from power connections. In other words, the curriculum is a political artefact, inwrought with ideology, social structure, culture and power (Silva, 2000).

"According to Giroux, there is little difference between the pedagogy and the curriculum fields, on the one hand; and cultural field on the other hand. It's a cultural policy issue in both cases" (Silva, 2000, p.56).

1. Pedagogy and Culture: where each begins and ends?

Bearing in mind that our concern is growing over how our children and young people acquire knowledge, knowing full well that unlike previously, knowledge is not restrict to school, and reflecting again on what Giroux defends, I think it's important to reflect on the following questions: what is, after all, the culture? What is pedagogy? Where to begin and end each one?

The word pedagogy, is, according to the *Dicionário da Língua Portuguesa 2013*, the "art theory, philosophy or science education, in order to define its goals and means capable of achieving them" (2012, p. 1207).

The pedagogy studies the issues in the area of education, both in theoretical and in practical field, and guides the educational practice. It is defined as an art of educating or set of knowledge subordinate to education.

The word culture, on the other hand, is defined by the same Portuguese dictionary as such:

> development of certain faculties through the acquisition of knowledge, education 7 set of acquired knowledge that contribute to the formation of the individual as a social being, namely 8 set of customs, institutions and works which constitute the heritage of a community or group communities 9 complex system of codes and standards shared by a society or social group and manifested in the norms, beliefs, values, creations and institutions that are part of individual and collective life of that society or group (2012, p. 453) .

As such, being culture a set of attitudes, customs, beliefs, and worldviews acquired by learning and transmitted from generation to generation, the culture shapes the minds of individuals placed in it (Bruner, 1996).

In this perspective, culture is the way a particular social group lives together, giving meaning to life conditions assigned to it, consciously or not. It is in the culture that we find the means to construct and understand our worlds.

Without such symbolic or material instruments, we would not be much more than "naked monkeys", we would be "an empty abstraction" (Giroux, 1997; Titiev, 1963).

It is in this perspective that Silva (2005) argues that culture is a matter of identity and subjectivity, since the culture gives meaning to our experiences, and moulds us, reason why we embrace an identity between a number of possible identities.

According to Silva (2000), the "culturalist turn" resulted, in curriculum theorizing, the decrease of the boundaries between school knowledge and everyday knowledge.

In the cultural studies' perspective, culture is like a field of conflict around social significance. Therefore, all knowledge is culture, because it is a system of signification.

Cultural studies, when studying cultural instances, such as museums, science fiction books, movies, advertising, visual arts and music, do a sort of equipollence between these extracurricular cultural forms and school processes, because, such as the education, other cultural systems are also pedagogical, because despite some extracurricular cultural forms do not have a planned goal to teach, they always teach something.

It is in this perspective that culture becomes educational and vice versa. "If it's the culture concept that allows the equation between education to other cultural instances, it is the pedagogy concept that allows you to perform the reverse operation" (Silva, 2000, p.144).

According to this perspective, both education and culture shape our interests, tastes, ways of thinking, i.e., both are crucial references in the construction of our identity and subjectivity.

According to Silva:

> which characterizes the contemporary social and cultural scene is precisely the erasure of boundaries between institutions and spheres, previously considered as distinct and separate. The revolution in information systems and communications such as the Internet, became increasingly problematic to separate and distinguish the everyday knowledge of the knowledge of mass culture and school knowledge (2000, p.147).

2. Teaching for life in our own lives...

The knowledge acquired by the various cultural conditions, based on natural and common experiences in our daily lives, consciously or not, give meaning to our lives, teaching us to life in our own life.

In today's world, education takes place beyond the school walls, by which, according to Giroux (2003), is no longer possible to ignore the culture disseminated by the mass media.

By studying the pedagogy of the mass media, Giroux underlines that Disney movies like The Little Mermaid or Aladdin, hide, behind the rhetoric of innocence, sexist and ethnocentric assumptions that, according to this author, far from being innocent, shape the identity of our children and young people in a very particular way (Silva, 2000).

The cultural industries are, increasingly, taking a unique and devastating place, giving meaning to our lives, constructing identities, awakening a variety of passions, desires and moral values, *i.e.*, shaping the way people live as well as their future (Giroux, 2003).

According to James Young, quoted by Giroux (2003), the culture tells the story of the unfolding of events in order to influence the naturally way people embrace and accommodate themselves to certain forms of cultural citizenship.

As such, the culture has become:

> a pedagogical force, and its function as a condition for broader educational learning is crucial for application forms of literacy learning within diverse social and institutional spheres, by which people define themselves to themselves and their relationship with the social world (Giroux, 2003, p.19).

Currently, studies about the broader cultural pedagogies extend to the curriculum. According to Giroux (1997) the experience of students is, increasingly, intertwined with their lives at home and on the street.

3. Does a curriculum make sense when disconnected from life?

The cultural pedagogy is increasingly involved in the lives of children and young people. Therefore, this can no longer be ignored by any contemporary theory of the curriculum (Silva, 2000).

However, the lack of communication between culture and curriculum is leaving formal education institutions, increasingly, obsolete. Reflecting on the reasons for the school failure, we are able to confirm that one of the main reasons for the students' lack of interest is the lack of an attractive curriculum in schools.

Nowadays, there is no place for a curriculum-as-plan, conceptualized as a decisive conversation, closed and separated or disconnected from the lives of our children and young people. It is important to reflect, critically and constructively, to understand the curriculum purpose, reflecting, then, on the following questions: Nowadays, is the school considered a world apart? Does the school have nothing to do with life? What is the real purpose of school? What is really important for them to learn? It is important that students have a critical thinking? How can teachers approach education differently?

To answer all these questions, it's important to emphasize Giroux's (1997) idea, where he states that students should learn in a dialectic way and not in an isolated and fragmented way, and that students should be critical agents, since they bring to the institutions formal educational requirements and skills gained in the course of their day-to-day.

Consequently, according to Giroux (1997), teachers should select school knowledge more meaningful to the lives of their students by providing them with curricular content and pedagogical practices consistent and adjusted to their life experiences.

Besides, and according to Giroux (1997), it is necessary to conceptualize a curriculum that takes into account the critical discourse, instead the schooling's quality and purpose, involving cultural procedures and identity construction. It's important to develop a broader perspective in order to further enrich the curriculum field, rather than master it.

One of the main barriers of the curriculum is to make it meaningful and at the same time, appealing to students. To carry out a seductive and ambitious curriculum, we need a curriculum-as-life, a curriculum with relevant contents for students, allowing them to express, rather than silence their voices, a curriculum that stimulate the dialogue between various worldviews and develops new knowledge and new ways of understanding reality (Sousa, 2012)

According to Sousa (2012), in the conceptualisation of a curriculum-as-life, the school should change the intentions of what it wants to convey, the internal processes that are developed in institutionalized education and reflect on its day-to-day through work projects, group works and interdisciplinary works involving students and teachers. Inside this ambience, they discuss, guide, advise, take notes on autobiographical narrative portfolios, train the critical thinking and the aesthetic sensibility, *i.e.*, they live their lives in its plenitude.

Teaching is a cultural practice that gains meaning through historical and political reflections, interconnected with the power and culture. It is from the culture, interests and needs of society that educational practices should be built (Sousa, 2002).

According to Paulo Freire, education is a cultural action related to the process of critical awareness, having nothing to do with banking education which reduces to a simple transmission of knowledge (Sousa, 2012).

A curriculum-as-life has to incorporate the knowledge that emerges from the experiences of our children and young people. It is essential that the curriculum fosters skills that go beyond the cognitive, involving various fields of culture and a critical and authentic thinking (Rodrigues, 2011; Sousa, 2012).

4. Conclusion

Nowadays, the education does not exhaust itself in the classroom. Teachers are no longer exclusive mediators of knowledge, and the schools have lost the condition of single place of reading, knowledge acquisition and learning. The education became the sum of what children and young people learn in the school and in other educational places, in social environments or cultural and institutions.

However, we are living today, a time marked by a vertiginous and frightening acceleration. On the other hand, we are living in overly speedy schools, with highly technical curriculums, structured according to specific goals, overfilled of contents, not giving time to students to assimilate and reflect on such contents, so limiting the development of intellectual quality.

Therefore, it is urgent that school rethink its function within the current context and adopt the curriculum-for-the-future, according to the bibliography examined by me, a curriculum ambitious but, at the same time, attractive to students.

The curriculum-of-the-future has to be undoubtedly grounded on the curriculum-as-life, incorporating the knowledge that emerges from everyday life, traditions and culture, a curriculum that embraces in its day-to-day, project work and group work, involving teachers, students and families. However, the curriculum should also be a curriculum-without-time, flexible and appealing, not rushed, *i.e.*, providing time-without-time to imagination, reflection and critical and constructive thinking.

To end this article, I also refer that, according to Sousa (2012), it's important "to recognize, just like Charles Jencks did, that the re-conceptualization of the curriculum implies a rethinking of some beliefs and structures that have settled as sacred in the human consciousness for over five hundred years" (p. 22), to thereby live life in its fullness by inserting children and young people in the world, teaching the present, the past and the possible...

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The Analysis of the New Development in the Turkish Education System (4+4+4) In Respect to Program Preparation

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Abstract

As of the years 2000 to date, Turkey has made significant efforts in increasing the ratios of schooling and in providing an equal education system by eliminating the coefficients in the entrance to higher education. The 4+4+4, one of the new developments in the Turkish education system, has led to various arguments. In reviewing the matter favorably, it is planned to increase the mandatory education period to 12 years. And this issue is considered as a necessity in the integration with the world and Europe. However, at the national level, lowering the age of starting primary school, has become a source of concern in the different layers of society as to its acceptability. It appears that the learning abilities of the children from families of higher income as opposed to children from lower income families may create problems. Additionally, combining of the classes, and children of various age groups studying together has caused various concerns for the parents. Although we are in the years 2000, it is observed that program development was not made in education in accordance with scientific studies and implementation stages were not taken into consideration. This study was prepared to provide answers to the following questions.

1. What are the positive and negative aspects of the new system introduced?
2. How can the concerns of the families and the pedagogs be overcome?
3. Has this system been introduced to meet a public need or as a state policy?
   What is the gist of the arguments in this regard?
4. Where does this system stand when compared to the similar implementations in the world?
5. What is the program development stages followed in the implementation of this system?

The purpose of this study is to find answers and recommendations for solutions on the place of program development in the method followed in the implementation of the 4+4+4, a new development in the Turkish education system, by obtaining the views of principals, branch chiefs, provincial education directors and education auditors.
This research method is qualitative research method. Data collection form was used in semi-structured interview developed by the investigators. Interview forms are created, experts gave their opinions. NVivo 8 qualitative data preparation program participants using the received data, content analysis will conduct. The sampling of the research is comprised of 200 participants such as principals, branch chiefs, assitant provincial education directors, and provincial education auditors Turkey wide who participated in the different seminars conducted as the Rize/Çayeli On-the-Job Training Institute of the Ministry of Education during the 2011-2012 and 2012-2013 academic years.

Key Words: New system, Families concerns, Layers of society, Children of lower income families and Children of higher income families

Introductıon

Together with the establishment of the Republic in 1924, the curriculum for the primary schools in the rural areas was set as 3 years and in the urban areas the curriculum was set as 5 years. In July of 1939, the curriculum of all the rural schools was elevated to 5 years. The implementation of 8 years of primary school was started during 1981-1982. This implementation covered the education of children between the ages of 7 to 14 and made education compulsory. A

primary school diploma was given at the end of five years of primary education and a (secondary) school diploma was given at the end of three more years of education. Age six implementation was started during the 1983-1984 academic year. As of the 1997-1998 academic year, country wide compulsory 8 years of education was implemented. Parallel to these developments religion classes were eliminated from the program in 1930. Religion class was established again in February 1949, outside of the program, and was implemented as two hours a week. In November 1950 religion class was included in the program. In the academic year 1974-1975, ethics lessons were put in the program for 4th and 5th grades. As of the 1982 -1983 academic year this lesson was incoporated as "Religion and Ethics" and began to be taught for 2 hours a week as a compulsory lesson as of the 4th grade. (Akyüz 2010; Binbaşıoğlu, 2009; Güven 2010a). Besides, this is the only lesson that was scrutinized to be taught as a compulsory lesson in the 1982 Constitution (Kale 2004). As of the 2000-2001 academic year, "Religious Culture and Ehics" lessons begain to be implemented in the 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th grades.

With the decision of the National Security Council, dated 28 February 1997, 8 years of "uninterrupted" education was ordered to be implmnented as of 18.8.1997 with the intention of closing down the secondary section of the Imam-Hatip schools, on grounds that they were giving religious education in Turkey (Akyüz 2010, Ergün 2013, Güven 2013b). We can say that the 4+4+4 system was introduced because religious education has not yet been resolved to the satisfaction of the public (Ergün, 2013; Güven, 2013b).

Religion has always been among the most sensitive cultural issues in society (Bilhan, 1991). In democratice applications individuals have the liberty to obtain their religious education in the manner they want. Even if the education is given with interruptions this is still a democratic application and we can see these applications in devloped countries. Although developed countries apply interrupted education, the compulsory education period in these countries is 11 to 12 years (Balcı, 2012; Eurydice, 2012; Ergün, 2013; Murray, 2006). Throughout the world, in 60 countries out of 197 the education period is 8 years or less and in 130 countries the education period is between 9 to 12 years and in 7 seven countries education is given for 13 to 14 years (UNESCO, 2011).

With the arrangements made In accordance with the law number 6287, dated, 30.03.2012, on the "Amendments to Primary Schools and Education and amendments on certain other laws 1, 2, 3 and 4th grades were classified as primary school; 5, 6, 7 and 8th grades were classified as secondary school. It is stated that with the written consent of the parents chıldren who are between 60-66 months of age and who are ready for education may be enrolled in primary schools for the 2012-2013 academic year (MEB, 2012). With this new development the secondary schools of the Imam-Hatip schools and other high schools have been opened as scondary schools.

If a new implementation is going to be made in the education system a requirement analysis of this implementation neeeds to be made first. The necessary objective, contex, teaching and learning process and evaluation situtations should be prepared after the requirements analysis and pre-applications of the new system should be made, results should be obtained, corrections should be made and the change should be applied once again (Howard, 2007, Ornstein ve Hunkins, 1998; Erden, 1998; Demirel, 1999). The new system may be applied after the necessary corrections are made and deficiencies are overcome. . The 4+4+4 system jus like the other implementatins such starting school at the age of 6, passing lessons and with credit, lifitng of mandatory foreign language education are applications which were not implemented beforehand (pilot study) for shortfalls.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to seek answers to questions such as what is the place of the program development for the implementation of the 4+4+4, a new develoment in the Turkish education system, by discussing the matter with principals, branch chiefs, provincial education directors and education auditors and to come up with recommendations.

Method

The method of the research is qualitative. Phenomenology design was used in keeping with the nature of the research. The pilot implementation of the reserah was conducted at the On-the-Job/Training Institute at Rize/Çayeli with the administrators who participated in the seminars and the questions in the discussion form were tested and the necessary corrections were made. The validity of the scope of the discussion form was accomplished by obtaining the views of the experts.

Sampling Group

The sampling of the research is comprised of 200 participants such as principals, branch chiefs, assitant provincial education directors, and provincial education auditors Turkey wide who participated in the different seminars conducted as the Rize/Çayeli On-the-Job Training Institute of the Ministry of Education during the 2011-2012 and 2012-2013 academic years. Different types of samplings were used for the education administrators who partcipated in the working group for easy access and for representing each region and province. The demographic features of the education administrators who participated in the study are given in Table 1.

Table 1: Demographic features of the working group

Gender	Femalen	26
	Male	174
	6-10	14
	11-15	36
	16-20	40
	21-25	26
	26-30	18
	31-35	36
	36 and more	30
Education	Graduate	152
	Post graduate	48
Type of Duty	Branch Chief	50
	Asst.Prov.Education Director	50
	Prov. Edu.Auditor	50
	Principal	50

In Table 1 we see that women comprise 26% of the working group and men comprise 74%, majority of the memebrs of the group have more than 16-20 years of senioriıty, which shows that they are quite experienced in this field and that most of them hold graduate degrees.

Analysis of the Data

NVIVO 8 qualitative data program was used in the analysis obtained from the aplication of the semi-completed discussion form. The compatibility of the codes was tested by obtaining the views of three experts for the codes used in the analysis of the data. Direct exerts were also contained to reflect the individual views and remarks of the educational administrators.

FINDINGS

Table 2: Views pertaining to the positive aspects of the 4+4+4 system

• The students should be separated according to their age levels
• Buildings should be separated (primary and secondary school)
• Importance should be paid for the guidance of professional selection.
• They should be channelled into professional education at an early age
• Village schools should be kept open, villages should have schools
• There should be programs for disabled students
• There should be a gradual transition
• Compulsory education period should be extended
• Increase the number of lessons according to the interest and skills of the students.
• Programs should be rearranged according to age levels
• Secondary schools should be opened for every type of secondary education
• Quruan lessons should be included
• Narrowing down of the work load and work fields of the agency administrators (specialization in the field)

One of the most positive issue, out of the subjects contained in Table 2, that the educators addrssed is the extension of the compulsory education to 12 years. The positive opinion in connection with this subject is given below:

"We have adapted ourselved to the advanced countries of the world. The average education period received by a Turkish national has increased. Importance paid to professional education has increased. Quality labor force of Turkey will increase."

Table 3: Views pertaining to te negative aspects of the 4+4+4 system

• Starting of compulsory education by lowering the school starting age (60-66 mon ths age group)
• Lack of infrastructure
• Problems arising from transporting students to schools
• Coercing the students to select their professions at an early age.
• Pre-school education could not be given because of the transitioning to the system in the 2012-2013 academic year.
• Pre-school education should not be compulsory
• The problem of combined classes
• The system supports open education and not compulsory education
• This system makes it difficult for children who do not speak Turkish, in the regional sense, to adapt to the school
• This system makes it difficult for the girls in Anatolia and in the southeast region to go to school
• The hours of the selected lessons are very full and there is ambiguity in the implementation
• National values have been ignored in the dimension of the program.
• The programs and the lesson books are not ready accoring to the new system
• There is an excess of teachers and administrators and a requirement for branch teachers

The most unfavorable subject among those in Tableo 3 that the educators addressed was the lowering of the school starting age. In the research conducted by Karadeniz (2012) on 468 teachers, 76.5% of the teachers were not in favor of 66 months old children starting school, 86.5% of the teachers were not in favor of children starting school wihout going to pre-school, and 69% felt that this system will hurt pre-school education. The view on this subject is given below:

"Lowering of the school starting age was wrong. It was incorrect to advance the school starting age by one year. Because this system was implemented during 1983-1984 but terminated because positive results were not obtained. Many students could not receive pre-school education because of the transitioning into the sysem. Whereas they could have made kindergarten compulsory instead."

Table 4: Views on the elimination of the concerns of families and pedagogs

1. The program has to be presented very well by giving educational publications in the written and visual media
2. Determination of the subjects over which families and pedagos have concerns, maintaınıng of constant communication with the members for the elimination of the problems encountered and making corrections in the system.
3. Overcoming of the concerns if the system is going to be permanent or not.
4. School starting age must be corrected very urgently.
5. Making the programs lighter
6. New programs (according to the age level) should be prepared as soon as possible
7. The physical conditons of the school buildings should be re-arranged according to the age and levels.

The biggest concern of the educators, families and pedagos on the subjects in Table 4 is that the implementation and the stages of this system have not been explained sufficiently and their main concern is that if this sytem is going to be permanent or not. The families have concerns as to which profession their children will choose. .

Table 5: Views on the implementation of the system as a communal necessity and state policy.

1. This system has definitely arisen out of political concerns
2. It was created with political concerns and is being shaped according to communal requirements.
3. This system came to being as a communal necessity. Political discussions are being made on it.
4. This system came about as a communal necessity. Majority of the students' parents wanted the secondary section of the İmam-hatip to be opened.
5. Political concerns bear heavy on the introduction of this sytem. It would have been better if they had made minor changes and opened the secondary section of Imam-hatip schools.
6. Both communall necessity and political concerns led to the creation of this system.

The subject in Table 5 is the subject discussed most negatively by the educators.   Whether or not this system was introduced as a communal necessaity or for political reasons, the point everybody agrees on is that this was implemented to open the secondary section of the Imam–hatip schools. Again in the research conducted in (2012) by Karadeniz 66.9% of the teachers said that the system was the politicai choice of the ruling power, 58.1% of the teachers stated that this system was made to create a conservative, and a religious generation. Positive and negative opinions on this subject are given below:

"I think this sysem came about as a political necessity. I believe that this arrangement was made to raise a "Religious" generation. I believe that they lowered the school age by professionally taking into consideration the development stages of children to raise such a generation."

"This system came about as communal necessity. To open the secondary section of Imam-thatip schools. Majority of the students' parents wanted this. However, when this was accomplished according to the desires of the citizens the demand for the secondary section of Imam-hatip schools did not reach the expected levels. This ımplementation was made in haste in the name of innovation, and change to mee the requests of a certain of people."

Table 6: Views on the interrupted-uninterrupted implementation of the system (Similar applications in the world)

Interrupted Education	166
Uninterrupted Education	34

According to the data in Table 6, although the majority of the educators have negative opinions they find the new system to be more democratic because of its interrupted implementation. Positive and negative views on this subject are given below:

"Because our society is not very knowledgeable I support uninterrupted education."

"Interrupted application is democratic. The system allows for criss-crossing within itself. In the current education system all individuals, until the age of 14, go through the same education. We reap the same products. Uninterrupted education does not respond to such varieties. Professional education was hampered. Interrupted education gives the child the chance to make a chice during the advanced stages."

Table 7: Program development stages followed in the implementation of the system

Program development works	Yes /f	None /f
	-	200

In relation to this subject it is as if all of the education administrators have a unanmous opinion and all stated that a scientific study was not conducted in this regard and that program development works were not accomplished. In the study conducted by Karadeniz (2012) on 468 teachers, 80% of the teachers stated that the law had not been discussed thoroughly, and was not supported by infrastructure works; that scientific research and pilot application had not been made. The participants join on this subject with the most negative opinions. Views on the subject are given below:

"It is noteworthy to see that the educators were not among those who submitted this bill. This was implemented without the educators discussing over it. Why are the universities related with this system quiet? Where are they?"

"The system has not been thought through and it was implemented at random without pilot implementation. It is a system that is not complete with its contents or one that has not been explained".

"The new system was prepared without taking into account the views of the education community, universities, STK's and the educators who will implement the system and was passed in haste with the political majority pressure in the Parliament. The details, and what it will bring and take away were not calculated. This should have been a process".

Education administrators who participated in the study, together with the system, view the problem as transitioning into the system without any pilot implementation and without any infrastrucure works within a short period of time and in haste not providing the teachers and the administrators sufficient and necessary information on how the implementation will be made and that the opinions of the pedagogs and experts were not sought in this regard.   It was concluded that the implementation of this system without obtaining the views of the related educators, members and non-government organizations and without conducting a pilot implementation has caused the reaction of the teachers, families, educators, universities and non-government organizations.

Conclusıon

In looking at the implementation of the new interrupted 4+4+4 education system which began to be implemented in Turkey in the 2012-2013 academic year, the conclusions of the educators who are within the system are as follows:

- We can say that this is a system that has not been clearly understood by the bureaucrats and that that not been explained to them, and that it s positive system in that is is interrupted and leads to profession selection but that it was put into application in great haste.

- The fact that is agreed by all is the starting primary school of children between 60 to-66 months and learning to read and write and that this mistake needs to be corrected as soon as possible.

- It is strongly felt that necessary measures need to taken as the schooling rate of the girls especially in the rural regions of Anatolia and Southeast region will drop.

- We can say that the interrupted system is more democratic than the uninterrupted system.

- As the new system has been introduced to meet the demands of the public for the secondary section of the Imam-Hatip high schools to be opened we can say that a secular application of religious education has not yet been implemented in Turkey in the years 2000.

- As the system supports free education necessary measures need to be taken for the interrupted years and for the guidance in directing the youths during these years.

- We can say that the educators are all of the same opinin that the scientific process of this system has not been accomplished and that a pilot implementation has not been made.

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The Evaluation of Microteaching Lessons' Applications

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Abstract

Teacher education is a multi-dimensional subject. Teachers are trained about pedagogy, subject areas, general cultures and technologies. In pre-services term, these knowledge and skills should be put into practices and the teachers should gain about teaching experiences using with microteaching. Microteaching is defined as a scaled-down teaching encounter in which pre-service teachers exhibit their ability to perform one of several required teacher abilities to small group during a short time period. In microteaching, recording video and feedback are critical activities. Self-development is expected from pre-service teachers with feedbacks and critiques of faculty member and their classmates. The research involved 26 pre-service secondary school mathematics teachers. The pre-service teachers enrolled in teaching practicum course at a university located in the southeast part of Turkey. The study was conducted during the spring semester of 2013. In this study, the development of the pre-service teacher is in their microteaching is investigated. Most of the pre-service teachers preferred the general approach. There was a positive change only in 6 of the teacher candidates. Teacher candidates make use of lecturing and question-answer technique.

Keywords: Microteaching, Pre-service Mathematics Teacher, Teacher Training

1 Introduction

Teacher education is a multi-dimensional subject. Teachers are trained about pedagogy, subject areas, general cultures and technologies. In pre-services term, these knowledge and skills should be put into practices and the teachers should gain about teaching experiences using with microteaching. Pre-service teachers are also required to gather teaching strategies (Scott & Baker, 2003). Microteaching application has important role in teacher training (Bell, 2007; Kpanja, 2001).

Microteaching is defined as a scaled-down teaching encounter in which pre-service teachers exhibit their ability to perform one of several required teacher abilities to small group during a short time period (Cruickshank & Metcalf, 1993). "Micro-teaching is a technique reducing the challenges in a natural classroom environment and raising a teacher candidate in a setting appropriate for the real one for teachers to achieve certain goals and facilitate the testing of the results of the application through feedback" (Demirel, 1994: 67).

"Microteaching is a cycle" (Peker, 2009). It is mostly established as a trial-and-error case described as the teach-re-teach cycle. This cycle is comprised of six steps:

- A micro-lesson is prepared in accordance with the requisites of a task given.

- The micro-lesson determined is taught.

- The teacher gets feedback about how successful the procedures have been carried out.

- The microlesson is re-arranged in line with the feedback received.

- The microlesson is re-taught.

- This time, feedback which is oral, written or through recording is received about improvements realized or not.

The basic goal of assessment during teaching is to give feedback necessary for teaching and collect date to make improvements while students are progressing toward their goal (Doğan, 1997: 316). "Both the weaknesses or flawlessness of teaching are taken into consideration at school as the feedback regarding the achievements of students have an educational value as much as or more than that pertaining to the failure. If feedback is not received, learning may occur yet as the defects are not known, the process and result of learning cannot be improved; the value of learning acquisition cannot be known" (Başaran, 2005: 471).

Thus, one of the most important circles of microteaching process is the feedback to be given to candidate teachers at the end of teaching and the re-teaching process to be developed based on that. According to Orliche et al. (1985), the feed of microteaching cases is a big potential aiding in diagnosing weak and strong points in teaching approaches and strategies and aims at helping teachers become good teachers. Further, feedback promotes teacher candidates to carry out better activities (Kazu, 1996: 34).

Focused on feedback and encouragement, combined with the opportunity to practice the suggested improvements in the training session, form the underpinnings of the microteaching (Ghafoor, Kiani, Kayani, & Kayani, 2012).

In microteaching, recording video and feedback are critical activities. Self-development is expected from pre-service teachers with feedbacks and critiques of faculty member and their classmates. Also, it is very important that pre-service teachers get as much feedback as possible from their practice teaching (Lee & Wu, 2006).

1.1 Teacher-training system in Turkey

Branch teachers serving in primary and middle schools in the system known as 4+4++ in Turkish education system are trained in faculties of education. There are two sources of teachers in the high school section. The first are the teachers graduating from faculties of education by being educated for 5 years. The second source of teachers has to finish 1-year teaching certificate program after graduating from the faculty of science and letters. Information about the teaching certificate program is to be provided in the next section.

1.2 Teaching certificate program

Teaching certificate program is completed in two academic terms and the courses in the table1. are offered.

Table1. List of courses in the teaching certificate program

Number	Courses
1	Introduction to Science of Education
2	Development Psychology
3	Learning and Teaching Theories and Approaches
4	Teaching Technologies and Material Design
5	Curriculum Development and Teaching
6	Teaching practicum
7	Measurement and Evaluation
8	Classroom Management
9	Counseling
10	Teaching Practice

1.3 Teaching Mathematics

In vision of any curricula, the acceptability of learning activities in teaching-learning process is stated. Turkish mathematics curriculum advices that mathematics teacher should follow second approach (figure 2) than first approach (figure1) in teaching-learning process (MEB, 2013).

Definition → Theory → Prove → Application → Test
Figure 1. In Math Teaching General Approach (MEB, 2013)

Problem → Exploring → Construct Hypostasis → Verifications →
Generalization → Association → Deduction
Figure 2. In Math Teaching recommended Approach (MEB, 2013)

Arrangement of education as set forth in the curriculum affects its success. There are various methods and techniques, which could be used in teaching Mathematics. There are lots of studies regarding their application in Mathematics (Walshaw, 2004; Turnuklu & Yesildere, 2007). That teacher candidates exhibit such competences in pre-service for them to use these is to increase their achievement.

2   Methods

The research involved 26 pre-service secondary school mathematics teachers. The pre-service teachers enrolled in teaching practicum course at a university located in the southeast part of Turkey. The study was conducted during the spring semester of 2013.

2.1   Research Questions

In this study, the main question was what the development of the pre-service teacher is in their microteaching experiences.
The sub-questions were:
1-   Which approach was preferred in teaching-learning process by the pre-service teachers?
2-   Which teaching techniques and methods were used by the pre-service teachers?
3-   What was the average scores of the microteaching evaluation forms were submitted by the pre-service teachers?
4-   Was there the difference between the first and the second microteaching in regarding of the approach, teaching techniques and the feedback?

2.2   Data Collection

Firstly, theoretical information about different teaching techniques, lesson planning, and activity design was acquainted. Secondly, the pre-service teachers prepared a lesson plan for teaching subject in secondary school mathematics curriculum. Each pre-service teacher performed a lesson two times. The lessons were recorded by video. End of the first lesson, the researcher gave general feedback and other pre-service teachers filled out the microteaching evaluation form. Lastly, after 6 or 7 weeks, the second lesson was performed and the microteaching evaluation form was filled out again.

Data were collected from the microteaching evaluation form and analysis of the video recordings. The microteaching evaluation form was developed by Ceyhun ve Karagölge (2002). The form consists of two parts: "Microteaching lesson part" and "microteaching presentation part". The first part consists of 12 items and there are three choices; "Yes", "Partially" "No" for each item. The second part consists of 11 items and there are three choices; "Good", "Satisfactory" and "Need to pay attention" for each item.

Course Syllabus

Weeks	Activity	Data Collection
1-5	Theatrical information	No data
6-10	First microteaching	Video recording and The microteaching evaluation form
11-15	Second microteaching	Video recording and The microteaching evaluation form

2.3 Data Analysis

Video analyzing was used to find out the data for the first and the second questions. Firstly, the result of video analyzing was used to determine the approach, (Figure 1 or Figure 2). Secondly, video analyzing also was used to determine the techniques and methods which used by the pre-service teachers.

The evaluation form was used to gather the data for the third question. The average of responses of each item was calculated for each pre-service teacher. The answer of the fourth question was determined using the data handled by the comparison of the first and the second microteaching's data. The percentage of the approaches, techniques and methods, which were used by the pre-service teachers in the first and second microteaching, were compared. Related sample t-test was used to compare the first and the second microteaching data coming from the microteaching evaluation form.

2.4 Sample Video Analyzing

Subject:	RATIONAL NUMBERS		
DURATION	ACTIVITY	TEACHING METHODS AND TECHNIQUES	TEACHING APPROACH
00:00-00:43	Drawing attention	Question – answer technique	
00:44-01:01	Informing about the goal	Lecturing method	
01:02-02:19	Reminding preliminary knowledge	Lecturing method, Question – answer technique	
02:20-03:31	Description	Lecturing method	1. APPROACH
03:32-05:00	Example	Lecturing method, Question – answer technique	
05:01-06:11	Example	Lecturing method, Question – answer technique	
06:12-07:12	Description	Lecturing method	
07:13-08:12	Example	Lecturing method	
08:13-09:51	Example	Lecturing method, Question – answer technique	
09:52-12:18	Description	Lecturing method	
12:19-13:05	Example	Question – answer technique	
13:06-14:14	Example	Question – answer technique	
14:45-16:50	Example	Lecturing method	
16:51-17:38	Theorem	Lecturing method	
17:39-	Summary	Lecturing method	

17:53

As shown in the analyzing table, first, units were created according to the activities. Then, teaching techniques or methods to be used in each unit were determined. In the final stage, the teaching approach was decided according to the techniques and activities utilized. The code compatibility among the researchers is 92,31%.

3   Findings

Findings will be presented with a sequence of research questions. First research question was that which approach was preferred in teaching-learning process by the pre-service teachers.

Table F1. Summary of Approaches

Approach	1. Microteaching		2. Microteaching	
	N	%	N	%
1. approach	18	69%	13	50%
2. approach	5	19%	8	31%
Partially 2. approach	3	12%	5	19%
Total	26	100%	26	100%

According table F1, majority of teachers preferred first approach, which is known as general approach. Only three teachers preferred second approach, which is known as recommended approach. In second microteaching, the percentage of teacher who preferred partially or totally second approach increased from %31 to %50.

Second research question was that which teaching techniques and methods were used by the pre-service teachers.

Table2. The number of Methods and Techniques

Methods- Techniques	1. Microteaching	2. Microteaching
Question-answer technique	26	25
Lecturing method	26	26
Discussion method	4	3
Case study method	1	1
Analogy technique	1	0
Group teaching technique	1	0
Inductive method	1	2
Demonstration	1	2
Simulation	0	1
Brainstorm technique	0	1

According to table.2, Lecturing and question-answer are most popular methods that are selected by pre-service teachers in first and second microteaching lesson. Pre-service teacher also selected discussion method in both lessons. Analogy and group teaching are only used in first microteaching lessons. Pre-service teacher newly used simulation and brainstorm techniques in second microteaching lessons.

Third research question was that what was the average scores of the microteaching evaluation forms were submitted by the pre-service teachers?

Table3. Pre-service teacher, average in 1. And 2. Microteaching

Pre-service teachers	1. Microteaching	2. Microteaching
T1	71	80
T2	57	77
T3	83	80
T4	71	75
T5	80	81
T6	62	70
T7	87	85
T8	74	78
T9	77	91
T10	80	75
T11	77	79
T12	93	70
T13	72	78
T14	58	90
T15	72	83
T16	83	82
T17	75	82
T18	78	70
T19	84	87
T20	72	90
T21	71	75
T22	80	86
T23	64	79
T24	71	83
T25	72	90
T26	87	82

In first microteaching lesson T2 got lowest average score and T12 got highest average score in first microteaching. There are 22 people whose average is higher than 70 and 9 people over 80. In the second microteaching, T6, T12 and T18 got the lowest average with 70, whereas T9 got the highest average with 91. The number of teachers with an average over 70 is 26 and that of the teachers over 80 is 15.

The fourth research question was whether there was the difference between the first and the second microteaching in regarding of the approach, teaching techniques and the feedback.

Table 4. Summary of Approach

Difference between the first and the second microteaching	N
No change (1. Approach-1.approach)	12
No change (2. Approach-2.approach)	7
1. approach - 2. approach	6
2. approach -1. approach	1

When we have a look at the changes in the teaching approach, 12 teacher candidates preferred 1. Approach in the 1. and 2. Microteaching and did not make any changes. 7 teacher

candidates preferred the second approach in both microteachings. Then, 6 teacher candidates switched from the first to the second approach, while 1 teacher switched from the second to the first one. 27% of the teachers changed their approaches.

Table 5. The number of teacher using tecniques

Techniques	N
No change	15
Decrease in the number of techniques	4
Increase in the number of techniques	7

As shown in Table5, there was no change in the number of methods/techniques used by 15 of the teacher candidates. There was a decline in the variety of techniques by 4 teachers, whereas there was an increase in that of the techniques by 7 teachers.

Table 6. Average Feedback Mean, Pared t-test values and significance

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)
1.microteaching	75,04	26	8,757	-2,671	,013
2. microteaching	80,69	26	6,143		

Pared-sample t-test was made to see whether the average of points the teachers got from the feedback form as to the 1. and 2. Microteaching. As $P<0.05$, the difference between the 1. and 2. Microteaching is significant. That is, the teacher candidate was more successful in the second microteaching compared to his/her colleagues.

4   Discussion

Most of the pre-service teachers preferred the general approach, which may result from the fact that they studied basic sciences for 4 years. As Bush (1986) states, teachers by whom teacher candidates were taught during their education could have an impact on teacher candidates' choices of approach. That general/classical approach was used in basic sciences courses at faculties of science and letters during their 4-year education might have affected their choices of approach.

There was a positive change only in 6 of the teacher candidates. As mentioned in the studies, teacher candidates express that their teaching education did not prepare them for getting prepared for teaching (Bush, 1986; Darling-Hammond, Chung & Frelow, 2002). Practical application of the course contents in the teaching certificate program may back up ensuring the change.

In general, teacher candidates make use of lecturing and question-answer technique. They utilized student-based techniques a little. In this process, their lack of belief in the possibility to use different techniques in Mathematics is a crucial factor. Another factor could be that the methods their teachers used in the mathematics education beforehand were limited. The teacher candidates gave high points while evaluating their peers. In particular, the teacher candidates regarded their colleagues more successful.

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Assessment of the General Secondary Education Curricula in Turkey

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Abstract

This study aimed at assessing the curricula in general secondary education institutions by comparing the current curricula of secondary education institutions with their previous programs in analytical terms. In this qualitative study, an analysis and comparison of the current and previous curricula were carried out through document analysis. The methodology of the study was developed in compliance with Demirel's Analytical Curriculum Evaluation Model (DACEM) that constitutes a basis for curriculum evaluation. The model has two components. The first component includes the curriculum itself as well as the written materials relevant to the program. The second component is the opinions of beneficiaries of the curricula.

In the first component, the existing and previous curricula on English (Foreign Language), Language and Expression - Turkish Language and Literature (Turkish Proficiency), Mathematics - Geometry, Physics – Chemistry - Biology (Science), History - Geography (Social Sciences) are compared and evaluated based on the DACEM. Curriculum evaluation criteria developed by Demirel consist of five components as context, objective, content, process, and evaluation. In conclusion, according to the criteria of context and objective-attainment, the curricula of all of the previous general secondary education were insufficient, whereas the new curricula are partially sufficient. In terms of the content criterion, both the previous and the new curricula were partially sufficient. According to the criteria of learning–teaching process and measurement and evaluation, the curricula of all of the previous general secondary education were insufficient, whereas the new curricula are sufficient.

Key words: curriculum evaluation, Demirel's Analytical Curriculum Evaluation Model-DACEM, general secondary education curricula, curriculum evaluation criteria.

1 Introduction

The development and change of the curriculum as an issue on both global and national agenda is quite remarkable. Although the drives and sources for educational change differ, the topic is never far from the centre of national and international debate and hence reviews. The literature is considerable on the so-called sources and drives for curriculum changes but much could be argued to consist of a drive towards higher educational standards and achievements. The Secondary Education Reform Project in Turkey started in 2006. The project targets were to restructure the general and vocational-technical secondary education system, improve the quality, develop the curricula, and equip the teacher education and educational environment in line with the renewed curricula (MoNE, 2012).

The project realized curriculum development for the 9th, 10th, 11th and 12th grades of general and vocational-technical secondary education, the implementation of the developed curricula in schools, preparation and revision of textbooks, modules and other educational materials pertinent to relevant courses, the introduction of the curricula to principals and teachers in schools and organization of seminars. Work for evaluating the curricula prepared for general

and vocational technical secondary education institutions was carried out in the 2011-2012 academic year and it aimed at providing information feedback to the system concerning the quality of the curricula (MoNE, 2012).

This study covers the evaluation of curricula implemented in General Secondary Education Institutions. In this respect, we can consider the curriculum evaluation study as the last and supplementary link in the curriculum development process. Evaluation results provide curriculum development experts with information on continuing or reviewing the curricula, or shifting to a new stage (Demirel, 2011).

Different approaches and models related to the evaluation of curricula are put forward in educational literature. The leading examples are Metfessel- Michael's Evaluation Method, Provus' Differences Approach and Evaluation Model, Stake's Relevance-Probability Model, Stufflebeam's Context, Input-Process and Product Model, Eisner's Educational Criticism Evaluation Model, Stake's Tailored Curricula Evaluation Model and lastly Demirel's Analytical Curriculum Evaluation Model (DACEM) (Demirel, 2011). Some of curriculum evaluation models give importance on document analysis and focus on curriculum plan. Some of them focus on students' achievement and give importance to objectives and outcomes of the curriculum. Some of the curriculum evaluation studies yield data about student performances, whereas some other produce information about teaching strategies, some of them need to collect views of stakeholders (Osterlind, 1988) by means of qualitative and quantitative research design. Demirel's Analytical Curriculum Evaluation Model taken as a basis for this study focused on evaluating general secondary education curricula. DACEM is based on two components. The first component comprises the curriculum itself and the written materials relevant to the curriculum. The second component is the opinions of beneficiaries of the curricula. The model also contains data sources applicable to both components (Demirel, 2011). In this study, the curriculum evaluation is based on the first component of DACEM which is shown in Figure 1.

1.1 Purpose of the Research

The purpose of the research is to critically analyse the previous and newly developed curricula of general secondary education for the 9th, 10th, 11th and 12th grades.

1.2 Problem Statement

How is the difference observed in the evaluation and comparison process between the previous and newly developed general secondary education curricula?

1.3 Sub Problems

1.3.1 How is the difference between the curricula that are newly developed within the context of the secondary education reform and the previous curricula when they were compared in the following areas?
- Language (English-Turkish Literature - Language and Speech),
- Mathematics - Geometry,
- Natural Sciences (Physics, Chemistry and Biology),
- Social Studies (History and Geography).

1.3.2 How is the difference between the curricula that are newly developed within the context of the secondary education reform and the previous curricula when they were evaluated according to the following criteria?
- Context (theoretical framework),
- Objective (behaviour / attainment),
- Content,
- Learning-teaching process,
- Measurement and evaluation.
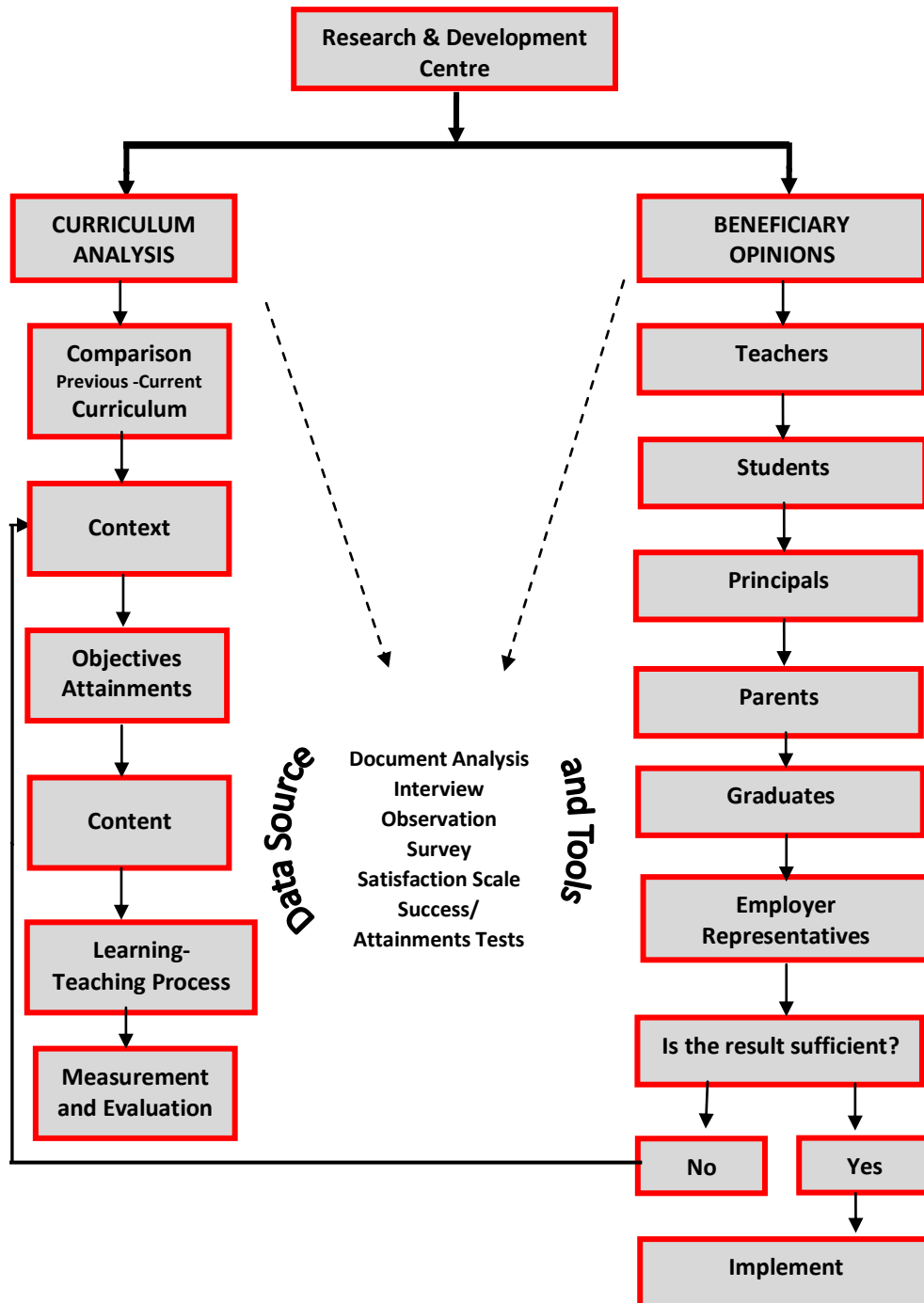
Figure 1: Demirel's Analytical Curriculum Evaluation Model-DACEM (Demirel, 2012, p.181)

2. Methodology

2.1 Research Design

The first component of Demirel's (2012) Analytical Curriculum Evaluation Model was taken as the basis for establishing the methodology of the present study in evaluating the general secondary education curricula. In accordance with the first component of model, the research was designed and carried out as a qualitative study using document analysis as shown in Figure 2. In tackling the first component of the analytical curriculum evaluation model, previous and current curricula were compared in terms of a) context b) objectives / attainments, c) content, d) learning–teaching process, and d) measurement and evaluation as shown in Figure 1.
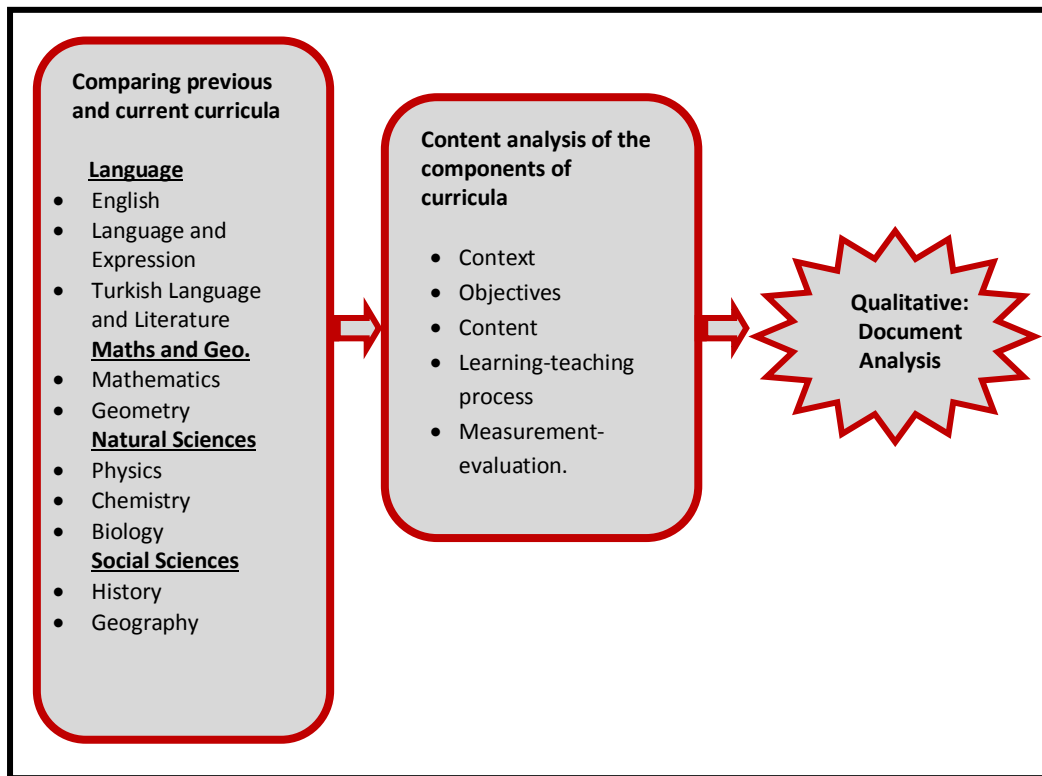
Figure 2: Research Process

2.2 Document Analysis

The 'population' for the data required for document analysis in the research consists of the previous and current curricula. In the study, all of the current and previous curricula pertinent to four general education areas – four pairs of curricula determined were accessed and a full count was done. All the curricula were obtained from Ministry of National Education (MoNE). Curricula on which the comparison was based were in the following areas: Language (English – Turkish Proficiency [Language and Expression – Turkish Language and Literature]), Mathematics – Geometry, Science (Physics – Chemistry – Biology), Social Sciences (History – Geography).

2.3 Data Collection

The "Curriculum Evaluation Criteria" developed by Demirel were used to evaluate and compare the curricula. They were used in accordance with the "Curriculum Analysis" component of Demirel's Analytical Evaluation Model (2012). The Curriculum Evaluation Criteria cover 5 components such as Context, Objectives, Content, Learning–Teaching Process, and Measurement and Evaluation. There are 15 criteria in total, 3 criteria from each component. The "Curriculum Evaluation Criteria" are shown in Table 1.

2.4 Data Analysis

Descriptive analysis was used in analyzing and comparing the existing and previous curricula. Two researchers evaluated curricula by using the curriculum evaluation criteria. The content analysis was carried out in two different stages. The content analysis in the first stage was fulfilled by two experts independently. Then, results of each analysis were reviewed by the research team at the second stage and the reliability of the study was found as .90. This process was applied to each previous and current curriculum developed in this project. The research team interpreted the research findings concerning the previous and current curricula as either sufficient or insufficient.

Table 1: Curriculum Evaluation Criteria Scale (Demirel, 2011, p.353)

CRITERIA
Context
Cx1: Is there a specific philosophy upon which the curriculum is based? **Cx2**: Was a specific learning theory (or theories) adopted in the curriculum? **Cx3**: Was a curriculum operating manual prepared?
Objectives
O1: Were the objectives/attainments/competencies expressed in accordance with hierarchical classification principles according to the specifications of the subject area? **O2**: Were objectives/attainments/competencies suitable for the student level? Were student levels of readiness taken into account? **O3**: Were activity examples in compliance with objectives/attainments/competencies presented accurately?
Content
Cn1: Was the content established in accordance with objectives/ attainments/ competencies? Was the objective/attainment/competency and content relationship established? Was a Table of Specifications provided? **Cn2**: Was content design made in accordance with the subject area (linear, cyclical, core and the like.)? **Cn3**: Were the interest, cognitive, affective and psychomotor development characteristics of students taken into consideration for content selection? Was it relevant for students?
Process
P1: Were the teaching strategies, method and techniques suitable for the objectives/attainments/competencies, and was their involvement specified in the work? **P2**: Were the examples given in relation to the teaching of the course student-centered, and were these consistent with the curriculum objectives/attainments/competencies? **P3**: Did the teaching materials conform to the objectives/attainments/competencies, and were these easily accessible for the region in which the curricula will be implemented?
Evaluation
E1: Was how the objectives/behaviors/attainments/competencies will be tested demonstrated with examples? **E2**: Were the examples given for testing situations qualified to measure the behavior/attainments/competencies of relevant subjects? Do they coincide with the hierarchical classification level of objectives? **E3**: Were alternative evaluation techniques used when evaluating the objectives/ attainments/competencies?

3. Findings

3.1 The Findings Related to the First Sub-Problem

In this section, how the differences are observed when the newly developed Language (English- Turkish Literature - Language and Speech), Mathematics - Geometry, Natural Sciences (Physics and Chemistry - Biology) Social Studies (History and Geography) curricula were compared with the previous curricula.

3.1.1 Language (English - Turkish Literature - Language and Speech)

In terms of context, the previous Language curricula were insufficient and new curricula were partially sufficient. In terms of objective-attainment, the previous English curriculum was partially sufficient; the previous Turkish Literature - Language and Speech curricula were insufficient and new Language curricula were partially sufficient. In terms of content, the previous and new Language curricula were partially sufficient. In terms of learning-teaching process and measurement-evaluation criteria, the previous English curriculum was partially sufficient and new curriculum was sufficient; the previous Turkish Literature - Language and Speech curricula were insufficient and new curricula were sufficient.

3.1.2 Mathematics – Geometry

In terms of context, the previous Mathematics – Geometry curricula were insufficient and new curricula were partially sufficient. In terms of objective-attainment, the previous and new curricula were partially sufficient. In terms of content, the previous Mathematics curriculum was partially sufficient and new curriculum was insufficient; the previous Geometry curriculum was partially sufficient and new curriculum was sufficient. In terms of learning-teaching process, the previous Mathematics curriculum was insufficient and new curriculum was partially sufficient; the previous Geometry curriculum was insufficient and new curriculum was sufficient. In terms of measurement-

evaluation, the previous Mathematics curriculum was insufficient and new curriculum was partially sufficient; the previous Geometry curriculum was insufficient and new curriculum was sufficient.

3.1.3   Natural Sciences (Physics, Chemistry and Biology)

In terms of context, the previous Physics curriculum was insufficient and new curriculum was partially sufficient; the previous Chemistry curriculum was insufficient and new curriculum was sufficient; the previous and new Biology curriculum was sufficient. In terms of objective-attainment, the previous and new Physics curricula were insufficient; the previous Chemistry curriculum was insufficient and new curriculum was partially sufficient; the previous Biology curriculum was sufficient and new curriculum was partially sufficient. In terms of content, the previous Physics curriculum was insufficient and new curriculum was partially sufficient; the previous and new Chemistry curricula were sufficient; the previous Biology curriculum was sufficient and new curriculum was partially sufficient. In terms of learning-teaching process, the previous and new Physics curriculum were partially sufficient; the previous Chemistry curriculum was partially sufficient and new curriculum was sufficient; the previous Biology curriculum was sufficient and new curriculum was partially sufficient. In terms of measurement-evaluation, the previous and new Physics curricula were insufficient; the previous Chemistry curriculum was insufficient and new curriculum was sufficient; the previous and new Biology curriculum were sufficient.

3.1.4   Social Studies (History and Geography)

In terms of context, the previous and new History and Geography curricula were insufficient. In terms of objective-attainment, the previous and new History curricula were partially sufficient; the previous Geography curriculum was insufficient and new curriculum was partially sufficient. In terms of the content, the previous History curriculum was sufficient and new curriculum was insufficient; the previous and new Geography curriculum was partially sufficient. In terms of the learning-teaching process, the previous and new History curricula were partially sufficient; the previous Geography curriculum was insufficient and new curriculum was sufficient. In terms of measurement-evaluation, the previous History and Geography curricula were insufficient and new curricula were sufficient.

3.2 The Findings Related to the Second Sub-Problem

In this section, how the differences are observed when newly developed secondary education curricula were compared with the previous curricula according to the context (theoretical framework), objective-attainment, content, learning-teaching process and measurement and evaluation component.

3.2.1   Context (Theoretical Framework)

In terms of context, the previous language curricula (Turkish Literature, Language and Expression and English) were insufficient and new curricula were partially sufficient; previous social sciences curricula (History and Geography) were insufficient and new curricula were partially sufficient; previous natural sciences (Physics, Chemistry and Biology) and Mathematics (Math and Geometry) curricula were insufficient, and new curricula were partially sufficient.

3.2.2   Objective–Attainment

In terms of the objective-attainment, the previous language curricula were insufficient, and new curricula were partially sufficient, previous social sciences curricula were insufficient and the new curricula were partially sufficient, and both previous and new natural sciences and maths curricula were partially sufficient.

3.2.3   Content

In terms of the content, the previous and new language curricula were partially sufficient; previous social sciences curricula were insufficient but new curricula were partially sufficient; previous natural sciences and maths curricula were partially sufficient and new curricula were sufficient.

3.2.4   Learning–Teaching Process

In terms of the learning–teaching process, the previous curricula of the language group were insufficient and new curricula were sufficient; social sciences previous curricula were partially sufficient and new curricula were sufficient; the natural sciences and mathematics group's previous curricula were insufficient but new curricula were sufficient.

3.2.5   Measurement and Evaluation

In terms of measurement and evaluation, the previous curricula of language group were insufficient and new curricula were sufficient; previous curricula of social sciences were partially sufficient and new curricula were sufficient; and previous curricula of natural sciences and mathematics group were insufficient and new curricula were sufficient.

4. Discussion

In conclusion, all of previous curricula were insufficient or partially sufficient and newly developed curricula were partially sufficient or sufficient according to curriculum evaluation criteria. The current curricula should include information about the philosophy of the curriculum and learning-teaching theories in the written texts of the curricula. This information should be included under the heading "Structure of the Curriculum". Alternatively, it could be explained under the headings of "Philosophy of the Curriculum" and "Learning and Teaching Theories" in the initial parts. It is considered as important to include in the teacher's manual, the summary information related to the philosophy of curriculum and the learning-teaching theories implied by the curriculum. No evidence was found in the study to the effect that the attainments envisaged in the current curricula are designed based on a certain systematic model or taxonomy. For this reason, curriculum attainments should be reviewed and rewritten taking into account their measurability and development characteristics according to a certain model to be defined.

The curricula should be prepared in order to ensure that the objectives-attainments, content, learning and teaching process, measurement and evaluation processes are integral and consistent with each other. The units, subjects and subject sub-headings should be designed and written in a clear and detailed manner in the content of the curriculum prepared based on the attainments desired. The curricula should indicate the content and syllabus design approaches that are taken as a basis (modular, linear, spiral, core etc.). Accordingly, the curricula contents should be reviewed taking into account these content design approaches, the findings obtained from implementation, and the results from the student assessments. The curricula learning-teaching process should include qualitative and quantitative good examples and practices suitable with the attainments. It was observed that student-centered learning strategies, methods and techniques were recommended in the curricula. However, according to the results of the other research studies, it is stated that lecture and question-answer methods and thus a teacher-centered implementation is dominant in schools. For this reason, it will be beneficial to provide the teachers with training on learner-centered teaching methodology and to prepare micro-teaching methods and examples on this issue, also implementing information communication technologies embedded learning.

Whereas, in this study, alternative measurement and evaluation methods integrated into the curricula are considered as a point of strength. It was observed that these methods were not sufficiently included in school and classroom practices and assessment methods. Accordingly, teachers should be offered to take in-service training courses on this issue and numerous example materials related to implementation should be prepared. It should be ensured that people who are experts in the fields of curriculum development and measurement–evaluation who hold doctoral degrees related to this area are employed on a full-time basis, and those who are experts in the fields of education philosophy, learning psychology and information communication technologies are employed on a part-time basis.

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The Evaluation of the Application Process of the Elementary Science and Technology Curriculum*

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Abstract

The purpose of the current study is (1) to observe the actualization level of the foreseen gains in the elementary education Science and Technology curriculum among schools from different socio economic status (SES), (2) and relying on that, to observe the differences in the assessment and evaluation dimension in the process of teaching and learning defined by the curriculum. In the research, quantitative and qualitative descriptive research methods were used together. Case study method was chosen as research design. As a curriculum evaluation model, Stake's Congruence Contingency Model was preferred. In the scope of this model, the foresight and features about the gain, content, the situation of teaching and learning, and the dimension of assessment and evaluation of Science and Technology curriculum were itemized. Depending on that, how much those foresight and features could be applied in schools was observed. Finally, the similarities and differences between the intended features and achieved ones were determined. The sample of the research included selected elementary schools from low to middle, and high SES in Sakarya country, central district. Two schools with high SES, two schools with middle SES, and two schools with low SES were chosen via stratified sampling. In the research, as a qualitative data, the foreseen items in the Science and Technology curriculum were determined by document review. For the process evaluation, in order to determine how much the foreseen factors in the curriculum were reflected in the application process, the structured observation form was used. As a quantitative data, in the scope of outcome evaluation, students were tested at the end of each chapter to determine how much they acquired the foreseen gains in the curriculum. In the research, The Science and Technology curriculum was differentiated significantly among the schools with different SES in according to its application level. There was a significant difference between the marks of 6th grade students' placement tests among the high SES, middle SES, and low SES. It was founded that the grades of students from high SES schools were higher than that of low SES.

Keywords: the curriculum of science and technology course; curriculum evaluation; Stake's congruence contingency model

* This research is a part of unpublished doctoral dissertation of Demirtaş (2012).

1   Introduction

In terms of implementation of monotype education curriculums in schools, students learn better at some classes, on the contrary they are less successful at other classes. Both teachers and students can affect the practice process of the curriculums in the same degree, and they can turn the learned curriculum into a different program differently from the official one (Shawer, 2010). The curriculum in practice is the one that is strengthened by the teacher in the school. On the other hand, the official program is related to what the school and the teacher teach and how they teach. The official and written program is theoretical. The things placed in official program do not have to be actualized strictly or more things than the written ones can come up. In terms of coming up of more things, the perception of the official curriculum, students' familiarities, the school environment, and the opportunities school have play important roles. The official program is standard but the curriculum in practice may show difference from a school to another one. The program in practice that is instantiated, observed and actualized in the school, can be close to the foreseen factors in the official curriculum, or can be less than or more than the official one. This program is related to what come up

different than the planned official curriculum (Posner, 1995). In terms of the curriculum in practice, two things gain importance: the school and the teacher. The environment the school has and its socioeconomic status underlie the opportunities of the school. In the process of transforming foreseen factors of the planned curriculum to the practice, the physical and technological opportunities of the school play an important role. The program perception of the teacher who benefit from the opportunities of the school in the process of practice of the curriculum, and his or her effective practice of the program are the indicators of how much the planned curriculum is put into practice. In order to make sure that the curriculum fulfills the needs of the individuals, the society, and the institution, it is necessary to control the practice results of the curriculum regularly. The prepared program should be improved continuously in parallel with the experienced rapid changes because the environmental conditions in which the program is applied change continuously. "Prepared programs gain functionality in practice. In program development and evaluation activities, if the practice is not considered it is impossible to make a realistic evaluation" (Erden, 1998: 9). "Even though the programs seem completed when they are written and take the form of a guideline, they are never completed actually. Indeed, programs have to change and develop in accordance with the data and new conditions that are derived from the practice. Thus, "it is impossible to give up without evaluating the progress" (Weiss, 1998: 32). The evaluation that complete the program development process is described as "collecting data about the effectiveness of the program with observation, and various assessment tools, comparing and interpreting those data with standards that are the markers of the effectiveness of the program, and the decision process about the effectiveness of the program" (Erden, 1998: 10). According to Stake (1967), program evaluation requires collecting data about the curriculum, processing those data, and interpreting them. In order to do evaluation completely, it is necessary to collect two kinds of data. First one is related to explaining the aims of the program, learning environment, personnel, methods, content, and outputs objectively. The second one is about taking the personal opinions and judgments about those aims, learning environment, the practicability, and the quality of the program. The Stake's Congruence- contingency Model that is one of the models of program evaluation emphasizes that those who evaluate the program should necessarily compare the appropriateness of the foreseen aims of the program and the things that are actually happened. Briefly, it seeks an answer to this question: are the factors that the program aims really happen in practice? This observation can be done with an objective observer. The observer should be aware of that each program is unique and s/he should have knowledge about the characteristics of the program. The model can be divided into parts like inputs, the process, and the output.

The Science and Technology course curriculum (STCC), which was developed with the understanding of science and technology for everyone, and science and technology literacy for everyone (Çepni, 2008: 25), plays an important role in the future of the societies in today's information and technology epoch, with rapidly changing scientific and technological improvements. The Science that tries to define and explain the physical and biological world is a way of searching and thinking which takes experimental standards, logical thinking, and continuous investigation into account as well. In Science and Technology course curriculum, following principles are adopted: constructivism, student-centered teaching, skill and insight development, taking individual differences into account, developing insight about the concept and life, learning with cooperation, alternative assessment and evaluation approaches, applying the program flexibly (Korkmaz, Tatar, Kıray & Kibar, 2010). Therefore, determining how much the STCC that was prepared in accordance with aforementioned criteria, is applied in class environment of schools with different socioeconomic status (SES), and whether or not the curriculum affects the science success of the students constitute the aim of the present study. Determining the education opportunities schools have, the effects of those opportunities in the practice of the curriculum, and how much those opportunities affect the success level of students are necessary so as to take precautions to improve education opportunities in schools.

2 Method

2.1 Design of the Research

In the present study, qualitative and quantitative descriptive research methods were used together. Case study was chosen as a research design. In order to evaluate the practice process of the curriculum in schools with different SES and in order to make comparison between schools, in the present study the holistic multiple case study method was used. As a program evaluation model, Stake's Congruence- Contingency Model was selected. According to that model, the foreseen factors of the program were determined, and how much those foreseen factors were actualized was observed. Moreover, in the current study, the processes and the outputs were handled separately. The Stake's model that was used in the current study is summarized in Figure 1.

Program Foreseen/Intended	Observed in Apply/Performance		Evaluation/ Value Judgments
Gains	Gains		Gains
Content Teaching-Learning Conditions Assessment and Evaluation	Content Teaching-Learning Conditions Assessment and Evaluation	PROCESS	Content Teaching-Learning Conditions Assessment and Evaluation
	Students' Success	OUTPUT	Students' Success
Congruence-Discrepancy			Congruence-Discrepancy

Figure 1. Program evaluation model.

Within the scope of Stake's evaluation model, the features and foreseen factors about the gains, content, teaching-learning conditions, and assessment and evaluation dimensions of the Science and Technology curriculum were listed. Then, how much those foreseen factors and features are able to be applied in schools was observed and intended features and accomplished ones were compared and contrasted. In the process part of the model, how much foreseen gains, content, teaching-learning conditions, and assessment and evaluation methods of the Science and Technology curriculum were applied in schools with different SES in the practice process was determined. In the output part, students' success was determined.

2.2 Population and Sample

The sample and applied assessment tools are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Sample and applied assessment tools

SES		High	Middle	Low
Schools		H1	M1	L1
		H2	M2	L2
Measurement Tools in Used	Observtion	20 hours	20 hours	20 hours
		16 hours	16 hours	16 hours
	Achievement Test	41 students	30 students	22 students
		44 students	34 students	32 students

As seen in Table 1, the coding was done by giving schools in which the practice took place, letters and numbers according to their SES.

2.3 Developing Data Collection Tools

As a qualitative method, the foreseen items in the science and technology curriculum were determined via document review. In process evaluation, in order to determine how much the foreseen factors were transformed into practice, the structured observation form was used. As a quantitative method, in the scope of output evaluation, in order to determine students' success, students were given achievement tests at the end of each chapter. The data collection tools of the present study were explained below.

2.4 Foreseen Factors Related to Teaching Style

In terms of the practice process of the curriculum, the foreseen features about the teaching style were determined via document review in order to be a reference for the observation of the researcher. In order to determine the degree of actualization of the foreseen factors (intended factors) of the curriculum in the practice process, Elementary Education Science and Technology Course Curriculum and Guideline and Elementary Education Science and Technology Course Teacher Guidebook that were published by Ministry of Education Head Council of Education and Morality were analyzed. From those resources, foreseen factors about the gains, content, activities, teaching methods and techniques, assessment and evaluation approaches, and tools of the curriculum were listed as items. That list represents the intention or foreseen factors of the curriculum.

2.5   Observation Form

In order to determine whether those foreseen factors of the Science and Technology curriculum were applied or not in schools in the practice process, the structured observation form was prepared by the researcher. Before preparing the observation form, items related to basic approach of the program, and its structure, learning areas, and gains, constructivist teaching- learning process, teaching style that is appropriate to assessment and evaluation methods, and teacher behaviors were determined. Determined items were checked as "Yes, done", "Partially done", or "No, not done". For the content validity of the observation form, the expert opinion was taken. With the help of the feedbacks that were taken by Science education domain experts (n=3), field teachers (n=5), and program development experts (n=7), the observation form took its final form.

In order to investigate the reliability of the evaluation results that were taken via observations, the inter-rater reliability was calculated. "This method that is also called as concord between independent evaluators, was used in order to look at the reliability of the ratings of the two or more observers in terms of to what extent numerous objects have a certain feature" (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz, & Demirel, 2010: 115). With this method, data was acquired by observing science and technology course that were taught by five different teachers by three different observers. One of the observers (O1) was researcher, and other two observers (O2 and O3) were domain experts. Observation results were marked in the observation form. Data was analyzed via Kendall's coefficient of concordance. Results were shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Concord between observers and Kendall's coefficient of concordance

	Mean	N	Kendall's W	Chi-Square	df	p
O1	2,60					
O2	1,00	5	.760	7.600	2	.022
O3	2,40					

When Table 2 was examined, level of concord between three observers was found as Kendall's W=0.760, and difference between observers was found as p=0.22. Kendall's W value differs from 0 to 1. When the value gets closer to 1 the concord increases. When the Kendall's W coefficient of concordance is less than .90, the concords between observers are considered as low (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006: 162). Moreover, if p value is less than .05 the data from one of the observers is open data that is there is no concord (SPSS, 2007). Thus, third observer was excluded and Cohen Kappa's coefficient (Şencan, 2005: 486) was analyzed in order to determine the concord rate between two observers. Results were shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Concord between two observers, Cohen Kappa's coefficient of concordance

	Value	Standard error	t Value of about	p
Kappa	.106	.060	2.458	.014

As Table 3 demonstrates that, there is a significant relationship between the concordance rate of two observers (p<0.05). It can be said that there is coherence between observers. In other words, the ratings that each observer gave were close to each other. "When the ratings that each observer gives for the same object get closer to each other, the reliability increases" (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz, & Demirel, 2010: 115). Therefore, reliable data was acquired via observation in the present study.

2.6   Achievement Tests

In order to determine whether students reached the gains mentioned in science and technology curriculum or not researcher prepared multiple choice tests about "Body Systems", "Lights", and "Sounds" chapters.

In the process of developing achievement tests, 16 quantifiable gains from "Body Systems", and 21 of that from "Lights" and "Sounds" chapters were determined. For each determined gains, two or three questions were prepared. 35 questions for "Body Systems", 42 questions for "Lights and Sounds" were gathered and tests covered multiple choice questions were prepared. For the content validity of the achievement tests, the opinions of the science domain experts, field teachers, and program development experts were taken and necessary corrections in questions were done. Pilot achievement tests were applied to five students other than the sample for the clarity of the questions and appropriateness of the questions to students' levels. Then with those feedbacks necessary changes and corrections

were done. Within the scope of pilot practice, "Body Systems Test" was applied to 94 students, and "Lights and Sounds Test" was applied to 110 students in schools other than schools in which the observation took place. Data acquired from pilot application group was entered to ITEMAN program. With the statistical analysis done with ITEMAN program, tests were taken their final forms according to the results of item analysis. According to Özgüven (2003), questions having item discrimination more than .30 can be classified as good questions. Hence, 8 questions (10, 13, 14, 22, 26, 28, 32) having item discrimination less than .30 were excluded from the test. After item analysis, the mean of the 28 questioned "Body Systems Test" was 17.48, standard deviation was 4.83, and average difficulty of the test was (P) 0.51, and its reliability coefficient was (KR-20) 0.78. For "Lights and Sounds Test", five questions (8, 26, 27, 30, 34) having item discrimination less than .30 were excluded from the test. The mean score of 37 questioned "Lights and Sounds Test" was 21.65, standard deviation was 8.10, average difficulty of the test was (P) 0.52, and its reliability coefficient was (KR-20) 0.82. Final version of the tests was applied to students in observed schools both at the beginning and at the end of each chapter.

2.7 Data Collection

In terms of observations, as an observer, the researcher attended the classes of science teachers in 2 schools with high SES, 2 with middle SES, and 2 with low SES, in total 6 schools. All of the classes of the teachers during the "Body Systems" and "Lights and Sounds" chapters were observed by the researcher.

The practice process of "Body Systems" chapter was observed for 60 hours for three schools (20*3=60) between the last week of February and the first week of April. The practice process of "Lights and Sounds" chapter was observed 48 hours for three schools (16*3=48) between the third week of April and the first week of June.

During the observations, the researcher sat down the rear seat, and tried to observe classes naturally. During the observations, observation findings were acquired by marking down to "observation form", and by taking notes. At the end of observations, acquired information was reanalyzed and necessary deductions were made. The achievement tests to determine students' success levels, were applied to students in the classrooms of observed schools both at the beginning and at the end of each chapters.

2.8 Data Analysis

In the analysis of data that was acquired via observation form within the scope of process evaluation, total points of items in the form were considered. In order to determine the difference in practice levels of the curriculum in schools with high, middle, and low SES, the nonparametric Kruskal Wallis H test, and Mann Whitney U test were used because of the small sample size (n<30).

Within the scope of output evaluation, in order to determine whether achievement test results of the students from schools with high, middle, and low SES showed significant difference or not, one way ANOVA was conducted. The significance level was taken as $p \le 0.05$. To examine which groups differed from each other in terms of SES, the Scheffe test was conducted.

3 Findings

The results of the Kruskal Wallis H test that represents the difference in the practice of science and technology curriculum in schools with different SES, was shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Kruskal Wallis H Test and Practice of Science and Technology Curriculum in Schools with Different SES

Schools with SES	n	Mean of Rank	sd	x	p
High SES	19	42,24			
Middle SES	19	30,24	2	37,868	.000
Low SES	17	9,59			

When Table 4 was examined, statistically, STCC differentiated significantly between schools with different SES in terms of practice [$x_{(2)}$=37,868, p<.05]. In other words, in schools with different SES, the practice level of STCC differed.

The results of Mann Whitney U test, which showed the difference in practice level of STCC in schools with high, middle, low SES were represented in Table 5.

Table 5. Mann Whitney U Test Results, and Difference in the Practice of STCC

SES	n	Mean of Rank	Sum of Rank	U	p
High	19	25,24	479,50	71,50	.001
Middle	19	13,76	261,50		
High	19	27,00	513,00	.000	.000
Low	17	9,00	153,00		
Middle	19	26,47	503,00	10,000	.000
Low	17	9,59	163,00		

As Table 5 demonstrated, there was a significant difference between schools which have middle to high SES (U=71,50, p<.01), low to high SES, (U=.000, p<.001), and low to middle SES (U=10,000, p<.001) in terms of the practice of science and technology curriculum. There was high level of practice of Science and technology curriculum in schools with high SES, which was followed by schools with middle SES, and in schools with low SES, there was low level of curriculum practice.

In order to determine whether sixth grade students' test results related to "Body Systems" chapter showed significance difference or not in high, middle, and low SES schools, one way ANOVA was conducted, and significance level was taken as p≤0.05. Furthermore, in order to find out that which groups differed from each other Scheffe test was conducted. Analysis results were shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Variance Analysis Results of Students' "Body Systems" Test Results in Schools with Different SES

SES	N	Mean $(\bar{x})$	s.s.		Sum of squares	S.d.	Mean of squares	F	P	Significant difference
High	41	10.609	2.21	Between Groups	73.29	2	36.648			
Middle	30	9.400	2.42	Within Group	490.27	90	5.447	6.727	.002	High-Low
Low	22	8.409	2.42							
Total	93	9.699	2.47	Total	563.57	92				

According to Table 6, there was a significant difference between students' test results in accordance with their schools' SES [$F_{(2-90)}$=6.727, p < .01]. According to Scheffe test results, students who were studying at school with high SES ($\bar{x}$=10.609) were more successful than students who were studying at school with low SES ($\bar{x}$=8.409).

Similarly, in order to determine whether sixth grade students' "Lights and Sounds" test results differed significantly or not in schools with high, middle, and low SES, one way ANOVA was conducted and significance level was taken as p≤0.05. In addition, which groups differed from each other was investigated via Scheffe test. Analysis results were shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Variance Analysis Results of Students' "Lights and Sounds" Test Results in Schools with Different SES

SES	N	Mean $(\bar{x})$	s.s.		Sum of squares	S.d.	Mean of squares	F	P	Significant difference
High	44	13.681	3.27	Between Groups	308.61	2	154.30			
Middle	34	13.206	2.68	Within Group	1249.98	107	11.68	13.20	.000	High-Low
Low	32	9.812	4.21							Middle-Low
Total	110	12.409	3.78	Total	1558.59	109				

As Table 7 represented that there was a significant difference between students' test results in accordance with their schools' SES [$F_{(2-107)}$=13.209, p < .01]. According to Scheffe test results, students were more successful in schools with high SES ($\bar{x}$=13.681) and middle SES ($\bar{x}$=13.205) than students who were studying at schools with low SES ($\bar{x}$=9.812).

4   Results and Discussion

The practice level of Science and Technology curriculum differed significantly in schools with different SES. This difference was between schools with middle to high SES, low to high, and low to middle SES. Moreover, in schools that had high SES, there was a high level of practice of science and technology curriculum. Schools with middle SES and low SES followed it respectively. In the practice process of STCC, doing activities, students' active participation to learning process, providing opportunities to students for doing research or projects, and using alternative evaluation methods come into prominence. Researches about this issue support the findings of the current study. As Gürbüztürk and Susam (2007) indicated that teachers set aside more place to activities in schools with high SES. Similarly, as Özmen (2003) reported that teachers who worked at private schools used more constructivist activities than teachers who worked at public elementary schools. Besides, the idea, which states that new curriculum makes teachers do new and various activities was adopted mostly by teachers who worked at schools with high SES (Gündoğar, 2006). According to Doğan (2009), teachers that worked at schools in city centers adopted the activities and tried to do them more than other teachers. As Gündoğar (2006) pointed out that teachers working in schools with high SES showed higher agreement in terms of "new elementary school curriculum is student- centered" than teachers working in schools with middle SES. On the other hand, in terms of the practice of projects indicated in the curriculum, teachers working in schools with low SES experienced more problems. According to Tabak (2007), in rural areas, students did not perform activities related to research. Similarly, as Bantwini (2010) indicated that in rural areas, the resources of schools were not enough so that the research projects were not performed. According to Doğan (2009), teachers who had students from high SES applied evaluation activities more than teachers who had students from low SES. Moreover, according to Bantwini (2010), teachers reported that time was not enough to evaluate all the students in schools in rural areas, and to make correction in their learning.

There was a significant difference between sixth grade students' success in achievement tests in schools with different SES. Students who were studying at school with high SES were more successful than students studying at school with low SES. There are lots of studies in the literature that support this finding. According to Eş (2010), school settlement played an important role in students' success. Students studying at country town schools were more successful than students studying at schools in small towns. As Bay (2003) stated that students were more likely to reach cognitive aims in science course in private schools than students who were studying at public schools. As Ayna (2009) indicated that students studying at schools with high SES had significantly better academic success in science course than students who were studying at either school with middle SES or low SES. Similarly, according to Orhun (2005), when students' achievement in terms of science course chemistry notions in accordance with schools' SES were investigated, it was found that students in schools with high SES were more successful than students in schools with low SES. Surprisingly, as Gürler (2011) reported that when the actualization level of students' gains in science and technology course was investigated in accordance with school types, it was found that, students' gains in country town schools were more than those of in village schools, and students' gains in village schools were more than those of in city center schools. These findings were interpreted as in country town schools and village schools, necessary equipment for science and technology course like the laboratory environment and experimental materials were enhanced as compared to city center schools. Furthermore, in terms of family income, students who had higher income were more successful than students with middle income, and students with middle income were more successful than students with low income.

The findings of the current study were supported by the literature. In fact, if the infrastructure, opportunities, equipment, materials, and instruments of the schools are sufficient and well enough it is better for the science and technology course curriculum to be practiced as it is supposed to be, and it also has a positive effect on students' success.

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THEME 5

CURRICULUM STUDIES - THEORETICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVES

Curriculum Possibilities: Enabling Students with "Developmental (Dis)Abilities"

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Abstract

This paper presents theoretical, methodological, and initial results from a federally funded three-year Social Science and Humanities Research Council (SSHRC) of Canada research project that examined curriculum possibilities that enable students labelled with "developmental (dis)abilities" (DD). The research is grounded in a framework called the *Theory of Authentic Learning* (Hill & Smith, 1998, 2005) and located in the context of curricular experiences of four students. In addition, the study falls within a disability studies framework and an inclusive educational approach that strives to empower rather than remediate those who are abled in different ways. In Ontario, Canada, schooling for these students is within a special education model, a model based on deficit and medical principles. This study argues for schooling that adopts a social model, not a deficit or medical model. These theoretical perspectives are examined first. Second, the qualitative research methodology, with multi-case and multi-site methods, is discussed. Third, we report on initial findings that move us towards curriculum possibilities for four students identified with DD who had the same educational experiences as their non-disabled peers.

Keywords: authentic learning; disability studies; secondary schools; technological education; curriculum studies.

1   Introduction

The discourse of this paper is a departure from the Western world's predominant paradigm of educational segregation for students who are labelled with "developmental (dis)abilities" (DD), or in our preferred language, abled in different ways. In these times of globalization, where monetary issues guide decision-making locally, nationally, and internationally, opportunities are narrowed giving way to efficiency. With such present day constraints, curriculum theorists need to be strong advocates who challenge efficient, mainstream practices that leave differently-abled students on the sidelines. We need to reimagine democratic education that offers all youth a rich educational experience.

Typically, schooling for these students is within a special education model, a model based on deficit and medical principles. This model labels these students as "disabled" and treats them in isolation from their social and school contexts. Critics of this approach (e.g., Gallagher, 2004; Heshusius, 2004; Skidmore, 1996; Slee, 1993, 2001a, 2001b, Tomlinson, 1982, 1985, 1987) opt for a more inclusive education approach and argue that students who are abled in different ways do not have access to the educational opportunities offered to nondisabled students. They are unable to engage in curricula that aim to enhance student interests and life prospects. Low rates of employment, of participation in postsecondary education, and of satisfaction with adult life await result (Canadian Council on Learning, 2007; Legislative Assembly of Ontario, 2008; Katsiyannis, Zhang, Woodruff & Dixon, 2005; Stodden & Whelley, 2004).

1.1   A Theory of Authentic Learning

Hill and Smith's earliest research (1995) examined an exemplary Technological Education classroom. Activity resembled that of everyday learning where learning and context are inextricably linked as people engage in various forms of cultural activity (cf., Cole & Hatano, 2007). In this classroom, learning, ability, talent, and intelligence were as much a part of the situation as they were of the individual (e.g., Barab & Plucker, 2002). Findings from this early research lead to an initial *Theory of Authentic Learning* (Hill & Smith, 1998) where four central factors emerged: **mediation**, **embodiment**, **distribution**, and **situatedness**. These factors address qualities of authentic learning environments. For students with DD, situated and contextual learning holds particular promise. Yet few special education programs grounded in such learning contexts exist (National Research Council, 2001). Two supporting

factors also were identified: **multiple literacies** and student **motivation** to learn. Smith and Hill's later research (2001-2005) examined how the same types of school programs contribute to the development of young adults' lives. It confirmed the four central factors and two supporting factors that comprised the initial theory (Hill & Smith, 1998) and identified four additional factors: **identity**, **career planning**, **human relationships**, and **teacher attributes** (Hill & Smith, 2005).

1.2 A Disabilities Studies Framework

A disability studies framework, which is an inclusive educational approach, strives to empower rather than remediate those who have been labelled with a disability (Connor, Gabel, Gallagher, & Morton, 2008; Finkelstein, 2002, 2007; Gabel, 2005; Thomas & Loxley, 2007). Aligned with recent theory (e.g., Allan, 1999; Connor, Gabel, Gallagher, & Morton, 2008; Corbett, 2001; Finkelstein, 2002, 2007; Slee, 1993, 2001a, 2001b; Steiner Bell, 2004; Thomas & Loxley, 2007), we argue that sites used in our research are learning environments that honour intellectual diversity (Hill & Smith, 1998, 2005), and mirror approaches found in the literature on inclusive educational practice. Teachers who teach in the programs have for many years used pedagogies that "respect differences in others" and view students as "active subjects, with desires rather than needs" (Allan, 1999, pp. 120, 126). Further, they use a "connective pedagogy" (Corbett, 2001, p. 115) that combines approaches such as those described by Lewis and Norbett (2000) and that mirror schools that are "learning inclusive" (O'Brian, 2000). Knowing that our research sites offered experiential learning, functional curricula in authentic settings, supported work experiences, and a broadening of student educational and community networks, we found that students with DD who access these learning environments experienced an empowering educational experience, one where they were able to make decisions, follow their interests, and potentially have increased life prospects after leaving secondary school. These experiences are expected in a disabilities studies framework, but typically not found in a special education model.

1.3 Research Aims

Two of our project's four research aims are addressed in this paper: (1) to facilitate the inclusion of students with developmental (dis)abilities (DD) in secondary school programs offered by a school board in south-eastern Ontario that spearheaded special learning environments fostering career experiences in technical trades and with which the PI has conducted previous research; and (2) to explore, document, and explain educational experiences for secondary students with DD in such programs.

2 Methodology and Methods

The methodological approach used in this qualitative research was the case study, with multi-cases and multi-sites. The research methods consisted of participant observations, informal fieldwork interviews and research notes, formal interviews with parents, teachers, educational assistants, and administrators, and analysis of documents from the Board of Education and the teacher, as well as of Ministry of Education policy documents.

2.1 Participants

Participants were identified through a selection committee at the Board of Education on which the principal investigator (PI) was a member. Four students were selected and followed as each engaged in a Packaged Course Program of their choosing; two students in Year 1 of the research and an additional two in Year 2. All students were enrolled in the public secondary school system in Eastern Ontario, Canada. Each student had been diagnosed with DD at a young age. Enrolment in a Packaged Course Program of their choice, programs traditionally limited to non-disabled students, meant changing schools and school programs (from enrolment in special education programming to mainstream education).

Table 1: Participant and Their Selected Packaged Course Program

Case	Student	Year of Data Collected	Packaged Course Program	School
A	D	Year 2	Studio Production	YCI Secondary School
B	B	Year 2	Becoming a Baker	Bay Secondary School
C	Karen	Years 1 & 2	Techniques Hair Design	MECVI Secondary School
D	K	Years 1 & 2	Chef's Program	YCI Secondary School

3 Results and Discussion

Results provide information on the four cases: the school programs that participants selected in order to pursue their varied interests and data about the experiences of the four participants as they studied in a mainstream Packaged Course Program.

3.1 Participant's Selected Packaged Course Program

In Case A, the student named "D" opted for the *Studio Production Packaged Course Program*. This program, offered in Semester 1 (September to February), comprised of a package of both academic and vocational courses: Drama: Film/ Video, Communications Technology, English Media Studies, and Technological Design.

In Case B, the student named "B" selected the *Becoming a Baker Packaged Course Program* which consists of three courses in Semester 1 (September to February): Hospitality and Tourism, Entrepreneurship: The Venture, and Cooperative Education.

In Case C, the student named "Karen" dreamt of becoming a hair dresser. She was ecstatic to have the opportunity to take the *Techniques Hair Design Packaged Course Program.* This program, offered over both school semesters from September to April, is comprised of a package of both academic and vocational courses: Hairstyling, English - Communication in Business, Mathematics for Work and Everyday Life, Exploring The Arts, Environmental Science, and Cooperative Education (Hairstyling).

In Case D, the student named "K" selected the *Chef's Packaged Course Program*. This program also is comprised of a package of both academic and vocational courses: Culinary Arts Management, Hospitality and Tourism, English, Business, and Cooperative Education.

All four programs represent a package of credits that introduce career opportunities to students in technical careers. Packaged Course Programs were selected as research settings for this study because their characteristics (Hill & Smith, 2005) match learning environments and pedagogical approaches called for in the literature on disability studies and inclusive educational practices for students who are abled in different ways. They offered authentic learning environments and the opportunity to examine a learning environment where a diverse student population - with different ways of knowing, different abilities, and different career paths - could be respected and seen as "active subjects, with desires rather than needs" (Allan, 1999, pp. 120, 126); this represents a significant departure from traditional special education approaches (e.g., Heshusius, 2004).

3.2 The Participants

In this section, a brief story of three of the four participants is provided, and one participant's story is told in more detail.

D (Case A), a male participant, was 17 years old at the time of the study and lived at home with his mother and younger brother. At a young age, D was diagnosed with Autism. Eventually he was enrolled in a number of autism programs in elementary school. D's mother attributed problems in these programs to difficulties getting along with others or with D's desire to participate in "normal" school activities. When D started secondary school, his mother noticed that problems that had arisen through his elementary school years had subsided. She attributed this to the increased structure and regular routine associated with a secondary school schedule. D started secondary school at one school, where he completed Grade 9 and his first semester of Grade 10. In the second semester of Grade 10 he was required to change schools because of a problematic social situation. In Grade 11, he took courses including math, geography, science, art, and gym. In Grade 12, D was enrolled in the Studio Production Packaged Course Program at this same school and an educational assistant (EA) assisted him in theory. D's mother believed D would like to attend a college program related to his interests. By the end of the program, D thought he would like to move to Toronto because it seemed like a really neat city with lots of opportunity to work in television or film. At the end of the data collection year, D required only one more credit to graduate from secondary school. In follow-up after data collection, we found that D had returned to school, obtained course credits from the program, complete his secondary school credits, and graduated from secondary school.

B is a male student in Grade 12 who intended to graduate with his Ontario Secondary School Diploma (OSSD) in June, 2012. In elementary school, B was diagnosed with Communications Exceptionalities, specifically with Autism. Since

then he received a variety of educational supports. He had an EA during his elementary years and has continued to use supports such as a scribe and assistive technology in secondary school. Interestingly, B was never placed in a special education program. He took mainstream courses so as not to be labeled with a developmental disability. While supports were available to B during his time in the Becoming a Baker Program, he often chose to work without them. However, he did ask the teacher for extra time and help on occasion. In classes of the Becoming a Baker Packaged Course Program, when B had some quiet time, he would pull out a book and read. He loved to read and would talk about going home to read after school. He expressed that he wanted to become a writer when he finished school and he made it clear that he did not want to become a baker. This finding is similar for all students who take elective courses in secondary school to explore interests; the course either confirms or does not confirm an interest to pursue further studies or a career in the content area. B had the opportunity to take mainstream courses and make decisions like his non-disabled peers do. He received course credits for the program and has completed his (OSSD).

Karen (Case C) was a 17 years old Grade 11 student, diagnosed with a mild intellectual disability early on in her schooling. She wanted to become a certified hairdresser, therefore, selected the Techniques Hair Design Packaged Course Program. Prior to Karen's educational placement in this program, she was in special education classes, specifically a School-to-Community program. Here, there were up to 14 students in a class with a variety of labels. There was one main teacher per class. Teachers' roles in this program were largely to prepare work for the students, and to complete administrative tasks such as program planning and paperwork. There were multiple educational assistants (EAs) in this School-to Community Program. Their role was to focus assistance on school work or behavioural concerns, for example, going for walks with students in the hall way, time outs, and assistance with going to the washroom. One teacher reported that many students were happy to stay in the School-to-Community program because they were comfortable in their routine. Students could stay in this program from the ages of 14 to 21. Karen had been in the School-to-Community program since Grade 9. Most of her day was spent in the associated classroom where students spent time working on basic literacy, functional math, leisure activities, and jobs around the school such as cleaning cafeteria tables, doing recycling, and making sandwiches for a school lunch program. But Karen's educational interests were outside of the School-to Community program, in hairstyling and esthetics, photography, and cooking. Her friends and social networks were also outside the School-to Community program and in her free time, she did not socialize with many students in this program. Karin wanted to be a hairdresser, and the program that opened the door to her career interest was the Techniques Hair Design Packaged Course Program at another school, and outside of the School-to-Community program assigned to her as her expected educational possibility. In the Techniques Hair Design Packaged Course Program, Karen was supported part-time by an EA who helped Karen keep on track with her tasks and theory work. Karen also used a computer program, Kurzweil to assist her in her learning. Karen received course credits for the program and completed her secondary school. At the time of our follow-up, Karen was working on her apprenticeship hours towards certification as a hairdresser, and wanted to go to college to further pursue hairdressing.

K (Case D), a male student, was enrolled in the Chef's Packaged Course Program. K was identified as a student with Intellectual Exceptionality, specifically, Developmental Disability. K was in a special education program prior to the Chef's Packaged Course Program. In the Chef's Packaged Course Program K was supported by an EA, mostly during formal classroom instruction and its associated work, and occasionally in the kitchen during practical lessons. Although K was often not required to complete the same work as his classmates, the teacher provided K with opportunities to integrate with his classmates. K is an extremely friendly, open, and generous student. He is passionate about cooking and included completion of the Chef's Packaged Course Program as part of his life goals. This was apparent when K worked in the kitchen, as it motivated him to work cooperatively with others and learn from his mentors. His goal shifted later in the program when he began working at Costco as a food sampler, and with success. This job required K to frequently interact with people and encourage them to buy a specific food product, and it turned out that K had a gift in communicating with others because he is a likeable person and a great conversationalist. As the semester continued, K realized that although he liked working with food, he also really liked working with people. He discovered that his job at Costco allowed him to do both. At the time of our follow-up, K had not earned his course credits in Culinary Arts Management and Hospitality and Tourism, courses in the program package. However, he had learned associated skills and knowledge to maintain employment related to food.

4   Conclusion

Our preliminary analysis of data in this study indicates that some changes occur in the initial Theory of Authentic Learning (Hill & Smith 1998, 2005) when examining the educational experiences of differently abled students.

Mediation, embodiment, distribution, and situatedness were confirmed, as were the two original supporting factors of multiple literacies and motivation (Hill & Smith, 1998). The four additional factors of identity, career planning, human relationships, and teacher attributes (Hill & Smith, 2005) also were confirmed. However, identity and teacher attributes were expanded in this study because data were collected from additional sources; from teachers, parents, and EAs. Accordingly, identity expanded to student identity, parent identity, teacher identity, and EA identity. Attributes also expanded to teacher attributes, parent attributes, and EA attributes. We distinguished between identity and attributes where identity represents what individuals say about themselves and attributes are what others say about an individual. Further, two additional factors emerged in the present study, **support network** and **program**.

It is a very complex process for students labeled with DD to participate in credit courses outside of typical special education programming. The four participants in this study had dreams and desires for their lives. The regular special education did not meet their needs, and did not facilitate another vision of education for these students. The participants experienced challenges and barriers in gaining access to the Packaged Course Programs in which they sought enrollment. Despite these difficulties, their experiences and successes in their selected program advanced their abilities to be contributing members of society in their adult years after secondary school. As Karen's father (Case D) repeated over and over again during interviews, for Karen, "This is the dance". Data indicates that full inclusion in the Packaged Course Programs also was the dance for the other participants.

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The Hangzhou Model of Internationalization of Curriculum Studies

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Abstract

The Hangzhou Model of Internationalization 1) promotes the internationalization of curriculum studies through cross-cultural cooperative research, 2) communicates cultural wisdom, producing new knowledge, 3) aspires to create new cross-cultural methods to address both recurring and emerging curriculum problems in this international era, and 4) promotes the understanding of curriculum practice and contribute to more worthwhile curriculum in schools. We express our conviction that through cross-cultural cooperative research, we can contribute to the reconstruction of curriculum practice.

Keywords: China, internationalization, cross-cultural research, worthwhile school curriculum

1. Introduction

At this first meeting of the European Association for Curriculum Studies we wish to describe one effort to engage in the internationalization of curriculum studies currently being developed now in Hangzhou, China, under the leadership of Professor Zhang Hua. Professors Zhang Wenjun and William F. Pinar are working closely with Professor Zhang Hua to develop and actualize this model, which at this point of formulation has four elements: 1. To promote the internationalization of curriculum studies through cross-cultural cooperative research, thereby contributing to the reconstruction of curriculum knowledge and values. 2. To communicate cultural wisdom. Especially in China, curriculum research and development are informed by cultural perspectives and wisdom traditions. Cross-cultural research can produce new knowledge and wisdom and contribute to the worldwide field. 3. To create new methods to address both recurring and emerging curriculum problems in this international era. Through cross-cultural cooperative problem solving and the sharing of wisdom traditions, we can discover new meanings of existing methods and create new methods of curriculum research. 4. To promote the understanding of curriculum practice and contribute to more worthwhile curriculum in schools. Through cross-cultural cooperative research, we can contribute to the reconstruction of curriculum practice. Through mutual understanding and cooperation between researchers and practitioners, we can reconceptualize the curriculum.

In the next sections we sketch the four elements of the Hangzhou Model. These remain in early stages of formulation, and we invite our European colleagues – and others who may be in attendance - to make recommendations. We conclude with a brief summary statement and an invitation to colleagues worldwide to join us in Hangzhou in ongoing conversation and cross-cultural collaborative curriculum research and develop.

2. Internationalization

In contrast to the standardization globalization threatens, the internationalization of curriculum studies forefronts difference through dialogue among colleagues across national borders as we report to each other developments in our

respective academic fields and in the schools, as we engage in efforts to understand in our own terms how intellectual histories and present circumstances inform these developments. Clarification – not comparison – is, then, the first stage of internationalization, as we cannot assume we understand even common concepts – such as curriculum implementation – unless we appreciate the term's contextualization within colleagues' distinctive national histories and cultures as well as its connotations in present debates, reforms, and research. Efforts at clarification are context-specific: it is particular colleagues working in specific countries who labor to understand their colleagues' research within its own setting, within that setting's history and present circumstances. For example, when Portuguese colleagues seek to understand curriculum research and development in, say, India – what we could call the Portugal-India cross[1] – there will reciprocal self-disclosure, as the Portuguese colleagues' questions cannot be comprehended unless their contextualization, on their own terms, is accomplished, however summarily. Only after clarification has been accomplished can comparison – perhaps emphasizing differences – can be undertaken.

To provide another illustration we turn to an exchange between Zhang Wenjun and Alicia de Alba of the National Autonomous University of Mexico that occurred during the curriculum studies in China project that is now in press.[2] After studying Zhang's essay[3] on the concept of postmodernism, focused on its importation and recontextualization in China, Alicia de Alba[4] asked Zhang Wenjun: "Why, do you think, that from postmodernism perspectives is it possible to criticize and analyse the core problems of Chinese culture as well as the core problems of Western culture?" Zhang Wenjun replied by referencing the contemporary scholar Hao Deyong, who had used "cocoon" as a "metaphor of cultural development and self-restraint." Various cultures, Hao had argued, incorporate ideas and practices, then spin them together, rendering their cultural threads thicker, more strong. "During this process," Zhang continued, "cultures constantly seek more power and control, finally achieving hegemony, at which point they become conservative, closed, exclusive, even arbitrary." The "cocoon" metaphor could serve as a "parable" of Foucault's concept "discourse." Like the "episteme," various moments, tendencies, even cultures coalesce into distinctive phenomena; Hao provided a genealogy of medieval, modern western, and Confucian cultures, construing them as distinctive discursive formations.

In this brief exchange we see how a question from a colleague in Mexico to her colleague in China sought clarification of a concept well known to her[5] but, as Alicia de Alba appreciated, enjoyed a different history and usage elsewhere. Referencing postmodernism's capacity to provide opportunities for critique that Zhang had cited in her essay, Alicia de Alba's question of clarification prompted Zhang Wenjun to recall Hao's metaphor of "thread" to depict a concept's recontextualization. Referencing a common and key theorist known worldwide – Michel Foucault – Zhang offered a bridge between two distinct sites and traditions of curriculum theory. In this Mexico-China "cross," we note that intellectual histories inform present circumstances across two national borders.

We propose that colleagues in each country organize a series of national conferences, inviting colleagues from other countries to serve on international panels posing questions of clarification to those colleagues labouring to understand their own intellectual histories and present circumstances. In the dialogical encounters that follow, colleagues in the host country can achieve distance from the emergency of the present by replying to questions that require them to understand their own circumstances from other points of view, where concepts they are using might well exhibit different histories and meanings. Members of international panels can contextualize their questions in their own fields, then make recommendations concerning "next steps" for the host country's field, as well as returning home with first-hand reports of what is occurring elsewhere. Publications can record these exchanges – these "crosses" – between specific colleagues working in different nations at different historical moments. Such a multivariate complexity of dialogue across multiple borders constitutes the internationalization of curriculum studies. Such a series of events[6] has now begun in Hangzhou.

3. Cultural Wisdom

By itself, Zhang Hua cautions, internationalization risks "cultural invasion."[7] Historical reconstruction – and specifically of that wisdom[8] displaced by scientism – accompanies contemporary curriculum reform in China. China's great "wisdom traditions" – Buddhism, Confucianism, Taoism[9] – comprise the ancient cultures now being invoked in contemporary curriculum research and development. Confucianism centers on "cultivating individual moral character," Zhou Huixia[10] summarizes, emphasizing "respect," whereas Buddhism focuses on one's heart, stressing "cleanness." Confucianism centered on "cultivating individual moral character," emphasizing "respect," whereas Buddhism centered on cultivating one's heart, stressing "cleanness." Later Confucianism embraced "cleanness" and "finding one's true self", which require "cultivating one's heart." Thus one Confucian doctrine states that "the study of mind and disposition manages one's internality, while serving the sovereignty and the country accomplishes one's externality." The humanities become crucial subjects for cultivating morality, and the teacher is a "person" of "noble character" and "integrity." In fact, "moral behavior outweighs knowledge."[11] Buddhist educational practice, Zhou continues, emphasizes practice, including "meditation." As "mental and spiritual activity," meditation encourages the heart to focus, enabling understanding of the phenomenal world. Following nature in Taoism means respecting the individual's distinctiveness. Teaching "wordlessly" is a Taoist tradition that acknowledges students' subjectivities. Zhou references the Yangming School of Mind; it absorbed Buddhist thought, especially Zen Buddhism. Yangming's admonition to "inquire inside" was inspired by Zen's concern with self-comprehension. "Such thoughts," Zhou observed, "remain the cultural roots of contemporary education in China." "In my opinion," Zhou Huizia concludes, referencing present circumstances, "Confucianism indicates a sign of resurrection."

Internationalization, Zhang Hua emphasizes, requires "respect for cultural uniqueness, complexity, and differences" as we "increase the sharing of interests, and promote interaction and cooperation among all countries and cultures." Such cooperation, Zhang Hua concludes, is the meaning of "cultural democratization." He cautioned: "If the principle of democracy were overlooked and destroyed, 'internationalization' would deteriorate into cultural invasion or international autocracy." Zhang Hua argues that the "integrity" of "internationalization" and "democratization" is "the fundamental meaning of cosmopolitism … the basic philosophy guiding our international relationships." He emphasizes that "the meaning of our cause—internationalization of curriculum studies—is not limited to the curriculum field. It is an organic part of the project 'for the better world'."[12]

4. New Methods

Understanding this cosmopolitan cause of curriculum studies provides opportunities to recover and share the cultural history and wisdom that informs our respective fields, enabling us to create new methods to solve both recurring and emerging curriculum problems, unique to our specific settings and sometimes shared by all of us. Both "national" and "international" are "relational concepts," Zhang Hua[13] has pointed out, so that "we should understand them based on relational" not "atomized" or "entity thinking." Within China, he suggests, "international and cross-cultural communications are necessary and inescapable." Zhang references the incorporation of Buddhism into Chinese life – dating it to the Han Dynasty – followed by the importation of Zen from Japan. "If one culture is too local, limited, and narrow-minded to pass the examination of international interaction," he has observed, "it will disappear at last." Zhang suggested that the "international" is the basic condition of "national." Indeed, the "uniqueness of any nation, country, culture, and so on is the prerequisite for 'internationalization'."

Zhang emphasizes the "uniqueness" of each concept (national, international), of each phenomenon (internationalization), asserting: "No uniqueness, no relationship." Nationality references the multiplies histories and

cultures of any single country but internationalization belongs to no one country but references the relationships among various nations, a "third space"[14] that is implied in notions of "interculturality" and "internationality." For Zhang, this non-coincidence between the "national" and the "international" implies a "critical consciousness." From that critical consciousness - expressed in dialogical encounters across borders - can come new methods of international, and national, understanding, thereby contributing to the emergence of a worldwide field of curriculum studies as it supports the intellectual advancement of nationally distinctive fields and the public schools they study and support.

5. Curriculum Practice

Contemporary curriculum reform in China, Ma[15] Yungpeng reports, "embraces new methods such as encouraging students to ask questions, to pay attention to problems in real life, and to guide students to inquire and explore." Now "there are more student activities and communication in class. Students have more opportunities to ask questions." These new methods in teaching follow from the reform's determination to recast curriculum as the cultivation of students' personalities. Now the curriculum is to emphasize character education, to exhibit a humanistic quality as it includes a course of comprehensive practical activities, enabling students to learn interdisciplinarity. The core of Chinese educational reform, Zhong[16] explains, is curriculum reform. And the core of curriculum reform is the reform of classroom teaching. And the core of classroom-teaching reform depends upon the professional development of teachers.

In coming years colleagues in universities and in public schools across China as well as colleagues from abroad will be invited to Hangzhou to participate in conferences dedicated to understand and improve these new methods encouraged by the reform. Last March an international conference - focused on autobiography and teacher development (see note 6) – was held. Understanding curriculum as complicated conversation invites teachers to engage colleagues in dialogue over their experiences of teaching. International colleagues – both university professors and classroom teachers – can narrate their own experience and address the experience of their Chinese colleagues as they labor to enact curriculum reform. This ongoing conversation represents a "new internationalism" – a form of intellectual exchange and professional solidarity[17] across borders – among those dedicated to understanding, and from understanding, improving the curriculum.

6. Conclusion

Zhang Hua[18] names four prerequisites for the future development of curriculum studies in China. First is "interactive pluralism," that "we should be open to every trend of thought in society, and at the same time, create conditions to carry on 'complicated conversations' among them." Second is the ongoing significance of studying intellectual history and China's wisdom traditions, important not only for the future of Chinese curriculum field, but also for giving the field "its true meaning." Third, Chinese curriculum scholars, schoolteachers, and curriculum policy-makers "should be open to curriculum theories from other countries or regions." Internationalization and nationalization are reciprocally related, and so texts from aboard must be welcomed but "we should study them based on our own culture and 'sinologize' them as much as possible. This double interconnected movement – internationalization and nationalization – acknowledges that curriculum scholars are at the same time working locally and focused globally, that the importation of ideas from abroad must be both be understood on their own terms (as they function in the places of their genesis) but also recontextualized according to the present circumstances and intellectual histories of the place where they now have achieved a "second life." This double movement – exchanges among colleagues at home and

from elsewhere – complicates the conversation as it affirms our international solidarity with the common cause of curriculum studies dedicated to understanding, and from understanding, improving the school curriculum. That is the Hangzhou Model of Internationalization.

Endnotes

[1] In the present context "cross" des not reference the famous Christian symbol but represents the horizontal and vertical directions of dialogical encounter: historical within each colleagues' field, and present-minded, as colleagues labor to understand the present circumstances of each other's field.

[2] Pinar in press.

[3] Zhang Wenjun in press.

[4] All quoted passages in these two paragraphs are from Pinar in press.

[5] See Alba et al. 2000.

[6] In March 2013 an international conference on Autobiography and Teacher Development was held at Hangzhou Normal University, with keynote speakers from Brazil, Canada, Luxembourg, and the United States as well as from across China. A collection of essays will follow (Zhang and Pinar, in preparation). Another international conference is planned for May 2014. From mid-May through June 30 Pinar was in residence at Hangzhou Normal University, teaching graduate students and conferred with colleagues there, Zhejiang University, and the Tianjin Academy of Educational Sciences. He will return to Hangzhou in May 2014.

[7] Quoted in Pinar in press. Recall that "cultural invasion" can occur within nations across classes and politicized formations: see Freire 1970, 150ff.

[8] See Smith 2014.

[9] See Zhang in press.

[10] All quoted passages from Pinar in press.

[11] For me the canonical curriculum question – what knowledge is of most worth? – is also a moral question. The teacher threads the moral through academic knowledge, and vice versa. Unless it is threaded through academic knowledge and dialogical encounter, morality can become split-off, a grid conformity to which conceals difference and dynamism.

[12] All quoted passages in this paragraph are from Pinar in press.

[13] All quoted passages in these two paragraphs are from Pinar in press.

[14] Here Zhang referenced Aoki (see Pinar and Irwin 2005).

[15] Quoted in Pinar in press.

[16] Zhong 2009; quoted in Chen in press.

[17] In a forthcoming book to be published by Routledge, Janet L. Miller characterizes these events as creating "communities without consensus," as the preservation of intellectual independence, cultural and national distinctiveness, and professional ethics in our complicated conversation is paramount.

[18] See Zhang Hua in press.

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The Hidden Curriculum in Technology Business Based Incubators

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RESUMO

O fenômeno do empreendedorismo transformou o mundo em todos os setores, especialmente em ambientes projetados para acomodar as empresas que buscam modernização e transformação de ideias em produtos, processos e / ou serviços, como no caso das incubadoras. O artigo tem como objetivo identificar o currículo oculto em empresas de base tecnológica incubadas. Esta é uma pesquisa exploratória - qualitativa, pois não há conhecimento estruturado sobre o currículo oculto em incubadoras de empresas. O método utilizado foi de entrevista semiestruturada e observações. A pesquisa foi realizada no Centro de Desenvolvimento Tecnológico da Universidade de Brasília - Brasil, empresas incubadas, buscando integrar os fatores internos e externos que são as atitudes, valores, comportamentos e orientações sobre a aprendizagem dentro uma Incubadora de Empresas. Assim, foi proposto o MIC – Modelo de Identificação do Currículo Oculto na Incubadora para comprovar a relação entre o sujeito e o ambiente. O modelo mostra os fatores internos e externos como o indutor do currículo oculto na aprendizagem. A pesquisa permitirá uma contribuição para que os gestores de incubadoras melhorem ainda mais a formação de empreendedores sob a perspectiva do currículo oculto para maximizar o conhecimento inovador. A pesquisa é inédita no meio acadêmico sobre o currículo oculto em uma Incubadora de Empresas de Base Tecnológica, tendo como objetivo propor um modelo para a identificação de currículo oculto nele.

Palavras Chave: Empreendedor, Currículo Oculto e Incubadora de Empresas.

ABSTRACT

The phenomenon of entrepreneurship has transformed the world in all sectors, especially in environments designed to accommodate companies seeking modernization and transformation of ideas into products, processes and / or services, as in the case of the incubators. The article aims to identify the hidden curriculum in technology-based companies incubated. This is an exploratory research - qualitative, because there is no structured knowledge about the hidden curriculum in business incubators. The method was semi-structured interviews and observations. The research was conducted at the Center of Technological Development at the University of Brasilia - Brazil, incubated companies seeking to integrate the internal and external factors which are the attitudes, values, behaviors and guidance on learning within a Business Incubator. Thus, we propose a MIC - Model Identification of hidden curriculum in the Incubator to prove the relationship between the subject and the environment. The model shows the internal and external factors as the inducer of the hidden curriculum in learning. The research will allow a contribution to the incubator managers that will further improve the training of entrepreneurs from the perspective of the hidden curriculum to maximize innovative knowledge. The research is unprecedented in academia about the hidden curriculum in a Technology Business Incubator, aiming to propose a model for identifying hidden curriculum.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship , Hidden Curriculum and Incubators Business.

1. Introduction

The phenomenon of entrepreneurship is growing every day, both the creation of businesses and research on the topic. The Business Incubators are part of this phenomenon that started around the 80's in Brazil. The business incubation programs in universities have been growing in the country and the world, in order to help leverage these in the area of business management.

Training for Entrepreneurs is a process analogous to the success of companies that are incubated, which can be understood as the formation of companies most enduring and successful. However, a relevant factor is the evaluation of curriculum review program. During the incubation period the managers of companies conduct courses, lectures, seminars, conferences and diversified consulting, aiming to increase the managerial capacity to interfere with the learning process and in meeting the needs of the business interactively.

However, the official curriculum does not translate to effective learning of these managers because there is an innovative knowledge that adds other results not controlled. This article is presented as a qualitative exploratory research and proposes a model to identify the hidden curriculum in the incubator for technology-based companies.

The research is exploratory and qualitative, for case study, in the Business Incubator Technology Based at the University of Brasilia, defined by Yin (2009, p. 51), as the best method for exploratory research, as no bibliographic references in the scientific literature, as it has in the Formation of Entrepreneurs, a time of learning, called Cafe Enterprise (Brazil - UNB).

The main motivation of the research is to explore the connection between the hidden curriculum, entrepreneur and the incubator because there has never been a study in the scientific literature that aspect. The hidden curriculum has a dimension of attitudes, behaviors, values and guidelines that affect learning in the incubator for technology-based companies.

2 – Methodology

Pascal emphasized that: "I can only understand the whole, if I know specifically the parts, and I can only understand the parts if I know the whole."

Accordingly, we adopted a case study, adopting the Business Incubator CDT / UNB - Brazil, in this research, in order to explore a topic never before investigated in the scientific literature. Stake (2010, p. 12), "states that qualitative studies are excellent way to analyze the real and existing people or organizations are using to run."

Qualitative analysis was sought to measure the hidden curriculum and its model as the most appropriate for this research through content analysis.

Content analysis can be assigned, according to Bardin (2010, p 44).

"A set of techniques for analysis of communications in order to obtain a systematic and objective procedures to describe the content of the messages indicators (quantitative or not) that allow the inference of knowledge concerning the conditions of production / reception - inferred variables of these messages."

We analyzed the interviews, comparing the characteristics of the variables (attitudes, behaviors, values and orientations), confirming the existence of the hidden curriculum and preparation of MIC - Model Identification Hidden Curriculum.

So we cannot say that qualitative research is generalizable, but exploratory in the sense of seeking knowledge for a question on which the available information is still insufficient.

2.1- Research Question

Is there a hidden curriculum in the Formation of Entrepreneurs Incubator Based Technology Company? It is possible to propose a model identification Hidden Curriculum in Business Incubator Based Technology?

2.2 - Method

Instrument applied in research - interviews with twenty (20) questions, incubated for entrepreneurs, aiming to raise the necessary information to support or not the arguments presented and a semi-structured interview with the Manager of Incubator CDT / UNB.

Richardson (2009, p. 30) emphasizes this method "to collect information, should be used qualitative tools (semi or unstructured)."

Besides the interviews were conducted observations that contributed to the analysis result. According to Stake (2010, p.30), "the researcher is an instrument to observe actions and contexts and often intentionally to play a role in the subjective study, using personal experience in making interpretations."

3 – Model Identification Hidden Curriculum

The MIC - Model Identification Hidden Curriculum is offered in an incubator for technology-based companies.

Within this model is the hidden curriculum research object. For this it is necessary to appropriate the concept in order to outline the research.

The first to explore the hidden curriculum was John Dewey in his book Democracy and Education, in 1938. But the concept of hidden curriculum was first used by Philip Jackson in 1968 in the book "Life in classrooms," finding changes in patterns and trends in the development of public schools.

Silva (2011, p. 78) defines the hidden curriculum as all those aspects of the school environment, not part of the official curriculum, explicit, contribute, implicitly, to social learning relevant.

Highlights Silva (2011, p. 78) that these "learnings are fundamentally attitudes, behaviors, values and guidelines."

With this argument was proposed Model Identification Hidden Curriculum in the form of internal and external factors to prove the same.

So much so that Santomé (2005, p. 61) states that "the academic requirements of the official curriculum are addressed as directly related to productive adult life through the hidden curriculum."

This further emphasizes the existence of the hidden curriculum in Business Incubator Technology Based confirming the research.

Training of Entrepreneurs in the incubators was observed in the hidden curriculum learning. Thus this research first identified the hidden curriculum in an incubator for technology-based companies, and proposes a model, noting that the hidden curriculum.

MIC - Model Identification of Hidden Curriculum
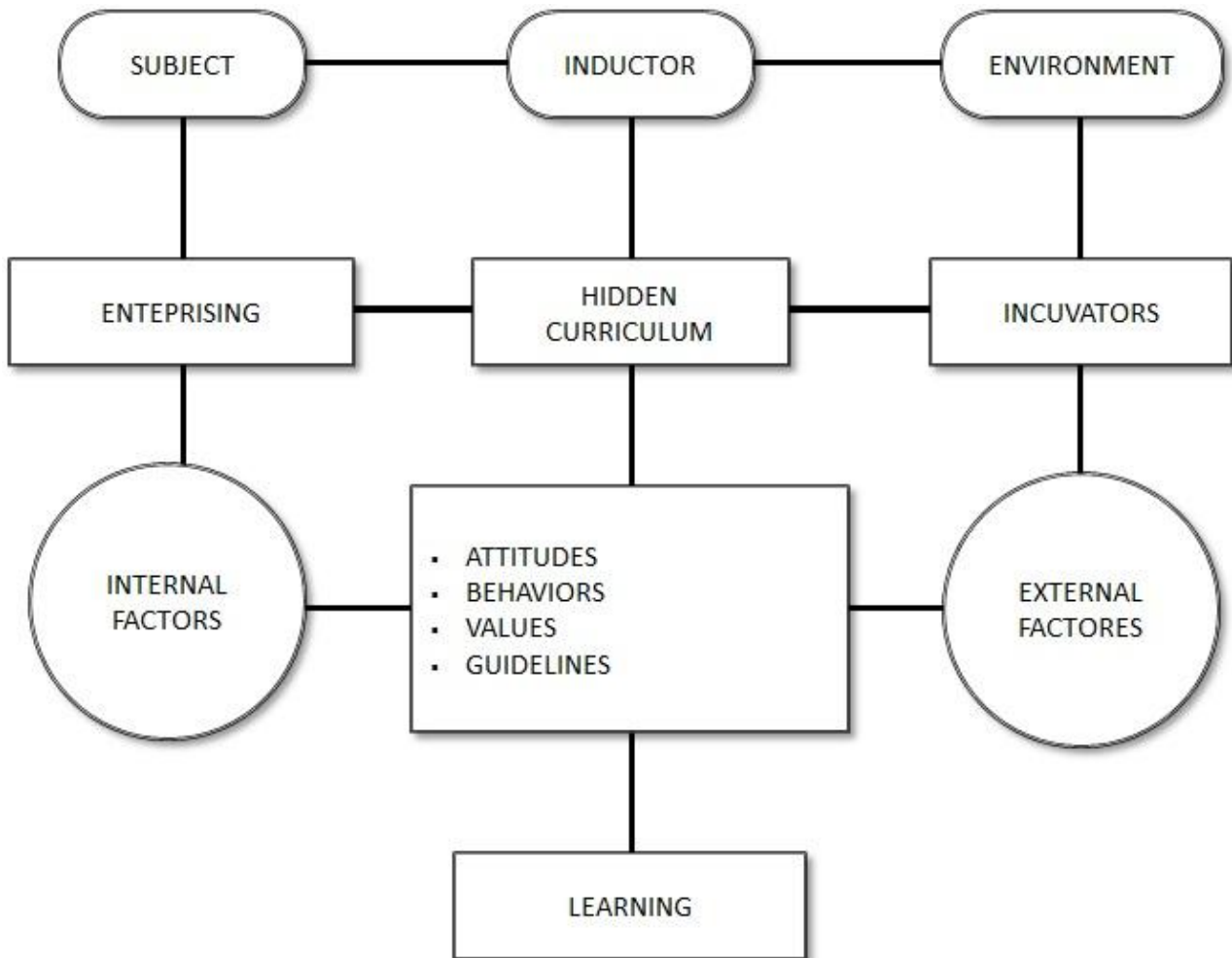
Pic. 1 –MIC - Model Identification of Hidden Curriculum

This MIC - Model Identification Hidden Curriculum was built with the search result and performs with two levels at any level of learning in any environment. In this particular case, we present in a Business Incubator Based Technology.

The first level consists of the subject, and inducing environment. The subject is the person who will attend the event on education. To conceptualize entrepreneur, Milk (2001, p.165) defines:

"The entrepreneur in technology-based company is the individual who creates a company to make products or services using high technological content, incorporating principles or process innovators recent applications, even if not unprecedented."

Still on the first level we have the Incubator Technology Based Companies where ANPROTEC (National Association of Entities Promoting Entrepreneurship and Innovation) defines:

"The business incubator aims to support entrepreneurs so that they can develop innovative ideas and turn them into successful ventures. For that, it offers infrastructure and managerial support, guiding entrepreneurs regarding the management of the business and its competitiveness, among other issues essential to the development of a company. "

The inductor will always be the hidden curriculum with the attitudes, orientations and values acquired by the subject individual throughout their life.

The environment is the organization, consisting of teachers, incubated entrepreneurs, consultants and others where the subject will receive the teaching activities. In this case the environment is the incubator of technology-based companies.

The second level consists of internal and external factors. Internal factors are the following variables: attitudes, behaviors, values and guidelines that the subject has at that moment. External factors are all variables described above in which the environment presents the subject in the course of a given time. Both the internal and external factors have the same variables. The hidden curriculum is interrelated between subject and environment.

When there is a clash of these factors occurs to learning. One factor may override another or may overlap or add one another, learning happening. This learning is relevant to entrepreneurs, because the difference between people is just the hidden curriculum throughout life that constantly changes your perception of the world, not only within an Incubator of Technology Based Companies.

The hidden curriculum is when there is a clash of these factors on the subject within the environment where it acquires an unanticipated learning in the curriculum in the Formation of Entrepreneurs.

Exploratory studies of this research are also essential purpose as become acquainted with the hidden curriculum in Business Incubator Based Technology, a topic unknown or little studied by science. It is expected that this research may serve to develop other methods to be used in further studies with the resume hidden.

The theoretical framework that underpins the Model Identification Hidden Curriculum is specified below:
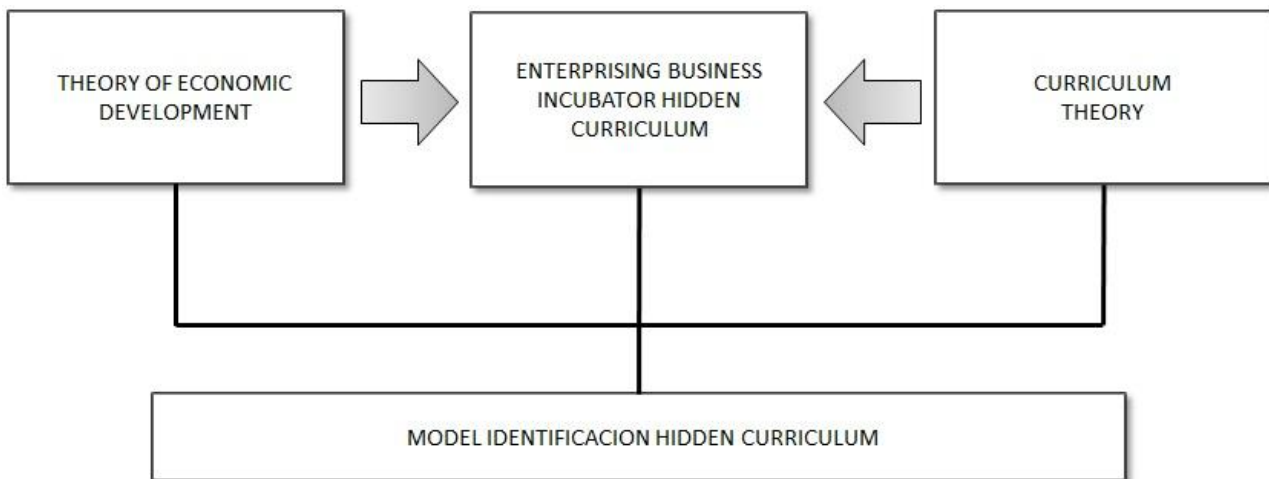
Pic. 2 – Theories of Model Identification Hidden Curriculum

The two theories explain the hidden curriculum in an incubator for technology-based companies, with a view to demonstrating the phenomena.

This treatment was carried out in the research; theories seek to identify the hidden curriculum in the incubators of technology-based companies, according to the following factors:

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│        INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL FACTORS          │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
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          ┌───────────────────────┐
          │                        │
          │   ▪ ATTITUDES          │
          │   ▪ BEHAVIORS          │
          │   ▪ VALUES             │
          │   ▪ GUIDELINES         │
          │                        │
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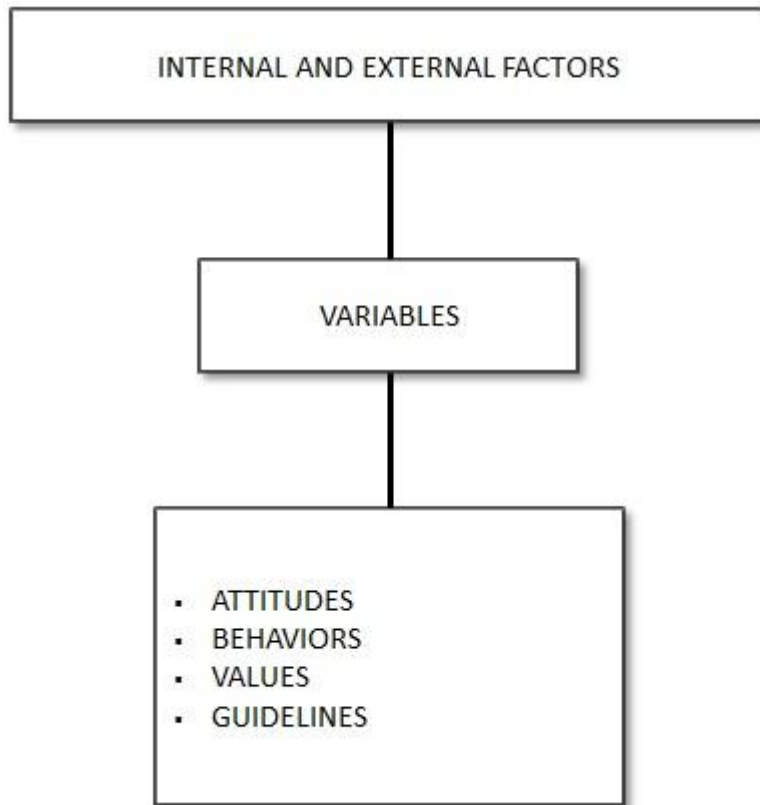
Pic 3 – Internal and External Factors

In this conception, was established the internal and external factors in MIC - Model Identification Hidden Curriculum, establishing confronting these factors within an environment with the subject.

This does not mean an end, but a reconstruction of the learning will happen continuously at each time within an environment, getting an apprenticeship or not.

According to Trillo (2000, p. 139) "it is customary to say that there is a relationship of dependence or subordination, values, attitudes and norms. First, understand that the values are the ultimate foundation of both attitudes and norms. Attitudes depend - or have their basis - the values, as more global projects, being a manifestation or expression of a value. "

The internal and external factors common attitudes, orientations and values are the tensions created a learning environment not covered in the official curriculum. In the hidden curriculum, these are factors that contribute to learning.

Importantly, three situations occur tension of internal and external factors within an environment:

1) Confirm the values, attitudes, orientations and behaviors of a subject within the environment or vice versa;

2) Modify the values, attitudes, orientations and behaviors of a subject within the environment or vice versa, and

3) Add the values, attitudes, orientations and behaviors of a subject within the environment or vice versa.

These tensions between the actors in the model, subject and environment, translate the hidden curriculum in the aspect of learning within the Formation of Entrepreneurs in Business Incubator Based Technology.

Accordingly Trillo (2000, p. 276) emphasizes the following arguments:

"Attitude predetermines behavior; defines the field of possibilities of meaning of the action when it is requested by the concrete situations of life. Attitude is, in turn predetermined by the amount previously internalized. Value, attitude and action form a sequence. The standard should also be internalized, but, while the value only works after its appropriation by the subject, or in other words, the value is only active from the inside, that which can perform its function of inducing desirable behavior from the outside, without the subject feel itself intimately need to be observed. However, the standards are based upon reference values; they prescribe actions objectively implied values. "

So much so that Silva (1996, p. 17) comments that the teacher is first and foremost an advisor along with their students, since education is not limited to instruction: it also presupposes the guidance of the student before the questions and embarrassing situations that it can find. In parallel with the Incubator that has no teachers, because there is no official curriculum, we have other agents that do this role, guiding entrepreneurs in their business.

But Rokeach (1981, p. 107) says that "an attitude is a relatively enduring organization of interrelated beliefs that describe, evaluate and defend the action with respect to an object or situation, with every belief, possessing the cognitive, affective and behavioral. "

And Reich and Adgogk (1976, p. 26) says Rokeach identifies two important functions served by values. One is the pattern is another motivation.

Even with standards indicated in the literature, the research outlined not only whether it has noted the factors, that for attitudes, behaviors, values and guidelines.

The scientific contribution made by Trillo (2000, p. 27) was that "attitudes are not something definite, fixed, stable and unchanging, but it is something living, evolving, dynamic. Attitudes are constructed, teach themselves, modify themselves, are replaced by others, end other."

Accordingly confirmation was performed by searching for the internal and external factors where the exchange between the subject and these can lead to a learning environment, not listed in the official curriculum.

The MIC - Model Identification Hidden Curriculum demonstrates this in a simple and logical to see how learning occurs in the Formation of Entrepreneurs Incubator Technology Base.

This research does not aim to discuss attitudes, orientations and values, but to identify within the internal and external factors in the model in order to prove the existence of the hidden curriculum.

4 – Conclusion

The business incubator conveys much more knowledge that it believes, considering that the hidden curriculum provides an innovative learning not reflected in the planning of the Training of Entrepreneurs.

Research on Technology Development Center at the University of Brasilia, as a case study, correlated with the interviews and observations with the Manager of Incubator Brazil confirmed the existence of the hidden curriculum in Business Incubator Based Technology where we proposed a model identification Hidden Curriculum.

Therefore, the research points to several questions in various areas of science. Areas such as Education, Psychology, Sociology, Anthropology and Genetics that enhance the possibility of discoveries linked with other areas. The questions are: What are the values, attitudes, behaviors and guidelines that influence on learning? Can the hidden curriculum can influence other learning environments? Is it possible to measure an individual assessment of the prospects of the hidden curriculum with the internal and external factors in learning? Is there a predictive power of values on attitudes and behaviors and orientations in a learning environment? Is there in the composition of the DNA of individuals the values, attitudes, behaviors and guidelines that work in learning? Is the hidden curriculum merely a reproduction of society to the individual? Do the internal and external factors of values, attitudes, orientations and behaviors influence learning? Is the hidden curriculum part of learning during human evolution? Is it possible to measure the values, attitudes, orientations and behaviors in a learning environment? Who conveys more values, attitudes, orientations and behaviors to family or school? What seems to be the most prevalent factors in the hidden curriculum, internal or external?

This research has not exhausted all explanations of the causes of the hidden curriculum in a Business Incubator Technology Base; there is a need to explore the science of this phenomenon.

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6– Apendice

Pictures

Picture 1 - MIC - Model Identification of Hidden Curriculum

Picture 2 - Theories of Model Identification Hidden Curriculum

Picture 3 - Internal and External Factors - Variables

6– Apendice

Creative Expressive Pedagogy

A new learning methodology for a new curriculum.

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This issue arises from the experience of empirical research, from practice as an educator for 30 years in classrooms with teacher training in Brazil and Latin America through a methodology guided by the interaction and knowledge production with the axis praxis in new school. The proposed research develops a model of pedagogical work as a contribution to the pedagogy of the century, which is based on the development of creativity, multiple languages, through information and communication technologies (ICTs). It includes creativity and expression in school as factors of motivation and accelerated learning, and action integrated information technology and communication with emphasis on the use of telematics (TV and audio-visual) and computers, integrating them, the daily classroom. The essence of this proposal seeks the enhancement of students' expression, movement, and the acquisition of very early mastery of multiple languages and supports in practice in the classroom, to the relationship with the most diverse expertise, working directly in the form (designer) used by teachers to propose their interactions, relationships, learning and assessments in school life. This study / research is determined as a contribution to the innovative pedagogical work by integrating three areas often dissociated from the process of teaching / learning. The research studies and monitors schools and their teachers in the relations of learning, building new praxis, with children in the 4th year of primary education in the areas of Natural Sciences, Geography and History.

KEYWORDS: Learning, creativity, new digital technologies, teacher training, education and society.

An overview on the topic

A lot of the issues discussed in teacher education in all ages of education is to promote students' autonomy, in the teaching / learning, develop values , and shaping the worldview of students. Recurrent various authors and this in hundreds of articles, autonomy becomes key issue in pedagogy, teaching and actions that wanted to develop meaningful learning and emancipatory, students and students across globe.

However in recent years due to the invasion, in classrooms all over the planet, new teaching / learning (methodologies , educational praxis , new instructional designer), autonomy and their basic skills are then discussed and advocated . Despite all the "modernity" many governments (Portugal , United Kingdom , Brazil , Chile , among many) contrary to the current paradigm , looking back to the past and tools for content-based training , through the implementation of tests , indices and specific primers and standardized .

These governments performative value an education , based on the expertise of the Portuguese and mathematics , believing there to be output to the formation of human beings of the future , said the perfect student . In full century of knowledge , authors like Burrhus Frederic Skinner , spend attending many rooms , like behaviorism could solve the challenges of today's world and opens the door to the future , forgetting universal teachings "to teach is not to transfer knowledge but to create the possibilities for its production or its construction " (Freire , 1996 , p.22) .

We know the practice and teaching by the ideas of several authors as Maturana (2001) , Haetinger & Haetinger (2011) , Levi (1999) , Morin (2001) that the fundamental issues in the world of knowledge , in this third millennium , information on clouds , of intuitive technology , the internet , Google , the virtual encyclopedias , the music and video players , collaborative knowledge , the collective authorship , are not in the know hard or in such proficiency of the student, but in his success , as human social and inserted into various ecologies as cited Gattari (1990). This success is today a much friendlier to their knowledge as a parallel Creativity , Expression, decision making , values in proactivity in networking and autonomy than in tough and memorable content .

Paulo Freire (1996) in his book Pedagogy of Autonomy , written over 10 years ago, now shows us these ideas and advocated what today is a social and cultural challenge : helping children, youth and adults , to promote in their process teaching / learning , a single view of each individual on the world and its objects , a difference significant and builder . Promoting their independence , their freedom of transit is essential in a world where standards are run by machines , and the great social bargaining chip , in this free and creative thinking , there land the paradigms of this century , the differences for the realization of men and women.

We must oppose "the wickedness neoliberal cynicism of his fatalistic ideology and its adamant refusal to dream and utopia" (Freire , 1996, p. 14). It is this pursuit of the dream and utopia that moves us in the teaching / learning , a relentless search for the construction , growth and achievement of our students , our dream educator mixtures to utopias that grow in the mind of each student in classroom.

This search brings us closer to another fundamental point made by Paulo Freire in this book that is the "ethical responsibility in the exercise of our teaching task" (Freire , 1996,   p. 15) . Responsibility that we should do this daily questioning our methods , attitudes and practice in the classroom . This ethics that requires us to not only talk but listen equally to all involved in the educational process . Teach and train this listening, as noted by Paulo Freire , in this and other works , translates this fundamental thought that the teaching practice should promote the autonomy and freedom. "We can not take as being promoters of this change if we are not primarily ethical subject" (Freire , 1996 , p.17) .

Complete this thought with ethical teachers , who themselves as belonging to the world today, as social actors as protagonists in the human, as " springboard " of developments and discoveries , and not just as a strong presence in this social reality and remarkable cultural and ecological , as noted by Freire (1996) and Gattari (1990) . This idea brings us closer to being a strongly expressed , that communicates that example is in a standardized and globalized world . Expression which begins in the types of relationships that we develop in our homes , with our parents, our first teachers , past teachers and teachers from all over the planet .

In recent decades this social reality that are inserted educators (teachers / the parents and school) has changed , especially with the changes in the labor market , increasing labor hours , the need for everyone in the family belong to this world of labor (father, mother, aunt, uncle , grandparents , etc) . Children arrive ever earlier school in Brazil increasingly families need to put their children in educational institutions from the end of maternity leave , with 4 or 5 months. This presence child from the earliest years of school life makes everyone have to change roles , curriculum and modes of service of this childhood. It is necessary to develop

not only the care , affection , but also cognition, psychomotor and especially at this time social expression , autonomy , sense and creativity that should be valued , enhanced , disseminated and respected in school environments since early age . Senses developed in early childhood education , through symbolic play , the story- stories , and more diverse expressive activities , painting dramatization we build the intellectual foundations for these children come to be " lords / the " your destination. It is in the children's play born autonomy and relationships with your child's free time , as the authors remind us as Winnicott (1975) and Haetinger (2003) .

And here I open a parenthesis to talk of children developed routines in schools from an early age . We must never confuse routine with conditioning , common confusion in educational practices for children, children who do not play freely , which has daily moments of autonomy and decision-making , will have great difficulties to have dreams and utopias , as Paul calls Freire , or independence and expression, as I prefer to call . " We are conditioned beings , but not certain" (Freire , 1996, p . 19). It is very important that we care not to leave us shape determinism because, as Freire says "there's a sign of the times , among others , that scares me : the insistence with which , in the name of democracy , freedom and efficiency , it is choking freedom itself , and by extension , creativity and taste for adventure" (Freire , 1996, p. 113 and 114) .

To run away from this trap that Paulo Freire us apart in thought above , we start with the ability to listen to the other , to the other accomplice of our dialogue , and to see the other, child , young adult or elderly/a , a being who produces and shares knowledge, and educator / the one / that practice this donation , this sharing of knowledge and livings , not hiding behind a position to know everything , know more , or actions of false hear , very common in classrooms where we do not stop to really practice listening , but we are always ready to confront listening authoritatively , as if older or more educated our students could actually learn someone . Paulo Freire (1996) has argued that others also have said as Spolin (1982) and Maturana (1999) "He who teaches learns to teach and those who learn , teach to learn." (Freire , 1996, p. 23)

I believe I learned this lesson listening, still very young , sitting all evenings with my parents , friends , relatives and colleagues around a wheel mate, where cultural diversity was huge , illiterate boys is still in training of doctors for engineers , all counted stories , legends and tales , exchanged life experiences , where the message was worth what each with its reality could share with others . In general, the more enchanted me were the stories of older, low literate , but with lessons , wisdoms , accompanying me today , cradling my dreams and utopias of freedom and expression in the classroom . " If , in fact , the dream that animates us is democratic and united , is not talking to the other top-down , especially as we were the bearers of truth to be transmitted to others, we learn to listen , but listening we learn talking to them ." (Freire , 1996, p. 113) .

I think this comes from listening in favor of autonomy , listening promoter of the critical sense , listening construction of self-esteem and self image , key factors for deepening and understanding of terms such as creativity , divergent thinking skills and , very important , this was where the main things objects and services have already been invented . This creative capacity that must permeate the teaching / learning in this century , as we never did or thought throughout human history .

Creativity widespread in all social , economic didactics , this emphasis has to be now more than ever , the great promoter of the possibilities of social and cultural transition in a world of constant fluidity and transient truths as we see in work of Morin and Ciurana and Motta (2003) , and Levy (1999) . This world - changing truths and mutants require us to develop in us this creative competence and creative urgently.

As educators we have an even more important task : to provide our alumni / include navigation , experimentation , these new models , new cultures and mostly new ways of being, be , act , live , learn.

Autonomy, A search of many paths.

To deepen the study of autonomy in the classroom , we must consider the variable didactic pedagogical very important and meaningful to think working with pupils and students . The Brazilian philosopher Mario Sergio Cortella in his lectures and events is a wise speech / vision of the confrontations and challenges of the classroom was this : "We teach boys / 21st century schools of the 19th and 20th century with teachers ."

This lag historical social analysis leads us to many of our educational reality and the development of autonomy in all classrooms this planet . The quest for autonomy of the students go through a reform of the way, as if to teach classes and proposes knowledge , Paulo Freire (1996) already addresses this when he says :

" The banking school , which deforms the creative necessity of educating the educator and the student may be subjected to it , not because of the content you whose knowledge was transferred , but because the very process of learning , giving , as we say in the language popular bounce back and overcome authoritarianism and epistemological error of bancarismo " (Freire , 1996, p. 25) .

But overcoming this only happen in rooms where together educators , students and the community understand that the output is not in " Banking education " (Freire , 1996) , but , in teaching expressive and creative for this comeback , authoritarianism , offering to educating a non repetition , but an environment of " questioning " as highlighted by Freire (1996) .

But how do we define autonomy in the classroom ? How can we better understand this fundamental phenomenon in this century , in the formation of minds and hearts of our thousands of pupils ? By observing the digital encyclopedias that term is proposed in education as something that " is linked to the condition of the learner to arrange their own studies , seeking sources of information and knowledge , and building a knowledge linked to their own goals . There is a freedom in the choice of paths and goals of education, which also means a greater responsibility on the part of the learner " (Wikipedia , researched in - http://pt.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autonomia 10.12.2012) .

Already Paulo Freire (1996) , that this essay serves as a guide , says that autonomy consists in the classroom and in the lives of teachers and students / as being a set of ways of teaching such as criticism, aesthetics and ethics, embodiment word as an example , assumption and recognition of cultural identity , awareness of incompleteness respect to the knowledge of the student , common sense , humility , tolerance , joy , hope, curiosity , commitment , understanding , freedom, listening skills , availability for dialogue and finally the wishing well of learners .

Of course when we look at the definition of Paulo Freire on autonomy , it leads us to weigh in a very broad concept comprised of several practices and actions . I approach the idea of Freire and the potential that the praxis of the classroom , performed by male and female teachers in their role of teaching / learning autonomously and creatively , can generate actions , and demonstrate in practice the much sought autonomy promoter potentiator of freedom and individual expression and social , and creativity .

This demonstrates autonomy is especially when teachers and teachers are willing to bring their practices of social and cultural reality of their students , and when we are willing to come down from the pedestal of supreme knowledge , and walk alongside our students really are united in seeking a constructed knowledge and not standardized .

This autonomy is shown in action in the classroom , to real listening (listening) , with an open mind to the new , when using media and multimedia to promote a dynamic learning and more meaningful . The autonomy we refer to this example of the teacher / speech and that is , that theorizes and practices , which is thought and action can be demonstrated in a avaliation fair and participatory , where all instructors are trained and their knowledge , where we are not loaded by teachers in the educational process , but we walk together on a road of many routes , shortcuts , contours and straight . Ways that do not always flock to the same direction , but the opposition also build . After all , Paulo Freire (1996) states in the educational role of the opposition and what he calls the " righteous anger " and exemplifies how " the anger of Christ against the moneychangers from the temple, the progressives against the enemies of agrarian reform , the offended violence against discrimination ... " (Freire , 1996 , p.40) , and I complete the " righteous anger " of the male and female students against old methods , which take her voice , and send just read the books .

This " righteous anger " that come in many schools that stunted and hamper the autonomy of their students , who criticize them all the time , that does not change the methods, the " righteous anger " that removes a child from a quality school committed teachers , who often expressed in indiscipline , the do , the do not speak and do not grow.

Autonomy in the teaching / learning has this role , the liberating role , the role builder, the role of voicing the emancipatory role . We can define this autonomy as human capacity to be human, unique , different and proactive with self-esteem and self-image , able to be " lord and lady of our destiny," of being able to look ahead and see the horizon , their dreams , their utopias . " Coming out as a social and history as a thinking being , communicating , transformer , creator, maker of dreams , able to be angry because they can love . " (Freire , 1996, p. 41)

The curiosity and expression in school

Perhaps the most striking feature of this present time and its new paradigms , is preparing humans for a world in transition . Some may say that the world has been in transition and change, undoubtedly so, but in recent years we are living with a constant acceleration and intense , never seen throughout our evolutionary history . Very quickly moved from a world where time was measured by days , from the 70 accelerated and started thinking about the world for hours , in the nineties , by changing the means of production and the pursuit of extreme performance started to look at the world per minute , and in this century we enter the era of frames .

This paradigm shift in time is changing people's behavior and our pace of life and relationships , including the relationships of teaching / learning . The company's mega information available , accessible and reachable , where boundaries are blurred , and knowledge is shared globally . It is the world where our student born in the last 15 years. These boys and girls who live in this time, together with us , our public schools are humans different to the extremes of our references , and are born in a world where the ability to store knowledge is done by machines , and the big difference is no longer social the accumulation of knowledge , but the way that this process and use the knowledge acquired in school and in life.

In this context the curiosity is an essential human competence in dealing with time and seek knowledge . Curiosity is the driving force in this century of learning activity , such as differential for new flights , and especially as a parent in childhood of creative power . Human curiosity , which no doubt , is our differentiator among other living beings , in the pursuit of knowledge for growth. This curiosity that makes humans evolve and invent outputs to transform your daily life , the invention of the wheel to the plane passing through the microchip , this search is , in all areas of knowledge that enables this call evolution.

But as develop curiosity ? How to give all this fundamental capability in a world of fluidity, uncertainty and unexpected ? Paulo Freire (1996) puts it so brilliant , " Where life , there is unfinished . But just between women and men incompleteness becomes aware " (Freire , 1996, p. 50) .

This awareness advocated that moves us in search of new outlets , new doings , new way to be driven by the ability to seek, not to settle for the reality around him , to be curious and creative . This is curious in turn should and must be stimulated from the school , in the same way and discipline in the last century structure the school from repetition and accumulation of knowledge. " The support came making up the world and life , existence, in the proportion that the human body becomes conscious body , pickup , perceiver , transformer , creator of beauty and not empty space to be filled with content " (Freire , 1996, p. 51)

This support that Paulo Freire defines as solidarity between mind and hands , takes an even more complex in this digital society and knowledge , remembered the work of Lévy (1999) , and Haetinger and Haetinger (2011) , urges us in this quest by being curious , be the transformer , the learner is , by being creative .

This new human being is built in the school with didactic pedagogical actions that enhance the question , which stipulate the playful , discovery, adventure, quest, meaningful learning , work on projects , the interrelationship cross areas of knowledge , work multi -trans inter - disciplinary , where the creative act begins in early childhood psychomotor discovery , through symbolic play , and other techniques lifelong school that transform natural curiosity in this curiosity conscious, director and facilitator of meaningful learning . Paulo Freire (1996) calls this curiously liberating " epistemological curiosity " considered by him , the overcoming of naive curiosity while being curious , but making it a critical curiosity , giving the being of knowledge , but also the possibility of parole .

However , this only happens if all of us in education understand the paradigm shift that goes from accumulation to creativity , curiosity , autonomy. This position requires understanding , action and methods that guide us and help build this new being , and not in the past the possibility for this, but the open mind for the future . In this respect the Creative Expressive Pedagogy , is based on this critical quest for curiosity , freedom of thinking and acting .

Expressive and Creative Pedagogy search equip teachers and teachers with techniques , actions and practices that produce this be curious , creative and search . This pedagogy is guided on the pillars of being curious : Playfulness , Creativity Movement and New Technologies of Information and Communication

Technologies (ICTs) , and a teaching job in tune with the interests and pursuits of the community and students , offers a dialogical action with knowledge , an interface more motivating and motivating in order to produce a change inside and outside of the human being , offering them greater possibilities in a world of frames , in a world of information repositories , relationships online , but lacking new interpretations , more aware and less repeaters patterns and behaviors .

Creative Expressive Pedagogy arises as a pedagogical action cross in the classroom , focusing its action in educational praxis , in fashion, design , the method and means which we use to integrate knowledge , playfulness , curiosity and values . A pedagogy alive , action , classroom formative and liberating . A pedagogy less bookish and more proactive , seeking to provide new tools and multimedia for school navigate more tranquility in times so agitated seas . This is the north where our ship should be conducted , one north of rapprochement between the lives of our students and educandas and school practices .

We can not conceive of a school that turns its back to creativity , to the playful so present in our daily lives (Internet , video games, DVDs , Smartphones , among many) , information technology , communication vehicles . That is, we can not see over the school as a " Google restricted and restrictive " where knowledge is sliced and only accessible as the teacher will releasing and directing , this could never be called knowledge, for knowledge led to the extreme and no social resonance , it is knowledge that is born useless , for no reason .

We can never forget the essence of the concept of knowledge , it is the discovery , revelation is , evolution , growth is like a not knowing that is filled with useful knowledge , practical , reflective and why not say liberating . Paulo Freire (1996) reiterates this when he says " It is the position of those who fight for not only the object but also the subject of history " (Freire , 1996, p. 54) .

This critical subject , emancipating and emancipated , autonomous, creative and composed epistemological curiosity , we want to develop , in the actions of teacher education , especially early childhood education , and the two first stages of education . Train teachers working and able to handle the boys and girls of this century , with its features , new ways and values . A generation of digital natives , which is what we need to achieve the right tools and offer a supportive environment that values , so they deem care of the rest . This is what I call Creative Expressive Pedagogy , this combination of knowledge , resources and teachers updated and well trained so we can build a new classroom, a new school , a new world . " As a teacher I know that without the curiosity that drives me , it bothers me that I enter in the search , not learn or education " (Freire , 1996, p. 85)

The pursuit of excellence in teaching / learning .

What is a school of excellence ? How to think this school ? I believe we can start this answer with a thought of Freire (1996) , when he says : " It is in this sense that it requires me to listen to the student in their doubts , their fears on in their incompetence provisional . And to hear him learn to speak with him " (Freire , 1996 , p.119) .

The school of excellence begins by listening to a true listening , who wants to hear the other and not just fix it a listen growth mutual , complementary knowledge . The listen call this dialog , but this word goes through worn , because they all say that promote , especially teachers , when in fact what we observe in the classrooms of many places in the world , is a monologue , interspersed with questions , which always the master has the last word or who is behind the vision of the truths .

When speaking specifically of children up to 10 years old age group we study in Creative Expressive Pedagogy , this view that the adult (teacher / a) have the truth on your side , it demonstrates even more strongly . But even at the highest levels of university education meeting, as a student or teacher , who face a classroom with the view that the teacher has the water of knowledge and students are directed to universities to drink it , and positivistic moldy so old and inefficient .

To break this school monologue and knowledge prebuilt and elected by adults who do not really know what is meant by social and behavioral changes that are occurring , who think the world looking back , and who believe that what the forged females and males can be used for the construction of human beings in this age. To break this possible, we need change.

One change that should be based , as I said , the form and not the content, method and not the speech , the actions of praxis in the classroom and not just theories , change begins in the sample and not the

word . How would Paulo Freire (1996) " The qualities or virtues are built by us in the effort that we impose to reduce the distance between what we say and what we do " (Freire , 1996, p. 65) .

The change is when we allow ourselves to innovate and reinvent our practices and ourselves , change happens only when we look ahead , and stand beside this new generation and not above or below them .

Within this perspective is that it arises as a method Expressive Creative Pedagogy , the result of a search for a life as an educator in various ages and education sites , applied in hundreds of classrooms , with the potential to transform the educational practices , the way of thinking make , build and share knowledge , wisdom and affections in learning environments.

If the concept of learning has changed a lot as we talked about over the last century and the first years of this century , it is clear that our practices must be renewed , airy , transformed into actions that actually produce an environment dialogical , reflective and builder of knowledge , the autonomy , and minds so open and plural as the challenges of this century .

These young boys and girls , will only have the fullness and the development of knowledge , and become able , if they are next to a teacher or professor , well trained in basic actions that we consider in this new era : Valuing form (instructional design) , affection and playfulness , curiosity and creativity , autonomy promotion , multimedia and content appropriate culture and the reality of our children and youth .

These new minds of our children are to become critical for a school that is renewed, not only in policies , or rules , but in actions , spaces and pedagogical practices that do not hide the technology, but is open to her. Schools that go beyond the computer room and the video, and we can transform every room in multimedia and research possibilities and interaction at all times . Where words like creativity , phones, DVDs , social networking , internet , satellites , download , touch screens , movement , expression and enchantment , are part of the vocabulary of adults and their actions in the classroom , by accepting this modern media and tools with an open heart and not with fear or with disputes .

These new minds of our children undergo families become more involved in the process of teaching / learning , to collaborate with the active construction of knowledge , and that along with the community embrace this modern crusade by seeking sedimentarmos values and ethics , as lacking in social relations and educational .

Learning / teaching is that it is dynamic with reflection , is action with consequences and appropriateness , and evolution with affection, is technology with human contact . Teaching / learning through these challenges begins at home , extending the school and prepare for life in society and the planet. After all inhabit the same planet, despite culture and different postures , are the same people , the same human race , of many colors , loves , tastes and beliefs , and this diversity must always believe that we can reinvent ourselves and overcome barriers to force will.

Tread together throughout this essay, find a marriage between autonomy and Creative Expressive Pedagogy , certainly for those who read carefully , this relationship became clear , because there is no creativity without curiosity and curiosity there no freedom of thought , feelings and actions . And it is these relationships that are forged and forged , we have built and are constructed , we become whole and parts .

End this reflection with a song that sums up our search for a pedagogy that is their own autonomy . A music of a composer I admire and I know that Paulo Freire also had much appreciation , Gonzaguinha , a Brazilian who left us too soon , but his legacy will never be forgotten and songs .

> " I believe it is the guys who goes ahead and holds the squib , I put faith is the faith of the kids , which does not escape the beast and the lion faces . I'm going to fight this is with youth, not running streak for nothing , I'm on the block this youth, who 're not in longing and builds the desired morning " (Gonzaguinha , And let the Fight, 1980) .

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Music in the curriculum or a musical curriculum?

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Abstract

Numerous educational studies have called out attention to the importance of emotional involvement of the student with the challenges that he must face in his development. However, the superstition of transfering knowledge from teacher to student and their political and institutional consequences involves a large psychoenergetic expenditure on the consciousness processes. This privilege given to consciousness can cause unconscious compensatory reactions that need to be conducted, as an experiential substrate, to the abstract mental operation, in order to restore it to its emotionality. In this situation, is very important to give the student some instruments to bring to fruition this compensatory operation, as it is important to note that this support can not be instructive, because it would not make sense to invest more energy in the psychic consciousness in order to balance its importance with the other functions. Direct observation and analytic induction based on bibliographic and documentary research, leads me to identify in the musical exercise an enantiodromic field, in the Jungian sense, essential to any educational process, since it has a qualitative content, though it does not lack in intellectual demand, it is only capable of accomplishment in a experiential level, in perfect balance between all its components. I conclude this work substantiating the relevance of making music not just in a instructional and informative perspective, but as practical and methodological basis of integral curriculum.

Keywords: Music, enantiodromia, education.

1   Introduction

In the context of teaching aesthetic philosophy, I have been performing a simple exercise since 2010. I make students listen to a music that instates melody, harmonic accompaniment, drum and bass that I run from a music editing software. After playing the first time, I play the song again abstracting one of its parts, usually the bass, without the participant students becoming aware of it. Then, I ask the class about the possible differences between the two performances. Almost invariably, my students would have the feeling that the second performance was different, but can´t distinguish it exactly.

This experience is very useful to me to illustrate a perceptive principle that appears important. Gottlieb Alexander von Baumgarten says that acute perception, *Sensus*, implies a collection of sensory estimulus in two levels, the external and internal senses. The first devoted to concrete perception and the second focused on consciousness, understood as *psikhé*, soul, whence comes off "my soul", constituted by thoughts, which in his words are "accidents of the soul.". Baumgarten also distinguishes the "depths of the soul," where we find obscure perceptions, which partially and gradually can derive confused ideas, clear ideas and ultimately distinct ideas. (1993, p.57 – 67).

On the other hand Carl Gustav Jung observes a similar thing, explaining it as it follows:

> (...) There are unconscious aspects in our perception of reality. (...) It remains, so to speak, below the threshold of consciousness. It happened, but were absorbed subliminally, without our conscious knowledge. We can only acknowledge them at moments of intuition or by a intense reflection process (...). (Jung, 1964, p.23).

It is interesting to confront the consciousness interest for the melody with the experience of exclusively listening to it, for once it´s stripped of its accompanying instruments, it loses considerably its enchantment. This suggests that the undifferentiated perception of the companion set is processed below the threshold of consciousness, in a intuitive function; hence the need for sensory presence, despite the intense effort required to discriminate its parts.

It is also worth noting that the musical parts perceived and accommodated on a intuitive level are three times more numerous than the melody, consciously perceived. In other words, the proposed stimulus is mostly perceived unconsciously, qualitatively, or as obscure perceptions in Baumgarten´s aesthetics; while a small part comes to be assimilated as derived from conscious or clear ideia. Let´s also consider that a very small portion of people are able to derive melodic data in a signic system of musical notation, which characterizes the distinct ideas in aesthetic.

However, perhaps the best point to make here is that none of these discriminatory abilities invalidate the power to affect that music can have on its multiple listeners, because both the one who gets most of the stimulus in a subliminal

way, as the one who is able to write what he hears, feel compelled to follow organically the kinesthetics of music´s sound and temporal plans.

2   Scope

Similarly to Baumgarten, in the study of lower cognitive faculties, Jung gave priority interest to unconscious faculties as a fundamental part of an educational teleology. Baumgarten stated the aesthetics in the context and contingencies of the German Enlightenment project, the Aufklärung; while Jung directed his methodological efforts on individuation, "the development of consciousness that comes from a primitive state of identity. Meaning an enlargement of the sphere of consciousness and conscious psychological life "(Jung, 2009, p.428).

According to Gómez de Silva (2009, p.241), the word education derives from the Latin agglutination *ex*, outside, with the Indo-European *duk-a*, to lead. Hence educate means "to lead out", or to lead consciousness beyond its identity primitive state, to meet collaboratively with unconscious faculties.

Therefore, I´d like to say that I understand education as an integral process of human maturation. A process of creative expansion of a signic and cultural consciousness, to the object-world. The real, in experiential character, unconscious because irreducible to any signic representation.

Now, "to lead out" requires consciousness movement beyond its current stage. From Latin *ex- movere* (Gómez, 1998, p.248), the consciousness in the educational process requires *ex*-motion, or emotion as we currently use this word.

According to Jung, the emotion, synonymous with affection, arises from the sentimental judgment of what is perceived.

> The sensation connects not only to the external stimuli, but also with the internal, that is, the changes of internal organs. Therefore it s in the first place, the sensation of the senses, in other words, perception by the sense organs and by the "sense of the body" (kinesthetic sensations, vasomotor, etc..). On the one hand, it is an element of representation because it provides a perceived image of the external object and, on the other hand, it is an element of feeling because it gives an affection character, through the perception of bodily changes. (2009: 438)

As it assimilates a certain degree of intensity provided from perception, sentimental judgment of what is perceived causes internal organic transformations, leading the individual to build reciprocally, the intensified feeling and its corresponding physiological responses. (JUNG, 2009, p.387 – 388).

A Music can be the object of positive or negative sentimental judgment, or any other position in the range of possibilities around these two. Music can be pleasant or not, indifferent or naive, however, regardless of our sentimental posture, it is very difficult to prevent our body to move along. We hit involuntarily with the foot or clap with the hands to the music´s rhythm, we whistle, hum or make funny faces. If the judgment is positive we dance, otherwise we fight upset against the reactions in our body that seem to persist as an in enchantment. In any case, either dance or feeling annoyed involve physiological changes that make us abandon our previous psychophysiological state. This is an emotion.

In the ancient Greek Paideia, music occupied a central place. This was told and retold, but a subtlety should be clarify: *mousiké techné* is different of *mousiké*, because the last one is not limited to the organization of sounds in time. Plato says: "Now, my friend, I think we´r finished with this part of music that refers to speeches and fables, because we talked about both the content and the form. (...) It remains to us to discuss the character of singing and the melody, agree? "(2000, p.91).

In the Timaeus dialogue, Plato states that the concept of mousiké corresponds to "matters of Muses" (2002, p.110). Therefore, it is worth remembering that the daughters of Mnemosyne, governed by Apollo, symbol of expansive consciousness, were nine and exhorted epic poetry, lyric poetry, comedy, tragedy, pantomime, dance, history, astronomy and music, in the contemporary sense of the term.

The muses symbolize two processes of the deep psyche, or unconscious, also appointed respectively by Baumgarten and Jung.

1. The one regarding a current perception with its recent past, Clio, the history; and with its ancient past, the Titan Mnemosyne, the mnemonic aspect of the Great Mother, in order to confer it meaning.

2. The conduct of emotional energy for the benefit of an expanding consciousness process.

In Baumgarten´s Aesthetics, follows the *sensus*, the *phantasia*, which consists to put in relation the perceptual data with the subject's past and the world´s past, it´s to say, archaic images called *phantasmatas*, accessible by the strength that soul possesses to represent for itself the universe in relation to the subject position. This suggests the construction of a line of meaning between archaic precepts and current perception that would be traversed by imaginative activity, the phantasy, which besides favoring essential knowledge, the proportional and harmonical of the things, would also point to creative possibilities. These faculties, united to the ability of abstract perception and the ability to discern and to give meaning, would lead to beauty as a perfection of sensitive knowledge and ordered thinking. It should also be noted that, among the terms that Baumgarten uses for his own philosophical formulation, we find the Grace´s and the Muses´s Philosophy. (Baumgarten, 1993; Kirchof 2003).

Correspondingly, for Jung, the perception that crosses the psychic totality, consciously and subliminally relates the present with personal unconscious and the archetypes of the collective unconscious. In the unconscious layers, the range of current experience predisposes compensatory responses in relation to consciousness. Compensatory but not opposite, since the propellant of unconscious reason "seems to be essentially an instinct of self realization." (Jung, 1990, p.60). This self-realization or individuation implies a conscious self that expands toward the assimilation of the personal unconscious and therefore opens to the participation in the collective unconscious. Unfolds then "a wider world of objective interests. (...) Placing the individual in a unconditional, mandatory communion and inseparable with the world. (Jung, 1990, p.53 – 54)

The resuscitation of an unconscious region causes an expansion by the inclusion of related associations. At first, this complex is opposed to consciousness because it removes the psychic energy required from it, but consciousness can make an identification with the process, becoming beneficiary of a source of creative inspiration, epiphanies or scientific intuitions.

The woman, sexual concavity which by her nature calls, in the exercise of her intuitive ability, often higher than the male, is capable of directing man in the discovery of things and aspects of reality that, given his external orientation, his convexity sex, usually not see. It is probably for this reason that the symbolism of this complex, designated by Jung as autonomous complex, is often female. (Jung, 1971a, 1990b).

Restored the sense of current perception, the muse needs to seduce the emotional energy in order to bring it to consciousness. Perhaps this is one reason why the muse is often related to a sacred prostitute. In the epic of Gilgamesh, for example, the cultural representative sent to look for Enkidu, the man in instinctual state, is a prostitute in the service of the temple of Ishtar. (Anonymous, 2001). What we have here is a symbolism of the active and unifying aspect of the Great Mother, a symbol hard fought by official Roman Christianization in the Middle Ages. The Divine Maiden, pure and untouched femininity, in possession of her seductive attributes, unfolds in active character and assumes the instrumental function to lead the seed, the male creative energy to its transcendental aspect of Mother Goddess, that is, the divinity . (Chevalier & Gheerbrant, 1982, p.747).

The Christian warfare to the active and sensual aspect of the mother made those initiated into these mysteries labeled and persecuted as practitioners of magic, as witches. However, according to Viktor D. Salis, the etymological root of the word magic is *myesis*, where we infer that magic, a magic practitioner, was "skilled in the art of brewing", Fermenting suits here as an expansion of meaning, to increase, as spiritual fermentation, it´s expansion was what was seeked. (sd).

The same author suggests that the Socratic Maieutics have the same root, increasing the meaning by a seductive, erotic spell. *Mayevo*, included in contemporary Greek, means to charm or to seduce (sd). According to Nascimento "(...) the name Musa, had been derived from the word to desire (môszai). This Doric name, also means to search (...)".(2001, p.158) Thus, the work of the magician, the active virgin, is to seduce and conduct the libidinal energy in favor of the expansion of consciousness.

Apollo, the Muses´s parson:

> (...) Is the symbol of victory over violence, of enthusiastic self-command, the alliance between passion and reason (...). His wisdom is the result of an achievement, not an inheritance. All the potencials of life are combined at him in order to incite him not to find his balance else where but the pinnacles (...). Apollo symbolizes the supreme spiritualization, is one of the most beautiful symbols of human ascension. (Chevaliere & Gheerbrant, 2001, p.67).

As magicians, witches or sacred prostitutes, muses represent cultural traits that, in several narratives, are sent to meet the proto-human animal state, buried by civility conscious, in order to seduce him and lure him by the only means of communication possible, no words, no signs or information, but abstract qualities. Sounds, gestures, inflections, stunts or twists harmonically organized in time, from vital dimension to the cosmic existence and therefore familiar to the target of seduction.

> (...) Music operates through two grids. The first one is a physiological and therefore natural, its existence is due to the fact that the music explores the organic rhythms, (...). The other is cultural; consists of a range of musical sounds, whose number and spacing vary according to the cultures. (Lévi-Strauss, 2010, p.36)

Poetry, theater, dance and music, before representing anything, this is, to present itself as a signic quality in order to substitute another object, are themselves. They are synergies composed of abstract qualities in the image and likeness of the stars in cosmic harmony. "Perhaps the art means nothing and has no sense, at least not as we speak here about sense. Perhaps it is like the nature that simply is and do not mean." Says Jung. (1971, p.66).

I recently had the opportunity to follow the homework required by a well reputed school in Brazil from two seven year old kids. The children should read the fable "The Fox and the Crow" and answer a series of questions about the text. Two questions came to my attention in a particular way:

1. The story tells about people or animals?

2. The text tells a real or an invented event?

To be clear, my attention was fixed on the answers. To the first question the children answered that the story spoke of animals, and to the second, that it was an invented story. I showed them that I wanted to review those answers, but I also received a unequivocal response: We can review, but we´re not going to change the answers because they are the right ones.

I asked if they knew a crow that would let himself to be fooled by a fox, or even a fox that would flatter a crow. In sum, I asked if they knew if any of those animals could even speak. The children looked at me surprised by the finding that those animals suggested human behavior, so I threw a new question: do this situation could happen among humans? To which they responded positively, implying that it was a situation liable to reality.

I am not aware of any similar situation in the European community, but I know that Western and westernized cultures historically share a logocentric tradition, denotative and rationalist. And, this is an intuition, it seems to me that this tradition resists, stubborn and desperately in the face of evidence and, what is more serious, before manifested symptoms that society identifies about the ineffectiveness of this kind of approach.

Our children are being amputated from stingy and selfishness feelings associated with the curved beak, sneaky atmosphere and granulated voice of the Crow, as well as the astuteness of the fox so clearly appreciated in the theft to a hen house. Firstly, because most of our kids have never dealt with such animals. Secondly, because simply saying that the crow was egocentric makes no sense. The perceptive body is not enabled. There is no resentment about the attitude of the crow, or expectation about the expertise of the fox. It makes no sense because the muse only disposes of denotations and not of qualities from which she can weave the seduction of the child's instinctive substratum, one from which the shape of the beak, the sneaky atmosphere and the grainy voice of the Crow, connotatively would return to consciousness the possibility of a petty humanity, about to be deceived by another perceptive humanity.

3   Conclusion

Musical practice, this is, the practice of the arts of the muses, is not instructive. This means that it doesn´t proves information and skills necessary to perform specific tasks, except to themselves. Nevertheless, the music builds psychophysiological infrastructure required for the information to find their place in the cosmic synergy, recover its dynamism and produce "crackling" creative insights, adaptive and selfrenewable skills and, above all, ethical sense.

The privileges granted to reason in the last pages of our institutional education history, directly or indirectly, are responsible for the general lack of direction that plagues contemporaneity. Social inequality, violence, unemployment, corruption, apathy, and worse, the irreversible damage we have caused to our planet.

The alternative is simple. Instead of forcing rational canons, allowing each individual to build their rationality through the refinement of their natural perceptive abilities. Instead of suppressing or "dismiss" the emotions, strongly encourage creativity, ethics and strenuousness of reason. This is the great enantiodromia. The reconciliation of the opposites, the great change of direction that XXI century education needs to accomplish.

The art teacher is indispensable. Neighborhood musical conservatories are vital, as well as the artistic effervescence everywhere. But it is not enough. The muse inhabits also in the challenge, in the question, the smile, the emotion and among an infinite of possibilities that can arouse, seduce and lead the emotions to the aid of reason.

It´s worth then asking: we want music in our curriculum or a musical curriculum?

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Schooled and unschooled settings seen from a genealogical perspective

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Abstract

This research is philosophically articulated with the post-Nietzschean thought about difference, as proposed by Gilles Deleuze and Michel Foucault. It has recently been started by a group of researchers from Univates University Center/RS/Brazil. The study aims at investigating the curriculum specificities of both schooled and unschooled settings in Brazil and Colombia, causing new ways of thinking about them in their relationships with learning and teaching. By asking about the ways through which the curriculum is constituted in those settings and questioning about their similarities, differences and disruptions, this research attempts to investigate the conditions of possibility of those settings as well as the social, political and economic markers that have operated on their constitution. Genealogy has been adopted as research methodology, having the studies by Michel Foucault as a reference. The genealogical study starts addressing the present and goes back to the past. It does not consider history as an evolutionary process, but as something whose disruptions, hindrances and reconfigurations enable us to understand the practices through which we have become subjects of particular cultures, settings and discourses. The empirical material, intended to establish understandings of the school curriculum, consists of teachers' and students' reports, observations, field notes, and documents. Such tools have allowed us to develop several ways of regarding the school curriculum as a collective and political territory that interacts with different forces, disciplinary devices and possibilities of experimentation. The research field comprises Brazilian and Colombian education institutions that were previously chosen by means of partnerships and agreements, including the education institution in which the researchers work. Understanding how such curricula are constituted and the effects that they have caused may contribute towards studies and discussions about the research topic, besides favoring new curriculum experimentations in different settings.

Keywords: curriculum; schooled settings; unschooled settings; genealogy

1   Introduction

Articulated with a major research entitled *The curriculum in schooled and unschooled settings in Brazil and Colombia: Different relationships with learning and teaching*, which is linked to the master's course in teaching of Univates University Center, located in Rio Grande do Sul, this paper aims at investigating curriculum specificities in both school and non-school settings as well as their relationships and crossings with schooled and unschooled movements. This study is articulated with the post-Nietzschean thought about difference, as proposed by Gilles Deleuze and Michel Foucault. Those movements have been engendered in the midst of issues that are known to be central to any post-structuralist curriculum theorization (Corazza & Tadeu, 2003), such as: the discussion about knowledge and truth, the subject and subjectivity, the values and power. Hence, the issue of what is or must be taught is not separated from the problematization of what is regarded as valid, true knowledge at a certain time and setting, or, in other words, what a certain curriculum organization "wants" (Corazza, 2001): every curriculum contains some notion of both subjectivation and subject that may be understood through the analysis of the processes involved in the curriculum and its movements.

By observing such movements more carefully, we noticed that the concepts of school and non-school have been usually mingled with the concepts of schooled and unschooled, as if they were all directly related to the place in which

the educational process occurs. However, once taken as schooled, the education will also presuppose the creation of appropriate settings, the control of the time in which the activities are performed, the selection of knowledges regarded as universal, the invention of a knowledge-capacity relationship, the attendance obligation, the disqualification of other practices, the series of grades, the evaluation and the certification (Corrêa, 2000).

In this way, by taking schooled and unschooled as notions to be studied, this research understands that the curriculum should be thought in terms of the postures and relationships that it engenders, that is, through the way in which the settings are occupied. The mere distinction between school and non-school does not seem to be sufficient to guarantee such problematization, as it entails the assumption that the school, with the norms that rule it, does not have the necessary strength to undergo possible transmutations – and, on the other way around, the belief that any practical efforts to question the instituted school models would lead to a regulation-free setting.

2   Work Organization

The movements, passages and exchanges of knowledge in unschooled curricula, whether they occur in a school setting or not, may take place through learning processes that are neither linked to results nor to significations reduced by pedagogical actions. From such perspective, the proposal of an unschooled curriculum is also an effort to oppose and fight against the coercion of theoretical, unitary, formal, discursive discourses through the acknowledgment of local, minor knowledges that are activated against the scientific hierarchy of knowledge and its intrinsic power effects (Foucault, 2001).

By mixing such school and non-school settings with the schooled and unschooled movements, we attempt to understand how the curriculum can be composed of and crossed by new practices woven by other knowledge relationships and new experimentations. Such reflection is only possible if we understand the power relationships involved, i.e. the genealogy of the moral values that move this or that curriculum, a certain kind of education and a given subject. Far from any belief in primary foundations and transcendental truths, this research is focused on the question about the forces involved in any valuing process:

> Therefore, instead of asking 'what is it?', asking 'what makes it be what it is?' Searching first for the impulse, the desire, the motif that makes things have the meaning they have, rather than their essence, their origin or their ultimate foundation. Instead of an ontology, a science of forces (Corazza & Tadeu, 2003, p.49).

In this sense, by asking how the curriculum is constituted in certain school and non-school settings, questioning their similarities, differences and disruptions, we attempt to investigate the conditions of possibility of such settings, as well as the social, political and economic markers that operate on their constitution. By understanding that the truths of a curriculum do not exist before it, and that their existence only makes sense in a given power relationship (which it stages, moves, embodies), this research is articulated with the understanding of curriculum as the imposition of particular meanings, values, and modes of subjectivation. Thus, we propose to estrange the curriculum understood as a form of governing and regulating subjects and things, as a program with educative function. Taken with this meaning, the curriculum connects to a schooled or schooling movement, thus delimiting boundaries.

The approximations to genealogy may help us understand the curriculum in its crossings with games of power and its implications with knowledge, by problematizing the ways through which the settings are engendered and occupied.

2.1   Qualification of the problem to be approached

The research aims at investigating curriculum specificities in school and non-school settings and their relationships and crossings with schooled and unschooled movements. Although the concepts of school and non-school mix with the concepts of schooled and unschooled, such delimitations are not precise, since other determinants, besides the physical setting, should be taken into account, such as relationships, movements and disciplines in each educative setting. Furthermore, the research may open the possibility to develop several ways of regarding such curricula as

collective and political territories that interact with different forces, disciplinary devices, and possibilities of experimentation.

2.2   Main Objectives

- To investigate the curriculum specificities in school and non-school settings and their relationships and crossings with schooled and unschooled movements;

- To understand the curriculum in its crossings with games of power and its knowledge implications, by problematizing the ways through which the settings are engendered and occupied;

- To understand how the curriculum can be composed of and crossed by new practices woven by other knowledge relationships and new experimentations.

3   Methodological Procedures

The research seeks an approximation to Genealogy by having Michel Foucault's studies (2001; 2005; 1994) as a reference. The genealogical study starts addressing the present and goes back to the past. It does not consider history as an evolutionary process, but as something whose disruptions, hindrances and reconfigurations enable us to understand the practices through which we have become subjects of particular cultures, settings and discourses. Genealogy focuses on the emergence moment, on the conditions that enable some discourses to gain intensity. As Foucault (2005) would say, it has to do with not fearing perspectival knowledge: the one that 'looks from a certain angle with the deliberate purpose of appreciating (…) that is a look that knows from where it looks, as well as what it looks. The historical sense gives knowledge the possibility to make its genealogy in the very movement of its knowledge' (p. 274-275). The analysis always leads to new searches and route changes, and it is not limited to what is immediately localized; it also questions why – in terms of our research object, for instance – certain curriculum practices have not become legitimate and stronger as those instituted in Modernity.

In a genealogical study, the researcher may use different methodological strategies, such as documental analysis, observations, interviews and field notes, in an attempt to 'surround' the research object to be studied. Such different strategies are not a priori defined; they are built from the needs identified within the process as the study develops. For Foucault (2001), genealogy is a way to

> (…) use history so that it becomes free from the simultaneously metaphysical and anthropological memory model forever. It has to do with making a counter-memory of history and, consequently, unfolding a totally different kind of time (p.33).

Therefore, the genealogical methodology does not imply either the search for an untouched origin or the beginning of everything, but the search for every discontinuity inherent to our research object. By considering the constitution of curricula and the mechanisms present in them, we initially intend to understand how this process of curricular constitution took place via its devices of disciplinary power (Foucault, 2001) in each setting to be researched.

The empirical field of this research consists of two school settings and two non-school settings. One of the school settings is Escuela Pedagógica Experimental (EPE), in Bogota/Colombia, which has an agreement with the Pedagogy course of UNIVATES. This setting has been integrated into the research because of its innovative curriculum, which seeks to disrupt the lineal logic imposed by disciplines. The second setting is Escola Municipal Porto Novo, located in the city of Lajeado, in Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil, with which the Pedagogy course of Univates has established partnership by means of teacher trainings. The non-school settings are NGO Abaquar Brasil, situated in the outskirts of Lajeado, where the Pedagogy course of Univates performs investigations, and Iberê Camargo Foundation (setting to be confirmed), located in Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil. The Foundation is a cultural setting that aims to promote the study and circulation of works by Iberê Camargo, an important Brazilian artist. The Foundation develops an educative program for teachers from different areas of knowledge. Didactic materials about the exhibitions have been designed, and educators participate in the meetings organized with the purpose of contributing to classroom activities by having the art exhibitions as a starting point.

The researchers will use different methodological strategies, which may include observations recorded in a field journal, semi-structured interviews and focus group, according to the paths chosen along the research and the questionings produced during the study. The empirical material will be used to understand school and non-school curricula and their relationships with the concepts of schooled and unschooled. The interviews, records, documental analysis and observations will enable us to develop several ways of regarding those curricula as collective and political territories that interact with different forces, disciplinary devices and possibilities of experimentation. Therefore, tracing lines and rhizomes of the curriculum movements of school and non-school settings will allow us to understand their relationships, resistances, immobility and fields of experimentation.

On analyzing the research material with the use of tools found in Michel Foucault's theorizations (2002), the notion of discourse becomes central. In the author's methodological proposal, discourse is not the same as language, in the sense used in semiotic analyses; rather, it is a practice that keeps its consistency and emerges from the complexity that characterizes it:

> Discourse, so conceived, is not the majestically developed manifestation of a subject that thinks, knows and says that; rather, it is a set in which the subject's dispersion and discontinuity in relation to oneself can be determined. It is a setting of exteriority in which a network of distinct places develops (Foucault, 2002, p.61-62).

In this sense, the very construction of the concept of curriculum such as we understand it today is questioned. It is fundamental to consider not only the history of the concepts, but also the disruptions and discontinuities that constitute their trajectory, as well as the correlate discourses that allowed their emergences, intensifications or deletions. Foucault (2002) warned that "it is necessary to keep the previous forms of continuity on hold" (p.28); in order to do that, one should describe the discursive events, their contextures, the institutional settings – with, in and by which the curriculum manifests.

The variety of data to be collected aims at comprising the discursive formations through which it is possible to explain the relation of unity of the discourse, the setting that surrounds it and the singularity of the research object. Such elements enable us to understand "a set of *rules* that both are immanent in a practice and define it in its specificity (Foucault, 2002, p. 53).

4   Conclusion

The development of this Project will contribute to the understanding and problematization of the curriculum as a movement that crosses school and non-school settings. The research is at its initial stage; however, we believe that the results obtained from the analysis of teachers' and students testimonies, as well as from observations, field notes and documental analysis, may serve as guidance to problematize the disciplinary, schooling curriculum model that was born in Modernity and still engenders and occupies educative (school and non-school) settings in contemporaneity. In this way, the scrutiny of the research materials, by making visible certain curriculum practices, may also help build other educational experiences in both school and non-school settings.

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Toward a Multidimensional Concept of Curriculum: Understating Curriculum as Phenomenon, Field and Design

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Abstract

This paper makes and argument for a multidimensional concept of curriculum in order to understand curriculum as a phenomenon, field, and design process. A multidimensional concept of curriculum acknowledges the complexity of curriculum as a phenomenon, recognizes the different perspectives in the field, and addresses the complexity of curriculum in the design process. Therefore, a multidimensional concept of curriculum as a phenomenon can also be used as a research program as well as a set of variables to be considered in curriculum design. The concept is presented as a theoretical tool to understand curriculum, develop knowledge about it, and inform design. Thus, it intends to connect theory, research, and curricular practice by looking at the field's history and asking what remains in this.

Keywords: multidimensional curriculum, curriculum field, curriculum phenomenon, curriculum design.

1   Introduction

 Asking "What is curriculum?", is probably one of the most frequent ways to start an undergraduate or graduate curriculum course. The question signals the problematic nature of curriculum since its very beginning. Curriculum is a complex phenomenon. Curriculum is also an "interdisciplinary academic field devoted to understanding curriculum" (Pinar, 2011, ix). Curriculum also refers to the process of curriculum design through which the content of schooling is verified. This paper searches for a concept to understand curriculum as a phenomenon, a field, and a design process. Therefore, it recognizes the complexity of curriculum phenomenon, acknowledges the different perspectives in the field, and addresses the complexity of curriculum in the design process. This is not an attempt to surpassed perennial controversies but is an effort to develop a coherent perspective of curriculum by reflecting on the question of `What's left in the field', a question about which, according to Miller (2000), there is no definitive answer. In addition, it must be said that the context behind my endeavour is teacher education. Thinking about curriculum becomes even more complex when thinking about how to teach it to future teachers. It seems to me that at this level we cannot avoid assuming a pluralistic view of the field as its legacy, including the major gap between curriculum theory and curriculum development. In this regard, having teacher education in mind, we could or should address "unpacking curriculum controversies" (Cochran-Smith & Demers, 2008, 261) and deliberate about what remains in the field.

2   A complicated field

The question for what remains in the field is not an exclusive concern of teacher education or teacher educators. As a matter of fact it is an issue for the field itself. This unpacked controversy makes the field of curriculum a complex as well as controversial endeavour (Pacheco, 2012). Beginning in the second decade of the 21st Century, curriculum is a divergent field moving in different directions (Pinar, 2011). This is the weakness and strength of the field "that (supposedly) is there to help us think rigorously about what and whose knowledge is of most worth" (Apple, 2010, 100).

According to Pinar (2011) while the atheoretical feature of the curriculum field was overcome by the reconceptualization movement, its disturbing "lack of historical perspective" (Kliebard, 1977, 55) remains. As Pinar has argued, "'Becoming historical' restores the field's historic concerns as historic" (Pinar, 2011, 111) connecting us with our legacy. Therefore, looking inward in the field would make possible "finding some common cause and common understanding across our vast landscape of difference" (Hlebowitsh, 2009, 15). Furthermore, Shubert (2010) has suggested that there is a "tension between the expansion of curriculum ideas and the need to summarize them for dissemination," then these "expansive and synoptic dimensions of the field complement one another" (p.18). If so, in this synoptic construction, curriculum studies should be understood as curriculum theory but also as curriculum design, incorporating the legacy of curriculum as curriculum development. In that sense, Grimmett & Halvorson (2010) have claimed that what was missing in the process of reconceptualization was "to re-conceptualize the process by which curriculum is created" (p. 241) failing to frame "the creation of non-technicist curriculum" (p. 242). As a result, curriculum design has remained under a technical or instrumental approach. The practice of developing/designing curriculum is part of schooling and curriculum reform remains a main component of every educational reform. Having these concerns as backstage, this paper addresses the challenge of developing a concept of curriculum to think of curriculum as a phenomenon, field, and design.

3   A complex phenomenon

Under the dominance of curriculum development, curriculum was defined as written or official curriculum. The word "written" emphasized the curriculum's feature as a document, a document that regulates the content of schooling, shapes the school experience, and controls teachers' work. This written document was conceived as a selective tradition that one generation passes through to the next. Curriculum was what student should learn at school. This narrow conceptualization of curriculum was called into question during the 1960's. *Life in Classrooms* (Jackson, 1968) was probably the first text to explicitly affirm that what students learned at school was something more than just the official curriculum. Through schedules, routines, and school rituals students learned what Jackson named a 'hidden curriculum.' Ever since, different types of curriculum have been named, making curriculum a much more "complicated conversation" (Pinar, 1995).

In the 1970's, Goodlad (Glatthorn et al., 2006) claimed that there were five different curricula: the "ideal curriculum", compounded by recommendations of scholars and experts in the field; the "formal curriculum", compounded by the documents that regulate the curriculum in a given level; the "perceived curriculum", the one that teacher thought they taught; the "operational curriculum", the curriculum that an outsider could see going on in a classroom; and the "experiential curriculum", the one which student learned. Each of these curricula were rarely connected, which he perceived as a problem of implementation and curriculum change. Unlike this conception, we will not consider them as different entities but as dimensions of the same phenomenon. They are dimensions of the complex phenomenon of curriculum, since all of those "curricula" are part of the educational experiences. Before develop these dimensions and its potential in thinking about curriculum as a phenomenon, field, and design; I will address the definition of curriculum as a process of design.

4   The challenge of design

Having defined curriculum as a complex phenomenon, now it is the time to connect this reflection to the problem of curriculum design. Curriculum development has typically stressed the written dimension of curriculum as prescription. The development of a curriculum is more or less a matter of implementation taking place when the written curriculum has been formulated. Under Tyler rationale, this process is a technical task that teachers should address by developing what has already been decided and would be tested. Bloom's taxonomy was the perfect tool to accomplish that goal. This tool provided an uncritical procedure in which teachers could develop curriculum by choosing a series of verbs associated with different skill levels, formulating more and more specific objectives, which would allow measuring those educational goals. In this approach teachers were not curriculum makers (Connelly and Clandinin, 1991) but technical developers of curriculum decisions already made by the designers of a teacher proof curriculum.

However, written curriculum is a product of the struggle that Kliebard asserted characterized the field, and a deliberative process of design and writing. In this process, what and whose knowledge counts as valuable must be answered. Thus, acknowledging the complexity of curriculum as a phenomenon, curriculum design is conceived as a

complicated decision making process that has technical, practical and political implications. Technical because it seems improbable that we can think of a school system without curriculum regulations, guides, and other documents that shape teaching. Practical because practitioners make decisions about desired, or not, effects of these curriculum prescriptions, but also because there are aspects of the practical school world that escape from and resist technical rationales. It is political because curriculum constrains the world view or views to which students will be exposed as part of their school experience.

Therefore, curriculum design should incorporate the field's legacy while moving from the idea of curriculum development to a conception of curriculum design. This entails the expectation of linking curriculum theory and curriculum design. Then, curriculum design should become also multidimensional. Thus designing curriculum at national, state, district, school or classroom level, we should include every dimension of the curriculum phenomenon such as the written curriculum, the taught curriculum, the hidden curriculum, the learned curriculum, and so on. All these dimensions should be included as a variable or set of variables in the deliberative process of decision-making. In design as a decision-making process, curriculum reaches school and classroom levels. In that process, a collective act of "educational imagination" (Eisner, 1979) takes place. Through this "educational imagination", educational actors address the endeavour of enriching students' school experience. In this sense, "curriculum theorists would do well to support curriculum development [design] while at the same time looking for new possibilities" (Null,2008, 489). For this author, curriculum understanding and curriculum development are powerful contributors to curriculum and teaching.

4   A precarious multidimensional concept of curriculum

This multinational concept is precarious because of the stage of its development but also to remind us that every conceptualization opens a space of meaning, while closing others. Then, a precarious conceptualization does not include the whole curriculum phenomenon and accept its temporality. Being aware of this situation is essential in order to acknowledge the uncertainty, complexity, and unpredictability of practice. Therefore, curriculum as a multidimensional concept incorporates different aspects of the curriculum phenomenon that have emerged from the intellectual history of the field. The multidimensionality of curriculum has also been recognized by Shubert (2008), who has stated that the school curriculum "has intended, taught, embodied, hidden, tested, and null dimensions" (p. 410). Boostron (2008), on the other hand, has seen the organization of the *Sage Handbook of Curriculum and Instruction* (Connelly, He, & Phillion, 2008) as a conceptualization of the field of curriculum as transdimensional in moving from curriculum in Practice to curriculum in Theory.

Following, Glatthorn et al (2006), this multidimensional curriculum includes three aspects of curriculum that would be considered what he called the intended curriculum, including the written, the supported, the taught, and the tested. The **written dimension** implies the formulation and content of the written document that prescribes what should be taught at schools. It implies also a reflexion and deliberation of how openness and closure in this prescription must be in terms of extension, organization, and cultural diversity. The written dimension should include the national curriculum but also those written documents at state, district, and school levels.

The **supported dimension** composes all those aspects that make possible curriculum prescription. The supported dimension includes those aspects related with administration and resources at different levels. Among them, we can mention material resources such as buildings, classrooms, labs, and technology; but also human resources such as teachers, specialist, and administrators. It is curriculum as embodied in materials "in which the content is selected, organized, and transformed for social, cultural, educational, curricular, and pedagogical purposes" (Deng, 2011, 538). It is the result of the process by which scholarly materials are translated into curriculum materials. Glatthorn et al. (2006) mention textbooks as an important component of supported curriculum.

The **taught dimension** is the curriculum as is understood and put into practice by teachers. The taught dimension is composed for all those decisions teachers made to prepare and perform their teaching. This is the curriculum actually delivered as well as reinvented by teachers. It entails the lesson planning process, the teaching performance, and more complex process of thinking that bring teachers to understand curriculum prescriptions in a certain way in a given context. As it has been said, "at some point, the design of the curriculum leaps off the paper and takes on a life in the school curriculum" (Hlebowitsh, 2009, 22).

The **tested dimension** has to do with the forms of evaluations that students are asked to take by their teachers, the school, the district, the state, the central government, and even by international organizations. These assessments try

to evaluate how well the prescribed curriculum has been learned by students. However, these evaluations also teach what is considered important in the classroom, school, society, and the world.

All the dimensions developed above are parts of the educational intention; the explicitly intended dimensions of curriculum. Regardless, there are non-intended or at least non-explicit aspects of curriculum. Those aspects are conceptualized as a **hidden dimension**. Beyond the explicit educational intention is the hidden dimension of curriculum. This is what school teaches without teaching. Within the hidden dimension of curriculum there are socio-cultural and socio-economic variables such as social class, race, and gender; and organizational variables related to how schools arrange their schedules, their hierarchies, and rituals.

Finally, the **learned** or **experienced curriculum dimension** is a combination of the intended and the hidden curriculum. The learned curriculum is what students have actually learned in school. Thus, it is important to consider how different aspects of the intended and hidden curriculum affect what students learn and live in our schools. "The experienced curriculum expands attention to thoughts, meanings, and feelings of students as they encounter it" Schubert (2008, 409).

These dimensions inform a multidimensional concept of curriculum as a phenomenon. The come from an historical reflection on what remains in the field. Each of these dimensions also relay on the role of different actors in schooling: government (written curriculum); owners, administrators and publishing companies (supported curriculum); teachers (taught curriculum); teachers, government and assessment agencies (tested curriculum); students (learned curriculum). This multidimensional perspective could become, then, a program of research to understand curriculum locally, nationally, and globally. Therefore, it could provide a minimum knowledge of the curriculum phenomenon that everyone should be familiar with; and most important, the minimum of knowledge to be taught to the next generation of teachers, and to be part of the educational reflection on schooling by inservice teachers. Whether or not this minimum work has been done, in the way of curriculum typologies or a multidimensional approach it is a set of issues that every intellectual community should answer nationally and internationally.

5   Conclusion

An argument for a multidimensional concept of curriculum has been presented as a theoretical tool to understanding curriculum, to developing knowledge about it, and it informs a way of thinking about curriculum design. Based on reflection about how the field of curriculum studies has changed by incorporating different dimensions to the concept of curriculum making it a layered or multidimensional concept. Each of these curriculum dimensions provides a better grasp of what curriculum is about as a phenomenon; it also can be a research program in the field of curriculum studies; and, it is certainly a set of variables that should be considered in any act of curriculum design at any level. The effort has been made in the search for an answer to what remains in this divergent field moving in several directions.

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An Academic Curriculum as a Learning Environment

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Abstract

This article explores the importance of a curricular learning environment in higher education. Subject teacher students assess and interpret every academic year the teaching and learning environment at the department of teacher education. The task of this article is to shed light on how the subject teacher student assessed and interpreted the realizing subject teacher curriculum in 2005-08 as a pedagogical environment from the point of view of becoming a professional. The purpose was to examine from a professional point of view the symbolic and operational compatibility of the curriculum at the time as experienced and assessed by subject-teacher students. The students were questioned on how the academic curriculum as a learning environment showed them how to progress from novices to experts. The research material was comprised of the teacher students´ feedback on curriculum innovation from the academic years 2005–2008 (N=1550), gathered using feedback forms consisting of quantitative and qualitative material. A mixed methodology was used for the empirical data collection in order to gather rounded, reliable data, other words to probe beneath the surface of the subject teacher education culture. The research material was examined within a normative-theoretical research framework (system-theoretical approach). The theoretical framework was constructed on Rogers´s (2003) Innovation and Diffusion Theory (the frame theory) and as well as essential background theories concerning academic teaching, supervision and learning to teach. The frame theory provided a relevant perspective for examining the implementation of the subject-teacher education curriculum and how students re-innovate and re-invent it. This kind of student-cent approach and examination allowed for the students´ voices to be heard teleologically, according to the strategy of the university: students take part in improving the quality of teacher education curriculum.

Keywords: higher education, academic curriculum; teaching and learning environment; subject teacher education; professional.

1. Introduction

An academic curriculum as a concept is defined in research literature in many different ways. In this research an academic curriculum is defined practically: it is an instrument for pedagogical and didactic thinking and activities. The research represents three curriculum approaches: an academic curriculum as a studying an learning environment, as a part of learning culture and as a pedagogical strategy.

This article bases and reflects on the research concerning the written subject teacher curriculum and its realizing in practice. A curriculum is viewed as a learning environment. The key issue is, how a curriculum as a learning environment support and promote becoming a professional.

2. Aims and objectives

This paper reports on the research, which examined subject teacher students´ views on a curricular learning environment in academic years 2005-2008. The purpose was to examine from a professional point of view the symbolic and operational compatibility of the curriculum at the time as experienced and assessed by subject teacher students. This article will continue the research and views, how the subject teacher curriculum has changed in 2009-2013 and how students assess their curricular environment form the point of view becoming a professional.

The subject teacher curriculum was examined systemically within a normative-theoretical research framework. The normative framework was constructed on European and local laws and the norms and strategies of the university concerning academic teacher education. The theoretical framework was constructed on essential background theories concerning academic teaching, learning and supervision, and as well as Everett M. Rogers's (2003) Innovation and Diffusion Theory as the frame theory of the study. The Innovation and Diffusion Theory provided a relevant

perspective for examining the implementation of the subject-teacher education curriculum and how students re-innovate and re-invent it. This kind of student-cent approach and examination allowed for the students' voices to be heard, according to the strategy the university (2007-09): students take part in improving the quality of teacher education.

A curriculum was defined here an innovation. According to Rogers "an innovation is an idea, practice, or object that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption. It matters little, so far as human behaviour is concerned, whether or not an idea is "objectively" new as measured by the lapse of time since its first use or discovery. The perceived newness of the idea for the individual determines his or her reaction to it. If an idea seems new to the individual, it is an innovation. Newness in an innovation need not just involve new knowledge. Some one may have known about an innovation for some time but not yet .developed a favorable or unfavorable attitude toward it, nor have adopted or rejected it. "Newness" of an innovation may be expressed in terms of knowledge, persuasion or a decision to adopt." (Rogers 2003, p. 12). A social system is defined as a set of interrelated units that are engaged in joint problem solving to accomplish a common goal. The members or units of a social system may be individuals, informal groups, organizations, and/or subsystems. (Rogers 2003, p. 23). The subject teacher students and all the staff are interpreted as a part of subsystems and all the members of the higher education units have influence on any curricular environment.

3. Methodology

Epistemologically, the roots of this academic curriculum research are linked both to positivism and interpretive paradigm. The integrated research approach provides for understanding "the phenomenon of interest from the participants´ perspectives, not the researcher´s" (Merriam, 1998, p. 6). Qualitative researchers are interested in understanding the meaning people have constructed, that is, how they make sense of their world and the experiences they have in the world (Merriam, 1998, p. 6). Qualitative research "implies a direct concern with experience as it is 'lived' or 'felt' or, undergone"' (Sherman and Webb, 1988, p. 7). In contrast to quantitative research, which takes apart a phenomenon to examine component parts (which become the variables of the study), qualitative research can reveal how all the parts work together to form a whole. It is assumed that meaning is embedded in people's experiences and that this meaning is mediated through the investigator's own perceptions (Merriam 1998, p. 6). The research has adopted an evaluative case study approach.

Why integrated methodology? A curriculum is a part of the culture of an educational organization. In any school organization, organizational culture concerns values, assumptions, beliefs, espoused theories and mental models, observed practices, areas of conflict and consensus, the formal and hidden messages contained in artefacts, messages, documents and language, the 'way we do things', the physical environment, relationships, power, control, communication, customs and rituals, stories, the reward system and motivation, the micro-politics of the school, involvement in decision-making, empowerment and exploitation/manipulation, leadership, commitment, and so on. (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007, p. 96.) Any curriculum at any school level represents the culture of the educational organisation. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison organizational culture is intangible yet its impact on a school's operations is very tangible. This suggests that, while quantitative measures may be used, they are likely only to yield comparatively superficial information about the school's culture. In order to probe beneath the surface of school's culture, to examine the less overt aspects of the school's culture(s) and subcultures, it important to combine quantitative and qualitative methodologies for data collection. A mixed methodology will be used for the empirical data collection, using numerical and verbal data, order to gather rounded, reliable data. A survey approach will be used to gain an overall picture and a more fine-grained analysis will be achieved through individual and group interviews and focus groups. (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007, p. 96)

3.1 Research questions, data collection and content analyses

The research considers the academic curriculum of subject-teacher education in 2005-2008 developed in the spirit of the Bologna process. The purpose was to examine from a professional point of view the symbolic and operational compatibility of the curriculum at the time as experienced and assessed by subject teacher students. The students were questioned in 2005-2006, 2006-2007 and 2007-2008 on how the academic curriculum as a learning environment showed them how to progress from novices to experts. The main research question was "How favourable has the curriculum of subject-teacher education in 2005-2008 been in which to develop into a professional according to two groups, the science-mathematics oriented and the humanities oriented?", and three subquestions were 1) How have the students assessed the symbolic compatibility (relevance) of the curriculum? 2) How have the students assessed

the operational compatibility (quality) of the curriculum? and 3) Do the assessments of two groups differ from each other statistically?

The research material was comprised of the teacher students' feedback on curriculum innovation from the academic years 2005-2008 (N=1550), gathered using feedback forms consisting of quantitative and qualitative material. The research method was content analysis and approach integrated; the quantitative material was analysed using SPSS, and the qualitative material using Atlas-ti.

3.2 Results

The Innovation and Diffusion Theory (Rogers 2003) provided a relevant perspective for examining the implementation of the subject-teacher education curriculum and how students re-innovate and re-invent it. This kind of student-cent approach and examination allowed for the students' voices to be heard, according to the strategy of the university (2007-09): students take part in improving the quality of teacher education.

According to the research results, on the one hand the curriculum met the students' expectations, but on the other hand did not. The pedagogical studies as regards the quality of pedagogical goals and pedagogical activities were found to be compatible, on average (subject didactics, general didactics) or greater than average (teaching practice, pedagogical study) with the students' expectations of evolving professionally at both the strategic and operational levels. However, the results also revealed three pedagogical competence areas not compatible with the students' expectations: information and communication technologies in education (digital learning environment), learning-process by portfolio (self-reflection) and research-based teaching and education (research methods in education).

Both science-mathematics and humanities oriented students assessed the realized curriculum as a learning environment quite similarly, the assessments in some areas statistically differed from each other. In sum, quantitative data analysis showed qualitative direction of the curricular environment and the qualitative data analysis increased awareness of the areas for improvement.

4. Conclusion

The American curriculum research, broadly viewed, has a long tradition until early 1900 century, but in Europe the situation is different; a curriculum research is waken, which the Bologna process contributed.

In higher education, especially in teacher education, the importance of research based teaching and learning is noted. In teacher education pedagogically high quality curriculum is a key word for the individual and social well-being. This article contributes a bit to it.

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Curriculum Content and the Engagement Issue: Problems for the Sociology of Knowledge

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Abstract

This paper is about the longstanding problem in curriculum inquiry of adequately theorising both knowledge-based curriculum questions, and pedagogical concerns around classroom interaction and student engagement (e.g. Beck 2013; Whitty 2010; Yates 2009; Young 2013). It is specifically concerned with recent social realist work which emphasises entitlement to specialised disciplinary knowledge as the basis to curriculum, and separates pedagogic problems of motivation and engagement from questions of curriculum prescription and content selection (Muller 2009, Young 2008, 2013). This paper looks at some tensions inherent in conveying disciplinary knowledge in school subject and undergraduate teaching, drawing on interview data from an Australian Research Council funded project which is investigating how teachers and academics in two disciplines (history and physics) understand their field and approach their teaching and the concerns they have about current policy directions. It finds that, for both disciplines, teachers and academics appear to be grappling with different and potentially competing elements of what the discipline is at these foundational levels, and that their struggles to engage students can be seen as not simply pedagogical but inherently tied up with getting to the heart of what the discipline is about. From this analysis, it is tentatively proposed that, despite the acknowledgement of practical and pedagogical challenges in disciplinary teaching within social realist work, issues of subject content selection may pose difficulties not currently brought out in the way the overall argument is framed.

Keywords: curriculum content; pedagogy; engagement; disciplinary teaching; social realism

1   Introduction

This paper is about the longstanding problem in curriculum inquiry of adequately theorising both knowledge-based curriculum questions, and pedagogical concerns around classroom interaction and student engagement (e.g. Beck 2013; Whitty 2010; Yates 2009; Young 2013). It is specifically concerned with how these questions are approached in recent social realist work which emphasises entitlement to specialised disciplinary knowledge as the basis to curriculum, and separates pedagogic problems of motivation and engagement from questions of curriculum prescription and content selection (Muller 2009, Young 2008, 2013). In this paper, I point to some tensions inherent in disciplinary teaching that might be overlooked by this approach, drawing on interview data from an Australian Research Council funded project[1] which is investigating how teachers and academics in two disciplines (history and physics) understand their field and approach their teaching and the concerns they have about current policy directions. The conclusions being drawn from the data are tentative at this stage, and are presented to illicit feedback and discussion.

2   Social realism, knowledge and engagement

The social realist position emphasises the importance and conceptual power of disciplinary forms of knowledge, and the danger of superficiality in taking outcomes-driven, student-centred and interdisciplinary approaches as the starting-point for learning in schools and universities. Drawing on arguments about epistemic boundaries and specialisation, this work shows how disciplines serve as a means of legitimating units of knowledge within a particular tradition, and develop within those traditions over time in a way that produces more 'powerful' forms of knowledge. In opposition to work in the traditions of critical pedagogy and the like, the theory makes a fundamental distinction between curriculum and pedagogy, and separates issues of motivation and engagement from curriculum concerns. Young (2008, p. 20) argues that curriculum knowledge should be treated as a distinct social category 'separate from experience, separate from the political and economic uses of knowledge, and separate from the pedagogic problems

faced by teachers with different groups of learners.' Pedagogy is defined as referring to teachers' activities and knowledge and separated from curricular concerns relating to the principles informing the broader selection of 'the knowledge that pupils are entitled to know' (Young 2013, p. 109). Disciplines are not seen as identical with their teaching in school and university subjects, but it is argued that subject teaching needs to be informed by how knowledge in the field has developed and built over time if the curriculum is to be conceptually coherent (Muller 2009, Young 2013). Young (2013, pp. 109-110) acknowledges that school teachers 'have to take account of pedagogic criteria and their knowledge of the capabilities, experience and (and potential) of the students' in a way that isn't required at universities but sees this difference as 'one of structure and sequencing, not of content'. He proposes that national curriculums should be limited 'to the key concepts of the core subjects and…designed in close collaboration with the subject specialists', guaranteeing autonomy to individual schools and specialist subject teachers to take account of different cultural and other resources, different histories and different contexts (Young 2013, p. 110).

A number of theorists have suggested this approach is helpful for reframing curriculum debate around questions of knowledge, but that separating out pedagogical concerns may neglect a number of tensions *inherent in* disciplinary teaching. Yates (2009, p. 22) has suggested that the argument is useful but does not resolve 'the tension between curriculum purposes and pedagogical engagement with different kinds of embodied learners', and Whitty (2010) and Beck (2013) have also pointed to the challenges of enabling meaningful access to disciplinary knowledge, due to the self-referential and esoteric nature of that knowledge and the prolonged initiation required to develop disciplinary understanding. In this paper, I attempt to take up some of these concerns in a different way, by looking at how 'the discipline' is conveyed at the earlier foundational stages of its development in school and undergraduate teaching, particularly as this relates to issues of content selection and student engagement. This is discussed first in relation to history, and then physics.

3   Disciplinary framing and pedagogic practice

3.1   History Teaching

In the history interviews, tensions were evident in what teachers and academics felt needed to be conveyed about the discipline at the school and undergraduate levels, both in relation to the selection of historical content and in terms of how individual interest and interpretation was developed. In terms of historical content, this was about how content could be selected and put together in the curriculum in a way that enabled detailed and sustained attention to historical particularities of interest, but also allowed for the development of a broad sense of historical narrative and context. Both teachers and academics strongly emphasised the importance of their students' interests in shaping issues of content selection, and the selection of particular content was seen as fundamentally important to how students engaged in the subject, and why particular subjects were more popular with some students than others. In schools, this was related to the expertise of particular teachers and what they could bring out for their students, but was also about what students want to know about and not just a matter of how teachers could connect them to that material pedagogically. Similar issues were also raised at university level, particularly in relation to offering students options to enable them to get at the detail that historical work is about. Academics emphasised the importance of offering an appropriate range of courses, and were critical of recent moves in some institutions that had seen subjects reduced to broad overview type courses.

However, although both teachers and academics were concerned with curriculum that over-emphasised facts and dates or emphasised a particular version of history, they also wanted students to have a broader understanding of historical narrative and worried about students who lacked a general sense of the history of Australia and the world in terms of key events and big changes. Although history teachers were concerned with issues around mandated content and overloading, many still welcomed the development of a new Australian history curriculum and agreed with its overall intent to set out an overarching historical narrative. One historian who has done work on debates around the history curriculum issues put it this way:

> I remember talking to curriculum designers…and they were always getting letters from interest groups saying why isn't, you know, this there and that there. It's a very difficult question and you sort of don't want to turn students off…but content is important and you can't have a good discussion without knowing something. (Academic 41)

A related tension was also evident in the emphasis placed on the development of individual interest and interpretation as part of progression in the subject. In the interviews, there was a strong emphasis on developing student fascination with the past in the early to middle years of high school, and in connecting students to a broader narrative. One teacher put it this way:

> I hope they do take some skills away from the subject that they've learnt along the way. But I think none of that's valuable unless they do have some sort of – a personal fascination with it, and um, some kind of passionate interest that comes out of it. If you're not interested in it, but they have great research skills or you know, whatever it is, then it might be valuable but it's not teaching history. So that special kind of interest in the past and the understanding of how their own lives connect with the past—I'd want that to come out of it, I think, and if they haven't got that, then we've failed. (Teacher 8)

This concern was not just presented in pedagogical terms, but was intimately tied up with developing the kind of engagement required by the discipline. History as a discipline was frequently presented as being about individual interpretation and debate, and the development a historical way of knowing was seen as tied up with issues of identity and student voice. In terms of progression in the discipline, historians often spoke about a break between the exam-driven curriculum of Year 12, and the kinds of development necessary at university which required individual creativity. One historian speaking about her early teaching at a research university in Victoria noted that:

> It was about using, trying to use their intellect and trying to get them to express themselves rather than just get a good mark, which is sort of what I think a lot of them had been trained in that VCE [Victorian Certificate of Education] funnel to do and they'd sort of come out of an environment where if you don't need to know it for the exam it can be pushed aside and at university it's kind of the opposite. It's the people who find their little niche who generally excel, in my experience, in history at least. So it was some of the students, they were so opinionated in tutes, and just fantastic to be around and have around. But then when it came to their essays, they were kind of trying to do the formula and it wasn't quite working so I found that fascinating and during the course of that, taking that course I worked really hard to try and turn some of those, I suppose, attitudes to history around a little bit. (Academic 41)

Here, getting students creatively engaged in the material was not just an issue of pedagogy, but was about conveying a sense of what the discipline is. Interpretation was not seen as completely open – a lot of emphasis was placed on rigour and the use of evidence and argument as fundamental to disciplinary practice – but allowing for grounded debate within that was seen as a critical part of student development within the field.

In summary, from the point of view of its early foundational development, the discipline of history was seen to be about historical interpretation and debate, as well as about both sustained and detailed attention to historical particularities of interest *and* a broader sense of historical narrative and context. These competing elements of history as a discipline presented challenges for teaching the subject history in practice, and how teachers attempted to engage students in that can be seen as not simply pedagogical but bound up with conveying a sense of what the discipline is as a field. These tensions can be seen to present challenges for defining a curriculum for the subject of history, in relation to both allowing students to develop their own interpretations and voice and engage with particular areas of interest in detail, and develop a broader historical sense and context.

3.2 Physics Teaching

In physics, there was far stronger agreement about what core concepts of the discipline needed to be taught at the different levels that accorded with the social realist approach to curriculum prescription (and indeed physics is often used as an example in social realist papers). However, despite this overall agreement, there was still a tension in how that was framed in foundational teaching in practice, and as with history this was intricately tied up with both trying to engage students pedagogically and convey a real sense of what the discipline is.

Despite the overall agreement on foundations, there were differences in how teachers and academics thought disciplinary teaching was best approached in practice, particularly in relation to mathematical content. In the interviews, we found a significant amount of concern with earlier reductions in the mathematical content in relation to academic standards, and a lot of emphasis on the importance of mathematical ability for understanding the very difficult physics concepts. However, there was also some acknowledgement that making the course more accessible to students might be important to sparking their interest and progression in the discipline and a number of participants also emphasised the importance of bringing physics to life in a way that engaged the students and also gave them a real sense of what physics was like as a science and in research, particularly in relation to the exploration of new ideas and questioning of old ones:

> At the school level, I think our schools fail to get across the joy of doing science, the finding things out, what it's like to not know the outcome of an experiment before you do it as opposed to being quite obvious because it's on the flip side of the worksheet…So I think we're teaching science as a collection of facts and as a plugging things into equations and we're not talking about testing hypotheses, we're not talking about finding things out, we're not talking about looking things up in literature and synthesising new ideas. (Academic 39)

Both physics teachers and physicists talking about schooling highlighted the importance of developing student engagement through interesting content and experimentation rather than just focusing on the fundamentals. They

recognized a need to trade-off some emphasis on foundational learning in the interests of engagement in the early to middle years of secondary school, and wanted students to be excited about big issues and interested in the kinds of questions physics deals with:

> In teaching science in primary schools and physics in secondary schools you have to strike a balance between laying the foundations. I'm sorry but you do have to know what Galileo discovered 400 years ago in mechanics…but you can't do that alone because it's too dry for most people. And you need to have a mixture then of the inspirational stuff. (Academic 3)

> So in schools what we need to do is motivate and the main thing I get enormously frustrated about schools is that teachers tell kids, they don't show them…so I think that physics in high school should be experimental and experimental first and foremost (Academic 4)

Again, this was not just a pedagogical issue or about connecting students to core knowledge but was about how the heart of the discipline was framed. There was a tension in the physics interviews between getting across a sense of possibility and scientific debate, while still providing students with the mathematical knowledge required to grasp the discipline's complexity. One academic also suggested that incorporating a sense of current research questions at lower levels confused students and limited their understanding:

> So the other problem that we have in high schools and even in early university now, is that there seems to be this desire—great desire to teach the advanced parts of physics because people think they're sexy. Um, so you know, you suddenly start exposing students to ideas like Quantum Mechanics and Relativity in high school. And, yeah, you can do that but they're not going to understand them…because unless you understand the fundamentals, those subjects don't make proper sense. (Academic 23)

At the university level, in contrast to history, where an intrinsic interest in the discipline was often assumed, physicists were more likely to identify engaging students with the breadth of material required as a challenge to their continuation with the subject. But they were also concerned with developing students with both a broad conceptual understanding of physics as a framework and the creative ability to progress into research:

> …it's very easy for undergraduate students to think physics is this list of rules that old guys with grey beards figured out 100 years ago, right, and then you end up in a research lab and you realise it's not like that at all, it's something that's evolving and I can be part of it, and there's new things and it's all about questioning, it's not about memorising, and so that's very easy and that's a mistake that I think a lot of people slip into. (Academic 33)

For physics then, although there was clear agreement about core disciplinary concepts, the breadth and complexity of the material was also seen as a potential barrier to student engagement with the discipline as a field, and there were tensions in conveying a sense of the discipline as both driven by complex mathematics and formulas *and* as a science driven by questioning and discovery. So despite the general agreement about foundations, as with history, the interviews revealed potential challenges in defining subject curriculum in a way that could meet the concerns about mathematical rigour as well as get across a sense of physics as an experimental and scientific field.

4   Conclusion

Overall, despite their differences, there appear to be significant tensions evident in how 'the discipline' of both history and physics is conveyed within school subject and undergraduate teaching. In the interviews conducted for this project, teachers and academics in both disciplines can be seen to be grappling with different and potentially competing elements of their disciplinary fields at these foundational levels. And within this, their struggles to engage students can be seen as not simply pedagogical but inherently tied up with getting to the heart of what the discipline is about. Although this was more pronounced in history, where interpretation forms a core part of the discipline, and interest can more easily dictate what is studied, similar elements were evident in relation to physics in how the discipline was interpreted and framed in relation to its mathematical language and research context. In both disciplines therefore, how the subject curriculum is defined is complicated both by the potentially competing logics of the discipline itself and how different elements interact with the issue of student engagement. From this analysis, it is tentatively proposed that, although there is considerable acknowledgement of practical and pedagogical challenges in disciplinary teaching within the social realist framework, the tensions evident within subject content selection may pose difficulties not currently brought out in the way the overall argument is framed.

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Entrepreneurship in school: an open space for creativity and curricula enrichment

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Abstract

In a changing world where it is intended that school curricula promote the acquisition of academic and social skills and provide proactive individuals with a sense of autonomy independence and self-confidence, the word entrepreneurship is still poorly known, especially in the early levels. However, the creation and implementation of new ideas and creative solutions, the key skills of entrepreneurship, are transverse to human life and able to be developed as early as the primary school. Relevant literature suggests important links between education, venture creation and entrepreneurial performance, as well as between entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial activity (Henry C. *et al*, 2005; Raposo &Paço, 2011; Rodrigues R. *et al*, 2008; Sánchez, J.C. 2009). Fostering an entrepreneurial spirit at school also mobilize cultural, scientific and technological knowledge enabling a convergence of the various curricular areas.

This article offers a reflection about the advantages of working entrepreneurship at primary school through the implementation of the project "It's early ... that's Entrepreneur", that was developed by Associação Industrial Portuguesa- Câmara de Comércio e Indústria (AIP-CCI) and was implemented in Real Colégio de Portugal. This project allowed to create environments in which 4th grade students developed creativity, self-confidence, leadership, teamwork, responsibility and civic sense and learned to be persistent in their goals.

Keywords: school curricula; entrepreneurship; enrichment curriculum; interpersonal skills.

1. Introduction

Modern education emphasizes the importance of developing competences essential to life in an ever changing society. These competences are being defined both by prominent researchers in the educational field and international organizations, namely within the European Union.

Education is one of the pillars of society and assuming that entrepreneurship is not exclusively an innate ability, but rather an acquired one, it is up to all society the role to form people able to monitor and adapt, or even react to the changes and challenges of a society in constant transformation. Entrepreneurship Education (education to develop an entrepreneurial spirit) is gaining importance within the European Union (EU). There is a broad consensus between EU member states concerning the aims and objectives of Entrepreneurship Education. Naturally, the governments within the EU organized their educational policies in order to implement these important guidelines as referenced in The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) Special Report (Martinez *et al*, 2010).

It is largely agreed among experts that it should no longer just be an extra-curricular activity, but instead should be embedded in the curricula across all educational levels and types. Making Entrepreneurship Education an integral part of curricula implies changes on several levels, especially in teaching methods (e.g., greater use of experiential learning and a stronger moderation focus applied by teachers, so that students become more in dependent and take the initiative regarding their education) are required as they are the vehicles of bringing information towards pupils. The education context needs also to be changed as it constitutes the framework for successful Entrepreneurial Education. In the national curriculum of the primary school is noticeable the concern to build knowledge in a coordinated manner, which implies the non-existence of tight areas, but an integrated and holistic approach. However, reality shows that school is continuing to work curricular areas individually, often forgetting that there are issues that can be addressed in different areas, allowing students a

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broader view of the teaching content and thus develop divergent thinking. The entrepreneurship projects allows.

Education in entrepreneurship has been introduced to the curriculum of institutions of higher education in Portugal. Forty-one percent of the current courses were first offered in 2003 or 2004 (Redorf, 2006). This change to the importance of entrepreneurship education was both reactive to the needs of the market as well as pro-active through the interests of professors. The concept of entrepreneurship it isn't, therefore, something new or unknown, however educational offerings are still generally oriented toward jobseekers rather than job-creators, especially in some areas of knowledge. One way to around this situation would soon introduce this concepts since primary school, were the pedagogy of entrepreneurial education is almost nonexistent.

The report of the European Commission states that the Entrepreneurship Education in Portugal is explicitly recognized as cross-curricular objective at all school levels. It is however not compulsory as such (EU, 2012). Renowned for its practical intervention among firms, the Portuguese Industrial Association (Associação Industrial Portuguesa- Câmara de Comércio e Indústria: AIP-CCI) endeavored to promote also this subject at schools with the project "It's early ... that's Entrepreneur" and the "Ateliers Undertake Child ". This program aims to create environments in which students can exercise their ability to imagine the changes in order to develop very early in their initiative, creativity, self-confidence, leadership, teamwork, responsibility and civic sense in all that will undertake, whether in academic and professional life, as the personal and social aspects of everyday life. The AIP-CCI aims to create well with the "Ateliers Undertake Child", a culture conducive to entrepreneurship**.** This project has as main objective to contribute to ongoing work aimed at developing in our students behaviors and skills, so that they can build their own paths and find opportunities to be persistent in their goals, through experiences, studies and exchanges of experiences.

2. Method

The school population consisted in 23 children aged between 9 and 10 years attending the 4th grade in Real Colégio de Portugal, Lisbon. Students were organized into five working groups.

The project took place in a period of 30 sessions designed for one-time school, but the important thing was to meet the overall objectives of each activity so the time spent on each task was flexible.

The classes were well structured always presenting the introduction and contextualization, the teaching objectives, summary and consolidation of learning. Links were established with the different areas of knowledge in a transversal approach of knowledge. Work rules have been established since the beginning and had to be simple and clear valuing mutual respect and teamwork. Teachers promote motivational practices: balances firmness with gentleness; given responsibilities to students and trust them, give students some ownership of their learning and help to express themselves; teach how to produce knowledge not just reproduce it, and create a classroom environment where all feel free to question

AIP-CCI developed a manual to be used by the teacher / facilitator in the preparation of each session of the "Ateliers Undertake Child" and in the context of the classroom. This document contains a set of methodological suggestions for presentation and development of content related to the theme of entrepreneurship, as well as indications for the use of various resources to support sessions provided by AIP-CCI. To provide students with the opportunity to acquire key qualifications in real-life situations, in the previous school years, students were trained in several relevant business subjects to meet the challenges of the practice firm work. The program is divided into four modules each one with their specific objectives, as presented in table I.

At the end of the program students should identify the necessary resources and implement strategies of marketing and communication in a public presentation to school community.

Table I: specific objectives of the four modules in which the program is organized (adapt from AIP-CCI, 2012).

Module	Objectives
1 **Create my business now!**	• Being able to identify the concepts of entrepreneurship • Identify stages of creating a business and implementation a business idea; • Have generated a business idea; • Be motivated to develop their business idea.
2 **I want to sell my product!**	• Having understood what is marketing and what is their role and importance implementing a business idea; • Be able to identify the main concepts and strategies have into account when promoting a new product or service; • Having benchmarked with the community acceptance of the product (through an investigation); • Have improved the business idea; • Having defined advertising strategies that serve the product /service; • Having run a promotional piece and design the packaging, or created the graphic (visual aspect) of product/service.
3 **Lets see ... that results I hope to get?**	• Being able to identify the concepts to take into account in the determination results of the implementation /commercialization of an idea business; • Having identified the resources and raw materials needed to produce • By selling the products to each group; • Having set the price of the product / service development; • Have completed the tabulation and analysis of the results achieved; • Having defined the social application of the result.
4 **I want to know How to be an entrepreneur**	• Recognize the profession entrepreneur, as well as skills necessary for its activity; • Completion of the parts needed for the public presentation of project; • Be aware that anyone can be an entrepreneur since, his likeness also develop the necessary skills.

3. Results

At the beginning not all students were intrinsically motivated, however intrinsic value of the task and the potential applications in different subject areas and outside school develop favorable motivational beliefs. All younger children showed a great enthusiasm and benefited from the entrepreneurship project showing a feeling of autonomy and self-determination and changed their attitudes towards entrepreneurial thinking and acting.

The teacher's performances were very important to orchestrate the learning experience, encouraging children to learn and in establish a motivational classroom climate (highlighting the importance and functional relevance of new contents and skills for the current student's interests and future career goals).

Entrepreneurship Education requires a holistic orientation, so that interdisciplinary aspects are taken into account within every subject being taught and a close co-operation between all stakeholders is critical for the program success. Also the practice-oriented co-ordination of targets, contents and methods as didactic principle is especially considered regarding Entrepreneurship Education. Particularly teaching methods like case studies, role plays, project-oriented tasks and projects are used in order to give special attention to independent work on the one hand and forms of social learning on the other hand, as well as to their relevance for the business world. Thus the operating support and the other resources (videos, texts) made available by AIP-CCI were extremely useful and excellent guide to the first approaches to entrepreneurship.

The study gives strong support for a more integrated approach in which learning to search for meaningful information and processing this information is part of the more general educational curriculum. Use of this feature allows research and work outside the classroom, favoring autonomy and discovery. In this scenario the teacher takes on new roles leaving the traditional method and assuming a role of mentoring and monitoring processes of self-according to students' abilities. Problem-oriented assignments and action-oriented classes lead the students to think in a logical, creative and synergistically way, to work carefully and patiently, independently or in a team as well as to decide and act responsibly.

The entrepreneurship projects provide new opportunities to the school to build knowledge and thus a greater and a better participation of the students, giving to the school the possibility of build bridges with other worlds of information and new learning situations.

4.Conclusion

The entrepreneurial culture and procedures are best realized in cooperation with the operational environment and with regard to the objectives set for Entrepreneurship Education at each level of education. Taking stock of this initiative concluded that entrepreneurship is assumed as one of the main factors that promote the economic development of a country and, therefore, is also regarded as one of the eight key competences to be acquired in schools, like the Portuguese, Mathematics or any other discipline has perfectly cemented in the curriculum of the students.

We believe that the ability to undertake goes beyond the innate abilities of each; it is possible to develop in each student, one observer aware of the changes and challenges of a society in constant transformation, an explorer of opportunities and inventor of new solutions to the market and society. Children are, by nature, a rich source of ideas. Teaching children with different strategies and experiences is a challenge. To keep students concentrated, and especially motivated increases the level of challenge. More important than making kids be quiet and listen, is to make them like what they are doing and valorize what they are learning. All children have dreams and aspirations and need to grow aware of their capacities to enable them to one day achieve these and other dreams. Aware of their capabilities, have the confidence needed to "be" and to "do more", for himself and for the surrounding community.

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Literacy: a global and integrative approach of the curriculum

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Abstract

The national Curriculum has a notorious concern to build knowledge in an articulated manner. However, reality shows that school is continuing to work curricular areas individually often forgetting that there are issues that can be addressed in different areas, allowing students a more comprehensive and critical knowledge. The curriculum directed towards a multicultural nation must include modes of access to knowledge, to decode, to interpret and to contextualize information (Roldão, 1999). Information must be tempered with intellectual judgment, critical thinking, and self-reflexivity. The school curriculum wants to enable students to connect their lived experience with academic knowledge (Pinar, 2004).

Educating for literacy entails looking at society as a whole, taking into account plural contexts, and allowing to understand education as a creative process (in the sense that it is not a privileged player of knowledge) (Azevedo, 2011)

This paper presents an overview of the research undertaken as part of innovative teaching practices in the primary school which integrates cross-cutting and a set of cultural and multicultural metaphors, taking as a starting point literary texts.

The literary text is central to the harmonious growth of the human being and the sooner it is explored the more likely the student will be successful in the acquisition of other skills and abilities throughout life.

A methodology that can leverage this usage is the transversality, since the transversal understanding of the complexity of the humanistic and scientific world becomes necessary to combine different areas of knowledge, overcoming the fragmentation and detachment.

The literary texts propose extending the literary universe, cognitive development and critical thinking, and cover topics such as courtesy, ecoliteracy and multiculturalism, seen as array values of humanity, enhancers of a human ecology. The proposed work bet on a scale integration between intellectual, emotional and behavioral development, allowing a new approach to a more inclusive curriculum.

Keywords: curriculum; literacy; transversality; multiculturalism.

1. Introduction

In Portugal in the primary school, the teaching of reading has been focused primarily on a direct and explicit teaching of decoding. When not explicitly worked, the development of comprehension is, frequently, worked by the students themselves. This fact is due on the one hand to the training of teachers that do not include a systematic and organized teaching of reading comprehension strategies, and on the other hand, much of the interpretation of the texts, particularly in textbooks is based on questions of literal meaning and very few of inferential sense, which has contributed to the low levels of literacy of the Portuguese students.

The linguistic and the cultural diversity of students as a result of universal education, is a relatively recent phenomenon and have been increasing with migration. The situation has caused some problems to the school curriculum (which had to contemplate/reflect on issues such as culture and religion), and to teachers who have had some difficulty in the approach of this situation, whether on issues related to the learning and their suitability to the new reality, or on how to transfer that learning to life outside the school. The problem is often a consequence of gaps

on teachers training. There was and there is still a gap between theory and practice, since many of the courses appear as independent units, and so, the students are required to build a whole from the diversity that is presented to them, which can cause a fracture between theory and practice: «If teachers are to prepare an ever more diverse group of students for much a more challenging work […] they will need substantially more knowledge and radically different skills than most now have and most schools of education now develop ». (Darling - Hammond, 1997:154 cited in Sim-Sim, 2001:61)

So it is up to the institutions that initially form teachers, to create opportunities that enable effective promotion and development of literacy. Bearing in mind that language is central to personal and social identity and we should allow our students to employ critical literacy through the close analyses of texts and through the creation of their own writings, using imagination and innovation.

2. Curriculum and Literacy

When it comes to curriculum, most of the experts in this area feel that it's crucial to discuss the issue of its definition, defining its field and establishing some criteria. To try to reach a unity of understanding in a field that has a diversity of views at various levels of the curriculum. It has been several definitions of curriculum. The classic one, more known is the one that compares curriculum with the study plan.

There are two dimensions that inspired most definitions based on the means/ends or the subjects/students making clear a fragmented way of looking at the curriculum. In the opinion of experts as Eisner, Stenhouse and Pinar there is a tendency to overcome this fragmentation by the integration of the parts, which can be overcome understanding the field - curriculum theory as an interdisciplinary field committed to the study of educational experience (Pinar, 2004: 20).

Goodson (2010) defends that there is an inter-relationship between public and private spheres and that curriculum studies must be socially and personally oriented, as it represents a possibility of training that is not prescriptive, but in which the teacher plays a crucial role. So the personal side is essential, although we never should lose the notion of the social side. To sum up, we cannot separate the personal from the social level.

Currently the new discourses on curriculum studies are bound to the internationalization of the field, but it must not be confuse with globalization, as it can be described as a global and local conversation (Pinar, 2006: 163) and provides «scholars with critical and intellectual distance from their own local cultures and those standardizing processes of globalization against which numerous national cultures – and the school designed to reproduce those national cultures - are now reacting so strongly." (Pinar, 2010:1).

3. Literacy and the Promotion of Multiculturalism

One of the greatest school challenges is teaching students to learn how to use their language in an efficient and enhanced way, so as to use the proper knowledge to the everyday life reading and writing. Knowing how to read is essential to the success and to the full integration of the individual, whether in the school life or labor market.

We live in an increasingly globalized society in which literacy is an essential part of the education: "The connection of the knowledge, the capabilities and the skills to a society of well-being and economic development, either in the developed societies or in the developing ones, is, nowadays, a sufficiently attractive stimulus to make the education for literacy a national desire, felt in the whole society». (Azevedo, 2011:1)

As the society has suffered some changes, the concept of literacy has also gained new dimensions. The definitions presented by UNESCO (2004) or National Adult Literacy Agency (2004) defend that literacy includes, besides the learning of the techniques of reading and writing, aspects of political and social transformation. Thus, it became necessary to extend the term by speaking more and more of *literacies* or *multiliteracies* (Bruce, 2003:42, cited Azevedo, 2011:2).

Concerning literacy as social and cultural practice, it becomes clear that literacy is not acquired spontaneously, but rather requiring a formal learning including planning, practice with monitoring process, evaluation and specially innovation. The place, par excellence, for this to happen is the school community, and also the surrounding communities, because the participation of all stakeholders enhances the reading habits through life.

The connection between school and society is the great purpose of critical literacy. The way we think about the world and how we use language always implies an ideology, as defended by Pereira (2009) «… when readers and / or listeners go beyond the mere use of texts to construct meanings, deliberately performing an analysis questioning the meanings present there and the influence that these representations have about themselves in social contexts, as well as mobilizing that information to publicly denounce and subvert the presence of this hidden social power». (Pereira, 2009:19).

In a global world where most countries, including the European ones, are multiethnic and multicultural, the truth is that there isn´t a real desire to meet the others: «If it is "multicultural" everything that favors a true dialogue with the other, with the foreigner, the one who speaks another language, that has perhaps another writing, another religion, other references different from ours, so I will say that we started badly, that our time hasty and superficial it is not multicultural» (Bukiet, Suzanne 1991:3, cited Gomes, 2012).

Reading allows the contact with different spaces, peoples, cultures, climates and thus facilitates the understanding of the complexities of human life and its ability to adapt to the natural environment. Reading involves putting yourself in the place of the other, at present or in the past, and that identification teach us to know ourselves and to be more tolerant, to understand each other, to belong to larger spaces, to accept and understand a variety of effective different points of view.

Schools should promote to their students the acquisition of knowledge and universal values that will enable them to become responsible and engaged citizens in a plural society. It is up to the teacher to construct materials, to use resources and to think different strategies to promote knowledge, reflection and appreciation of the diversity of other cultures, as well as our own.

This vision, coming from the particular to the global, about literacy and more specifically about critical literacy provides a global and integrating approach of the curriculum as it meets the current trends in curriculum studies on internationalization «as it cultivates comprehension of alterity, including that self- knowledge that enables understanding of others» (Pinar, 2009:7).

Analyzing the studies in this area in Portugal, contrary to what has been done in other countries such as UK, USA and Spain, we find that little has been done to promote the literary and critical literacy in primary school.

Also literacy projects available to the educational community, have carefully selected texts but mostly focus on building scripts, teaching resources with several strategies of explicit teaching of skills readers. A methodology that may resolve this situation is undoubtedly the transversality for the understanding of the complexity of the humanistic and scientific world becomes necessary to combine different areas of knowledge, overcoming the fragmentation and detachment. In the reading of texts by very young children with a limited knowledge of the world, transversality makes all the sense, because the knowledge and experience of the world mentioned in other areas, such as environmental studies and real contact with nature, can facilitate reading and decoding of texts. Also the context of mathematical language in activities of interpretation of the texts themselves and the realities there portrayed, allows a better acquisition of knowledge mentioned in this area of learning.

4. Reading the World

The innovative nature of the work presented below, developed in the context of teaching practice in the School of Education Almeida Garrett by the students of the Masters in Preschool Education and Teaching 1st Cycle of Basic Education focuses on transversal approach to the different areas of knowledge and has as a guide line the development of literacy. The transversality allows a greater understanding of knowledge. One of the major aims of our proposal, across the whole process, which runs through the various levels of education and several areas, is the promotion / education of students / children enabling them to an existence of a conscious and responsible citizenship. As the selected literary texts cover topics such as courtesy, ecoliteracia and multiculturalism.

The starting point were literary texts written by authors from countries chosen for the journey, since the intrinsic values of literature promote the understanding and respect for different cultures. After the analysis of the works, it was used informative texts about the country of origin of the writer, highlighting the cultural diversity and factual knowledge of these countries. Thus, these two types of texts increase the knowledge and the dialogue of the cultures allowing a literary, cultural and social education simultaneously.

Starting from the personal to the local and from there to the global level, the texts used were a pretext for the students to know, evaluate and reflect on their place and the others in the world, enabling an awareness of themselves and of the other, creating one greater motivation for research and for learning. This reading of the world through literary and informative texts is intellectually exciting and enriching.

From the following list of texts the students had to choose one and explore it during the 3rd period, with their students in the primary school, a country and continent:

Africa (Kenya) – *A Surpresa de Handa* by Eileen Browne.

Asia (India) - "A Educação da Serpente'' 'from the book *Tertúlia de Mentirosos. Contos Filosóficos do Mundo Inteiro* by Jean-Claude Carrière.

Europe (Russia) - "Óleo de Peixe" and "Esqueci-me como se chama" from the book *Esqueci-me Como se Chama – histórias e poemas* by Danil Harms.

Oceania (Australia and New Zealand) - "Eric" from the book *Contos dos Subúrbios* by Shaun Tan and *O Rapaz dos Hipopótamos* by Margaret Mahy.

America (Argentina) – *Contos da Selva* by Horacio Quiroga

The work with the students of primary school would have to include the following items:

- The selection of activities to be used should allow determination of knowledge and skills and literary critical and reflective thinking.

- Propose several group strategies as a way to strengthen commitment involving the transversality and allow verbalization of opinions and justification of choices.

- Make proposals of teaching strategies, promoting the transversality, appreciating the diversity of methodologies and learning activities using the experimental learning and new technologies of information and communication.

- Creating materials, including information about the reading, that could contribute to a critical approach of the texts and thereby improve the skills and knowledge of students.

- Build challenges that would enable the development of teamwork, speed of thought and of decision, development of imagination and ability to create their own strategies.

The main objective of the proposed study was to incorporate theory and practice and lead future teachers to design teaching and consequent curriculum, not as a memorization of concepts and works in compartmentalized areas, but as a total knowledge, where all count and contribute with their individuality and history: «the worldliness of a cosmopolitan curriculum first "implies that general education is more than an introduction to "great works," the "memorization of "essential" knowledge, or a sampling of the primary disciplinary categories (three units in social science, three in natural science, etc.), » (Pinar, 2009:8).

The final results were very positive and encouraging. From the reading and discussion of literary texts the students of primary school experienced and evaluated a range of personal and social behaviors and perspectives and develop connections and empathy by the other. They also develop critical thinking as they state and justify opinions and respond to the views of others.

 A diversity of the practical situations gave future teachers the opportunity to plan, organize, implement and evaluate transversal, integrating and promoting activities of literacy, and construct well-designed, appropriate literacy learning environments, and instructional interventions for children language learners.

5.Conclusion

The school should be a fertile environment for creative activities that enrich and develop the encyclopedic competence of the child, divergent thinking, reflection and critical literacy, in order to promote a better performance equally in literary and in reading competences. The proposals allow students to contact with a variety of literary texts. In this project intertextuality can explore the various aspects of cultural, ideological and linguistic and also allows the formulation of intertextual schemes leading to the development and enrichment of encyclopedic and critical competence.

The different activities presented also promote the development of literary competence enriching ideas, experiences, values and knowledge that would be hardly obtained by direct experiences, thus promoting readers with plural vision of the world.

In short, by developing literacy, all this work allowed to explain universes, mental images, sensations and realities and thereby to expand the world's knowledge and the respect for the difference, as well as unite the complexity of the humanistic and scientific world overcoming the fragmentation.

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Possibilities of pedagogy of participation from the discourse of educational professionals. An ethnographic research carried out in schools of different educational levels

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Abstract

In this paper we reflect on the pedagogical relevance of student participation in school life as an indispensable tool in education for democracy and the development of inclusive schools. It arises from a research project (Research, Development and Innovation Strategy. Ministry of Science and Innovation of Spain) developed in Cantabria (North of Spain) which is based on student voice and pedagogy of participation. We describe in this paper the results of the analysis of the interviews made to teachers and school counselors from nine different schools (Infant School, Primary and Secondary). The paper aims to delve into the meanings that those professionals attribute to the very concept of participation and we also seek to identify those spaces of school life in which participation is privileged and those who, on the contrary, are not open to the intervention of students. This process of analysis allowed us to infer what conception of childhood underlay to this way of understanding the participation and student voice in the schools, and to what extent it sits on a prefigured vision of students' individual characteristics such as age, the (dis)ability or what these professionals identify as the "personality". We discuss in the paper how these different ideas of childhood are influencing teachers' curriculum decisions. Only by understanding the meanings that school professionals ascribe to participation the limits imposed on students in order to intervene in the curriculum change or schools management should be anchored. This process will thereby lead more welcoming and inclusive schools. To date, this project involved a total of 9 schools during three academic years (2010-2013). The methodological orientation of the research is based on ethnographic methodology and data collection techniques used were classroom observations, field notes, diaries, interviews, photographs and films.

Keywords: student voice; participation; inclusive education

1   Introduction

This research rests, from a theoretical standpoint, upon other work that has attempted to recover student voice to understand what view students have on their educational situation and how strategies for change and improvement can be developed (Oliveria-Formosinho, 2008; Fielding, 2011). Different research has already identified some of the barriers faced by education professionals to broaden the participation limits of students in developing the school curriculum and management. Amongst these limitations we find factors related to the very set-up of the formal organs of participation (San Fabián, 2005), the scarcity of democratic development at school (Masschelein & Simons, 2006; Rudduck & Flutter, 2007) or the unsatisfactory concept of childhood and youth.

In this work we present some of the partial results of a research study whose principal aim is the improvement and changing of schools by means of opening and boosting areas of participation for students, especially those groups who traditionally have had greater problems in achieving success (I+D+i, Ministerio de Economía y Competitividad, EDU2011-29928-C03-03). Against this background, this project has been carried out over the last three school years (2010-2013) at different education levels in nine schools in Cantabria (Spain). More specifically, this work seeks to ease comprehension as to the meanings that professionals from different schools are conferring on the concept of participation in each specific context, as well as identifying the barriers that may be hindering its development. The

reflection upon the concept of participation is essential in order to imagine processes of curriculum development that are more open, more communicative and challenging for teachers and which recognize and enhance student agency in decision-making as to vehicular elements of the curriculum.

From the methodological point of view, this research study lies upon the pillars of qualitative tradition and is clearly influenced by ethnographical methodology (Hymes, 2006). In each of the schools copious data is compiled to attempt to understand what the participation fluxes are, what meanings the main agents confer upon them and how we can broaden such areas for school improvement. To do so, we make use of a wide variety of research techniques such as classroom observation, field notes, photographs, diaries and interviews. In this work we have analyzed data from the 31 interviews carried out on different education professionals who conduct their teaching activity in the participant schools at various levels of the Spanish education system.

Table 1. Summary of the interviews carried out at each education level

Type of profesional	Number of interviews
Infant Teachers	7
Primary Teachers	9
Secondary Teachers	3
Head Teachers	4
School Counselors	4
Therapeutic Pedagogy Specialists	2
Audition and Language Specialists	1
Technical teachers for Services to the Community	1
TOTAL INTERVIEWS	31

A system of thematic codification is used to analyze the data compiled. We defined the categories and codes (Huber, 2003) using strategies of inductive and deductive thinking. Stating from the basis of an initial scheme of variables to be analyzed, we progressively redefined certain of these categories and codes during the analysis process as the data required.

Table 2: Categories used for data analysis

Categories	Definition
Meanings of participation and their pedagogical sense	Description of the concepts, principles and ends that professionals offer as to student participation in school life.
Barriers to participation	Difficulties for promoting student participation in school life
Spaces open for participation	Moments, activities, times, school decisions in which student participation is possible.
Spaces closed to participation	Moments, activities, times, school decisions in which student participation is not possible.
Proposals	Alternatives that the teachers propose that would increase participation.
Concept of childhood	The vision of childhood and students that the teachers maintain in their discourses.

Groups present	Identification and justification of the groups that participate most in curricular activities.
Groups absent	Identification and justification as to which are the groups of students or individual students that do not participate in the school or curricular activities.
Gender	Descriptions about the ways of participation (presence or absence) of girls in school life.
Singular experiences	Particular experiences of participation in school that the professionals describe belonging to other schools or known to them for any other reasons.

2   Results

Owing to the limitations of space for this paper, in this text we will only detail the results related with the first two categories analysed: the meaning or pedagogical sense that professionals confer upon participation and the barriers that they highlight and which explain some of the practical difficulties that they encounter preventing participation from being an important element of their educational project.

In this process of analysis of these two categories we have been able to unveil five spheres of meaning that the professionals confer to the concept of participation. These dimensions can be intertwined in the discourses of those interviewed, even though it frequently occurs that one of them dominates the others.

We find the following dimensions related to participation: individual or psychological, pedagogical, organizational, socio-political and epistemological. Each of these creates a kind of cosmos capable of explaining by its own the concept of participation and constitutes a specific window that responds to questions such as: What does participating mean? What is the objective of teaching participation in the school? What benefits does participation produce? Why and for what reason could it be a relevant educational objective? What makes the participation a difficult practice in schools? The obstacles indicated by teachers tend to be in line with their particular view of participation and thus are inscribed in each of the dimensions that we have pointed out.

2.1   Individual or psychological dimension

The individual or psychological dimension is that in which the professionals declare as being the main strengths of participation those that redound on the individual themselves and improve their personal qualities of motivation, interest, attention , self-confidence and so on, thus generating a kind of private benefit or personal well-being.

Many of the education professionals who have formed part of this research understand that the main value of pedagogy in participation revolves around the development of a series of positive attitudes and feelings in the student. Teachers especially consider that favouring student leadership when it comes to classroom and school organization promotes an atmosphere of security and distension that makes students feel comfortable, happy and able to enjoy being at school, which will have a direct effect on their involvement and motivation. This was expressed by a female Infant school teacher when she said:

> "[…] I notice it for this reason, because I see satisfaction in their faces, because I see them happy, because they come to class happy, I mean, when they come through the door well, they immediately go to any part of the room to play or to look for their friends. I think that participation has this positive effect on the children´s attitudes".

However, there is another side to this individual dimension of participation which entertains certain dangers. Some of the professionals that place the benefits of participation solely on the students' well-being "in singular" also identify a set of obstacles that are exclusively linked to the student. There are a worrying high number of interviews in which factors such as age and personal characteristics of the students appear to be conceived as being determinant elements of greater or lesser participation in the school. If we blame levels of participation solely in the individuals, to the students in this case, we run the risk of removing responsibility from the teacher, and from school organization,

and in the end the social system for the absence of participation. Consequently, we therefore prevent the introduction of changes and provoke maintaining the status quo.

2.2 Pedagogical dimension

The pedagogical dimension refers to the discourses on participation that underline their interest as a means for learning about certain skills or curricular competences. Participation here is valued as being a didactic tool that permits the accomplishment of certain objectives considered as being of priority. Therefore, these more academic or curricular ends are in reality those that justify the setting in motion of participation in school.

A school that promotes student participation will enhance, firstly, the development of communicative competence: skills related to oral expression, listening, the basic rules for talking in public and interacting with others.

> "[...]It allows you to work with many aspects that are very important for any subject, that are very important in the way we work, from knowing how to listen, how to convey one's opinion, knowing how to listen to the opinion of others" (Female Primary School teacher).

In addition, a great number of participants understand that school participation promotes the development of interpersonal skills that will make individual students more competent when it comes to working in groups and cooperating (respecting one another, joining forces for a common goal, understanding the rules of living together, taking on responsibilities and so on). This then will contribute to a substantial improvement in the classroom atmosphere. The pedagogy of participation would, in the end, enhance and as one of the teachers puts it "learning for life" , a life that is made up of things that go so much further than adding, subtracting and multiplying.

However, in turn, the established curriculum itself is seen on many occasions as the chief obstacle for the development of this dimension of participation. "The programme is the programme and at the end of the term we have an (external) test," as one female teacher sums up. Another argument is that the usual way of working is through proposals that are very guided and closed, in activities in which students expect answers that are considered as correct, and this makes them learn by means of this curricular model in which they have practically nothing to choose or decide for themselves.

2.3 Organisational dimension

The organizational dimension of participation refers to a view more focused on functioning and the school climate and is related with the way school times and spaces are managed. We also find in this dimension arguments related with the capacity of participation in order to prevent certain students from disengagement. Consequently, participation is connected with important issues of education policy inherent in our education system.

They are many institutional barriers that teachers have identified and that are related to the organizational inflexibility of the use of the use of school and classroom spaces, the rules that regulate the school, the high staff turnover that hinders long-term projects from being set in motion, or in general, the fear of change. Part of these ideas is summed up in the words of a school counsellor "the school culture of our school is very much like an archipelago. Each tutor is on their own island, in their own world with their own organisation, planning, and with their own problems…"

2.4 Socio-political dimension

The arguments here invite us to climb over the walls over the institution to refer to participation as a right and an essential element in a democratic society. Participation is, as one school counselor refers, a need: "The children need to learn to express their opinions (…) as citizens, from a democratic perspective, we need to live this, live in our school space as a kind of micro society."

Arguments such as these appear which claim that students have the right to take control of the school, to convert it into something theirs, to feel an important part of it, even though there is no tradition among the teachers to favour this participation. In this sense we also discover questioning as to who do and do not participate in schools, reflections more associated to questions of equity and educational justice. Thus, one female teacher claims that participation opens the possibility for "many students to recover their dignity as students" which in her opinion has been gamaged by the fact of having a system that only values academic knowledge and as a consequence expels a great many young persons from the "school game".

Thus, the barriers preventing development of this dimension would be the teaching routine, the tradition that is, a classical or technical professionalism that turns out to be incompatible with this dimension of participation. Teacher training has the tendency to be excessively theoretical and fragmented and make it difficult to develop methodologies in the classroom that favour participation. There is also the dominant culture of teaching isolation. Therefore, the absence of student participation clearly mirrors the absence of collaboration and involvement of the teachers in their own education project itself:

> "Well I believe that the problems lie not so much with participation but more in the fact there is little culture in the adult world, of neither making them participate in the day to day of classes nor in the day to day of the school" (Female Primary School counselor).

2.5   Epystemological dimension

Finally, some statements make up what could be termed as the epistemological dimension to the extent that it invites us to reflect upon the different positions that exist in the participation game and the different "truths" that are associated when participation is made possible. This dimension invites us to consider participation from the perspective that concerns us as teachers bringing about new questions, concerns and demands that our usual perspective does not allow us to appreciate. Thus, when faced with the question what participation is, we are asked to consider that "you think of it as an adult, not like a child. And very often the position as a child is very different." This decentralization that this dimension proposes is at times limited by our own conceptions of childhood as a state of incompleteness and of the scarce possibilities of the student to decide, choose and have their own voice.

3   Conclusion

Participation is conceptualized by teachers in different ways that we have summarised in this paper in five main areas. Each of these proposes a direction so as to be able to understand what participation is what are the advantages and barriers in school life. We find that amongst all of them the individual or psychological dimension is very prominent among teachers, which thus creates a way to understand participation with important limitations from the point of view of what we consider to be a pedagogy of participation that is a complex one and committed to a more democratic society.

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Curriculum Studies between Macro-Perspectives and Micro-Levels: about Teachers' Professionalization in Switzerland in the 18th and 19th Century

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Abstract

Our paper represents first findings of our project named *Educating the future citizens: Curriculum and the formation of multilingual societies in Luxembourg and Switzerland* of Prof. Daniel Tröhler and Prof. Danièle Tosato-Rigo. This research project aims at analyzing the arrays of curricular strategies of citizenship education in multilingual countries, and at understanding more broadly the different cultural expectations towards education. In this attempt to approach the different comprehensions of citizenship within their historical background, the contextualization of the sources of the time period of 1798 to 1945 such as laws, school programs, rules of the single schools or textbooks, but also newspapers, are of crucial interest.

In this presentation, we contextualize archival documents concerning teachers' curricula in the 18th / 19th century in Switzerland, focusing on macro- and micro-historical perspectives and taking into account that school was a social institution like others. Proceeding from educational structures which can be explored from different macro-perspectives to micro-levels and vice versa, and time periods which don't have to be seen as borders or in linear chronologies, we demonstrate that micro-approaches can not only confirm macro-level findings, but also deepen results and help to see things that are invisible at the macro-levels. We start with first findings of the institutionalization of the teachers' training in the cantons Fribourg, Solothurn and Vaud and go on with the teacher college in Lausanne.

Keywords: micro-levels; macro-perspectives; teacher training; 18th-19th century; curriculum studies; Switzerland

1   Introduction

Educational structures and curricula can be explored from different perspectives, for example from macro-perspectives to micro-levels. For macro-perspectives, longer periods, quantitative access or broader geographic areas are requested, in order to illuminate processes and generate results, whereas for micro-level perhaps the most common and identifiable characteristic is its reduction of scale.

In the field of social and cultural history (Ginzburg, 2007; Gribauldi, 1995) and in the areas of curriculum studies (Tröhler et al. 2011; Baker, 2009) some research results point to interesting relations of micro- and macro-findings. In this paper we would like to apply such "changes of scale» (Revel, 1996) by focusing on the topic of teacher training in Switzerland, in specific on some aspects of the beginning of their so called "professionalization".

Our paper is linked to a research project in which, with other scholars from the University of Luxembourg and Lausanne, we try to approach the idea of citizenship education as an integral aim of modern schooling, following the broad understanding of curriculum provided by the Anglo-Saxon tradition of curriculum research (Kliebard, 2004; Popkewitz, 1998; Pinar, 2003). In general, we analyze curricula in different contexts to figure out different cultural expectations. The investigations reveal inconsistencies and ideological and social tensions within a specific cultural situation in which curriculum was constructed to organize schooling (Tröhler, 2009).

Switzerland is a federal state, where school topics are till nowadays in the competencies of the cantons, therefore our analyses can't comprise the whole Swiss territory, which would mean 26 cantons and their school systems – which are

sometimes quite different – but we have chosen three of them. They differ in languages and denominational affiliations: Canton Vaud, which is in the western part of Switzerland, was ruled by the Republic of Bern in the time of the Ancien Regime and became an autonomous canton in 1803. It belongs to the French speaking part of Switzerland and has been protestant, whereas the canton Solothurn is German speaking and catholic, and the canton Fribourg has French and German as official languages and has been catholic in most parts. It is of crucial importance that in these cantons and as well in all the other regions of Switzerland, public schools are involved in the respective cantonal legislation and moreover broadly ruled by the local communities.

The time period focused in this presentation starts in 1782, with a first source about a teacher course in the canton Solothurn, and ends with the foundation of the teacher training college in Fribourg in 1859, which closes a kind of institutionalizing period of teacher training in these three cantons.

The presentation is divided into two main sections. After a short introduction of an approach, which tries to define teachers' professionalization and with it difficulties applying such a concept to Swiss realities of the 18th/19th century and in general to the minefield of the term professionalization (2), we will give then an overview of the teachers' professionalization in Switzerland of the three cantons Fribourg, Vaud and Solothurn (3) and focus afterwards in micro-historical perspectives the teacher college in Lausanne in the time period of the first part of the 19th century (4). The part 3 and 4 include conclusions and summarize some results, but also open questions about treatment of scales and perspectives in curriculum studies.

2   Teachers' Professionalization in «Dynamic Sense»

Derived from the American sociology of professions, the concept of teachers' professionalization has been widely discussed in recent research (Bourdoncle, 1991; Novoa, 1987; Popkewitz, 1998; Savoie, 2009). Scholars have emphasized that the application of the concept of the teachers' professionalization in historical approaches – whether they are on "macro" or "micro" levels – have to be understood in a dynamic sense. Verifying quite "mechanically" different criteria, such as full-time job, a legal and specific teachers' status, a specialized knowledge and the existence of professional associations, is of no interest. On one hand, such criteria are themselves considerably evolving in time, and on the other hand, the process to enhance the status of teachers – the "pragmatic" definition of professionalization we will keep in mind in the present contribution – seems to be much older and has more discontinuities than its 20th century sociological definition allows to think (Savoy, Julia).

Actions of the state and teachers are broadly admitted in the above mentioned research as main historical agents in the process of professionalization. The Swiss case, whereas local power plays till nowadays a considerable role in school matters (Tröhler, 2011; Brändle, 1999), does not entirely fit in this frame. Recent Swiss research (Criblez / Hofstetter, 2000, 2002; Crotti, 2006) point to the importance of the history in the process of the teachers' professionalization, but start most time with the teacher colleges as initial, rarely the time before and additionally, have very often the focus on the 20th century. Divergent aspects as the recent "tertialization" are taken into account, which implies among others new connections of the discipline and the profession and emphasizes the process and networks, but stays most time in the "mechanical attributed criteria". Very often Swiss researcher try to avoid the topic "professionalization" in connection to the teacher education as it is well-known as "minefield". Thus, further investigations as we will do in our project are of utmost importance.

3   Teacher Education in Switzerland in the early 19th Century

As explained in the introduction, the cantons in Switzerland have the school sovereignty and therefore they are responsible for the education of their people. Since the beginning of the 19th century all three have taken political initiatives in the field of teacher education, which can be considered as an important part of the teachers' professionalization process.

In the canton Fribourg first intentions of a kind of institutionalization in teacher education can be seen on one hand in the model schools, which were mentioned in 1819 (Resolution, 1819, Canton Fribourg) and will be explained later in this text, and on the other hand in the refresher course of Père Girard. The latter was established in 1822 and lasted one month then it was interrupted for about ten years because of political changes. From 1833 to 1847 eleven courses were taught (Barras, 2006). In 1848, male student teachers were integrated in the gymnasium, because a pedagogical section was founded. It was a two-year course and lasted till 1856. In 1859 the teacher training college was established in the village Hauterive. A course was offered to the future female teachers in 1848 in Fribourg. It was a

two-month refresher course in different subjects (Altermatt, 2006). A year later, in 1849, the parliament decided that the future female teachers should receive their education at the girl's school (Resolution, 1849, Canton Fribourg).

In the canton Vaud the first law concerning the teacher education took place in 1806 and designed a teacher training college, in the year 1811 its organization and regulation followed. But this project was never realized. Later on, in 1833 a teacher training college got established. It was located in Lausanne and first only male teachers had access, but four years later in 1837 a new section for the future female teachers was implemented (Arlettaz, 1980). In the canton Vaud model schools were described in the resolution of the 3rd September 1836 (1836, Canton Vaud).

In the canton Solothurn a first teacher course got established already in 1782. Courses of some weeks were offered in the so called orphanage school for the teachers (Fink, 2012). In 1811 the parliamentary of Solothurn decided that courses of six weeks have to be offered and in addition also two week courses for experienced teachers. The aim was that all primary teachers in the canton should get these instructions within a few years (Resolution 1811, Canton Solothurn). In 1832 model schools were established and the future teachers had to visit them before they could attend the teacher courses. The teacher training course was not only for the student teacher but as well for the experienced teacher as refreshment. In the same law the female teachers and their education was mentioned too, but only in one sentence: "§39. The education of the teachers for home economics shall be decided to the specific circumstances" (Law, 1832, Canton Solothurn). 1845 a teacher training college was founded in Solothurn (FHNW, 2013).

The teacher education is mentioned in connection to the so called "model-schools", which implies a role model for the teachers of good practice and urged the others to visit these schools as further training to become a better teacher and for teacher students to get practical advice, experience and methodological ideas. These model-schools were mentioned in all three cantons, for example in Solothurn in 1832, in 1836 in Vaud, and in Fribourg in 1819 and 1834. These model schools were discussed and organized officially by the parliament of the responsible canton. Thus, this aspect of education can be seen as well as a kind of institutionalization of the teacher education, in two cantons long before an official teacher training college was established and in one canton in addition to the teacher college.

In summary, the analyses reveal that the establishment of a teacher training college was in the three cantons in different decades (FR 1856, VD 1833, SO 1845), but concerning other aspects of an institutionalization as for example model schools (FR 1819, VD 1836, SO 1832) or teacher courses (FR 1822, SO 1782), the findings expose the fact that the institutionalization is not at all linear or chronological. Additionally, this topic points to discussions on one side about learning a profession by a kind of an apprentiship from master to novice, which is often described as "practical learning" and is here demonstrated by the model schools. And on the other side, the education of a teacher based on a more "theoretical" approach in teacher colleges. These debates have started very early and are going on till nowadays. Moreover, the institutionalization of the teacher education had different elements in each canton and different chronologies of some similar elements and was a process of several decades. Furthermore, both sexes of teachers were mentioned early in all three cantons, but there are differences: only in the canton Vaud the female teachers got an own teacher training college in the 1830th, in Fribourg the education was at the girls school in the 1840th, but in both cantons close to the male teachers' opportunities. Different is the situation in Solothurn, where only a specific kind of female teachers was mentioned in the 1830th in one sentence, whereas the male teachers received at the same time broad instructions. Much more investigations have to be done to make conclusions about these gender observations, but it opens up the topic of the professionalization in regard to gender questions.

All the evidence points to the incoherency of the teacher education and a chronological, similar and linear institutionalization, and thus of the professionalization. Furthermore, the institutionalization – which is just a little part of the teacher education – has divergent aspects, includes some anachronistic elements, takes loops and matches only little with the linear idea of progress.

4   Teachers' Professionalization in Micro-historical Perspectives: the Teacher College in Lausanne in the 1830

As the teacher training college was established in Lausanne (canton Vaud) in 1833, its director, clergy Frédéric Gauthey, defined its mission with following words: "The real aim of the education is to fulfill God's plan in respect to human" (Gauthey, 1839).

This statement manifests no secularization in the beginning of the institutionalization of the teachers in Lausanne. But religious education had only a small position in the program of the school. The latter demonstrates a broad and ambitious intellectual offer for the student teachers (see table 1).

The contextualization of this document – which is a part of an annual report of the teacher college director in Lausanne in 1839 and had the aim to respond to critics – offer in this second part of the presentation to reflect some elements in micro-historical manner to enrich research about curricula.

Table 1: program of the summer course of the teacher college in Lausanne in 1838 (Gauthey, 1839)

Hours	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
5	---	Accounting Writing	Geography	Geography Writing	---	Methodol. Writing
6	Prayer,Reading Relig. instruct.	as on Monday	as on Monday	as on Monday	as on Monday	as on Monday
7	Composition Arithmetic	Arithmetic Topic	Composition Geometry	Arithmetic Topic	Composition Geometry	Arithmetic Composition
8	---	---	---	---	---	---
9	Educational science	Sphere	Educational science	Civic education	Educational science	Civic education
10	Geography Mental arith.	Grammar Geography	Geometry Grammar	Analytical lecture	Grammar Geography	Geometry Grammar
11	Natural history	Physics	Natural history	Natural history	Pedagogical explanation to physical science	Lecture Arithmetic
2	Topic	Drawing Composition	Topic	Drawing	---	---
3	Gymnastic	Drawing Composition	Geography	Drawing	Gymnastic	---
4	Reading	Reading	Singing Arithmetic	Reading	Singing Arithmetic	Geometry
5	Mental arith.	Singing	Singing	Singing	Singing	

The detailed report of director Gauthey to the activities of the teacher training college in Lausanne in the years 1833 to 1838 is just a small part of a voluminous documentation in the archive, in which this school – and in a broader sense the question of the professionalization of the teachers – left a deep impact: cantonal laws and regulations (one was mentioned before); annual reports on governmental activities, which contain reports about the teacher college; newspapers, in which some parliamentary debates went on, or articles, which deal with the improvement of teachers' competence, various letters of approval, handbooks, magazines etc. can be found.

The contextualization of the above mentioned documents on micro-level approaches means to bring them into connection of individuals and groups, which are intertwined, are defending own values and social interests. The micro-approach should help us to deepen our understanding of public discourse on teacher education. This leads to following question: Which actors can be identified in the debates about the creation of the teacher college in Lausanne?

As far as the teachers are concerned, nothing leads to the conclusion – even though they are the main objet of the school program – that their efforts would have led or would have contributed to the creation of the teacher college. It was not at all a lack of interest to improve teaching, because teachers were educated almost about one hundred years at the well-known charity teacher schools in Lausanne (Séminaire de régents, 1757). But in the 1830th their status seems to be quite ambiguous: they were under the power of the cantonal legislation, but they were employed (with many risks) by the communities. Therefore, teachers tried to obtain in this first part of the 19th century – and even much later – their autonomy from the power of the communities and a decent salary. This interests linked them, against the communities, to the cantonal government.

To take the cantonal government into focus, it can be determined that a growing disinclination against the idea of a teacher college took place, although he enacted a law concerning a teacher college short after the revolution in 1798. The motifs were partly of economic nature, but fare more politically and socially: concerns the teacher could be over-qualified, the risk to mix up social hierarchies, and the mistrust to uniform pedagogics.

Was there no need to intensify teachers' controls or regulations? Indeed, there wasn't. Because teachers were not only still employed by the communities, but they were also still under the control of the clergy, who was actually reinforced by a new ecclesiastical law in 1839 (the reformed cantonal government was presenting itself as the protector of the national church). And so, the existence of the teacher college was for more than a decade a constant object of political negotiations, and it remained officially "provisory teacher college".

The topic of improvements concerning the teacher education was used by another group of actors: the liberal wing of the parliament of the canton Vaud. In 1829 they were the first publisher of a specific journal for teachers. The school program, which was mentioned above, got created in their most influential period, after the adoption of a new law on elementary education (1835): this law aimed "the general formation of humans" (Arlettaz, 1980) and introduced several subjects as national history, natural sciences or linear drawing. Served the program of the teacher college as a kind of platform for the liberal project to shape citizens? The four general characteristics of this college, which are its director Gauthey, the public, the nationality, the progress and the harmony, seems to confirm it.

The program demonstrates a part of the teacher college history, which is composed by its director for his own justification. Who forced him to defend himself? It was a part of the liberal party. Among the liberal movements a new scission came up and some were profiling themselves with ideas about improvements of the teacher education. Some months later the same persons initiated the radical revolution. But this is another story.

The analyses on micro-levels can be helpful for various purposes: It may differ dichotomies, as e.g. such as State/Teachers or State/Church/Teachers. It reveals discontinuities, also in the sense of the so called «anachronisms», which can be seen for example in our case in the permanencies of the ecclesiastic laws of the Ancien Régime, which lasted in Vaud till 1839, or of the local employment of the teachers till 1947, although lots of major political changes happened, which emphasized the state to be responsible for the education. We tried to demonstrate that it helps us to know more about, how teacher training and its institutionalization is used within the social and political context in which teaching occurred. Teacher training and its institutionalization can only be understood, when social and political contexts are considered. The analyses on macro-levels points exactly to the same statements. Interactions of different actors, not stable dichotomies and discontinuities were detected in comparison of different areas and different kinds of institutions. We are totally aware that macro- and micro-approaches are not congruent and we think they don't have to be congruent, but the frictions lead to new results, which helps to understand history better. Whether researcher should establish direct and permanent links in historical analyses between the «macro» and the «micro», or not (as in the present paper, following Griboudi, 1996), is a question we would like to let open for the discussion.

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Trends of Researches Related to Curriculum in Brazil in the Last 10 Years

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Abstract

The purpose of this research was to analyze the 232 papers presented in the Working Group about Curriculum (GT-Curriculum), of meetings held in Brazil, by the Associação Nacional de Pós-Graduação em Educação (ANPEd), in the period from 2003 to 2012. The available information in the GT–Curriculum database was used, which gathers the disclosure of the survey performed by researchers linked to various universities and research institutions which are dedicated to the study of questions related to the theme. As indicated by Goodson (1995), based on Hobsbawm (1997), the curriculum is understood as a social construction, as result of a process by which a tradition is created. In face of some development arising from Moreira's contribution (2002), who analyzed the GT in the period from 1996 to 2000, and by the observation of the papers, we sought to describe and analyze the material, in theoretic-methodological terms, with the intention of, in addition to the systematic analysis, contribute to the delimitation of trends of researches about this theme in Brazil.

Keywords: curriculum; research; ANPEd; Brasil.

1   Introduction

The objective of this article was to describe and analyze the main trends of the 232 presented papers at the Associação Nacional de Pós-Graduação em Educação (ANPEd), in the Curriculum working group (GT), between 2003 and 2012. The analysis was based on the teaching modalities, on the origin of the papers and on the core working themes of the GT, in order to contribute to further advances in the discussion over those fields.

The importance of the material analysis proposed is justified by the relevance of ANPEd in Brazil and by its relation with the research production in Education area. In accordance to the emergence of different graduate associations in the country, like Associação Nacional de Pós-Graduação em Economia (ANPEC), Política e Sociologia (ANPOCS) and Administração (ANPAD)[1], the ANPEd is the result of organized efforts of some graduate programs in Education. Founded back in 1976, its existence mixes up with research institutionalization in the country, which born aiming to develop and consolidate graduate programs and field research. It's important to highlight that the formal implementation of Brazil's graduate programs occurred in 1965, by the technical report CFE 977/65, authored by Newton Sucupira, member of the Federal Education Council.

With this recent history, the graduate programs in Brazil are born with different aspects, specially under the influence of the non-Anglo Saxon European model, highlighting the French model, adopted, for example, by the Universidade de São Paulo (USP); and also the North-American model, implemented in the Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro (UFRJ), Universidade Federal de Viçosa (UFV) and in the Instituto Tecnológico de Aeronáutica (ITA). These educational and research level itself got official impulse in 1951, with the creation of the Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq) and of Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES)[2].

The organizational activities of ANPEd are structured in two fronts. First, there is the Fórum dos Coordenadores dos Programas de Pós-Graduação em Educação, formed by institutional partners of the association, and then the thematic working groups, which congregates specialized researchers in Education knowledge.

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[1] National Association of Postgrate Studies on Economics (ANPEC), National Association of Postgrate Studies on Politics and Sociology (ANPOCS) and National Association of Postgrate Studies on Management (ANPAD).
[2] National Council for Scientific and Technological Development (CNPq) and Coordination for the Improvement of Higher Education Personnel (CAPES).

In addition to the Coordinators Forum, it also occur the Regional Forums distributed across the country, in Northeast, Southeast I, Southeast II, Middle-West and South regions.

The General Assembly is the superior entity of the association, formed by the institutional partners, like Post-Graduate Programs Coordinators, and individual associates, as teachers, researchers and graduate students in Education. The Board is elected by secret vote, for a two year term, and its organizational structure counts with a president, three vice-presidents, a general secretary and two deputy secretaries. There's also a Fiscal Board with three members and three substitutes. The Coordinators Forum and the Working Groups (GT) count with coordinators and vice-coordinators, elected by its peers.

The association holds an Annual Meeting that gathers the Working Groups (GT) and promote conferences, round-tables, debates, mini-courses, special sessions, exhibitions, press releases (active between 1993 and 1995) and posters (since 1996) for projects presentation. For the disclosure of its activities, the association has an academic journal, Revista Brasileira de Educaçao[3] (http://www.anped.org.br/rbe/rbe/rbe.htm)

In the 1980's, the Working Groups (GT) were born as form of organization of the Association activities and also as the expression of the intense discussion movement around social and educational policies, marking the decade because of Brazil's political opening process after years under military rule (1964-85), which united political repression and press censorship. The GT got officialized mainly in 1985, like the GT-02 of History of Education, the GT-07 of Children Education in the Age Group of 0 to 6, among others. The GT-Curriculum (GT-12) emerged officially in 1986, under the coordination of Professor Dr. Ana Maria Saul, of Pontificia Universidade Católica de São Paulo (PUC-SP). In the last years, other GT were created to contemplate current debates and to consolidate new groups and research centers like, for example, the GT-19, entitled Mathematical Education, created in 1999 and the GT-21, denominated Education and Ethnic-Racial Relations, created in 2001, as follows in the Table 1.

Table 1: ANPEd´s Meetings and GT´s themes.

WORKING GROUPS	GT's TITLES	ANNUAL MEETINGS
GT02	História da Educação	
GT03	Movimentos Sociais e Educação	
GT04	Didática	
GT05	Estado e Política Educacional	
GT06	Educação Popular	
GT07	Educação de Crianças de 0 a 6 anos	
GT08	Formação de Professores	
GT09	Trabalho e Educação	
GT10	Alfabetização, leitura e escrita	
GT11	Política de Educação Superior	
GT12	Currículo	Themes until 26^a Meeting
GT13	Educação Fundamental	
GT14	Sociologia da Educação	
GT15	Educação Especial	
GT16	Educação e Comunicação	
GT17	Filosofia da Educação	
GT18	Educação de Pessoas Jovens e Adultas	
GT19	Educação Matemática	
GT20	Psicologia da Educação	
GT21	Educação e Relações Etnico-raciais	
GT22	Educação Ambiental	
GT23	Gênero, Sexualidade e Educação	Theme inserted since 27^a Meeting
GT24	Educação e Arte	Theme inserted since 32^a Meeting

In the research framework, we registered the spatial and institutional distribution of the papers presented in the GT-Curriculum, between 2003 and 2012, and the most recurrent themes, in order to, in addition to the systematic analysis, contribute to the delimitation of trends of research in this field in Brazil, once ANPEd holds the most important summit meeting in Education research of the country.

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[3] Brazilian Magazine of Education.

2   Motivation

Every time that a research begins, it emerge new questions and ideas that instigate the researcher to engage in new studies. It is exactly the way that this article begun. From the research conducted in the framework of Postgraduate Programs in Geography of UNESP, regarding the History of the Disciplines (Shimizu et al, 2013), it also emerged the need to study what has been produced in Curriculum area in Brazil.

Considering ANPEd as the major reference in the production and disclosure of knowledge in Education, the option was to make a survey of the presented papers in the GT-Curriculum, in the meetings held along the last ten years, in the period between 2003 and 2012. It's worth noting that the ANPEd meetings are held annually, generally in October.

Both the oral presentations and the posters presented in these anual meetings are available at the website (www.anped.org.br), which promotes the survey produced by researchers affiliated to different universities and centers, whom are dedicated to the study of aspects related to theme.

The initial idea of this project consisted in the analysis only of oral presentations. However, during the research, it was observed that, in the disclosed listings, only between 2003 and 2005, there were jointly exposition of oral and posters presentations. In this way, it was evident the importance to include, also, other posters which were presented separately in the listings between 2006 and 2012. This meant an increase of 52 projects to the initial 180 projects forecasted, that is, 165 oral projects and 67 posters, summing 232 projects, distributed according to the Table 2.

Table 2: Distribution of the presented papers, according to the Annual Meetings´ year, theme and city.

YEAR	MEETING	CITY	THEME	ORAL	POSTER	TOTAL
2003	26ª	Poços de Caldas (MG)	Novo Governo. NovasPolíticas?	13	3	16
2004	27ª	Caxambu (MG)	Sociedade, Democracia e Educação: qual universidade?	12	3	15
2005	28ª	Caxambu (MG)	40 Anos da Pós-Graduação em Educação no Brasil: produção de conhecimentos, poderes ou práticas	18	9	27
2006	29ª	Caxambu (MG)	Educação, Cultura e Conhecimento na Contemporaneidade: desafios e compromissos	11	6	17
2007	30ª	Caxambu (MG)	ANPED: 30 Anos de Pesquisa e Compromisso Social	15	8	23
2008	31ª	Caxambu (MG)	Constituição Brasileira, Direitos Humanos e Educação	17	8	25
2009	32ª	Caxambu (MG)	Sociedade, Cultura e Educação: novas regulações?	17	8	25
2010	33ª	Caxambu (MG)	Educação no Brasil: o balanço de uma década	18	9	27
2011	34ª	Natal (RN)	Educação e Justiça Social	29	10	39
2012	35ª	Porto de Galinhas (PE)	Educação, Cultura, Pesquisa e Projetos de Desenvolvimento: o Brasil do século XXI	15	3	18
			TOTAL	**165**	**67**	**232**

It's convenient to highlight that, in this survey, it's not included several projects which are usually integrated in the meetings as Commissioned Papers, which are produced especially for thematic GT, articles elaborated to round-tables or the ones for special sessions.

3   Research Process and Data Analysis

From the definition of which oral presentations and posters would be analyzed, all its abstracts were accessed in order to initially identify the teaching modality in which each research was focused, as follows: Higher, Secondary, Basic, Elementary and Children Education. Thus, it was possible to realize that, despite the permeability of the modalities among the majority of the papers, they weren't, necessarily, the main focus of many of them. Nevertheless, the papers that prioritized a specific modality were distributed as shown in the Graph 1.
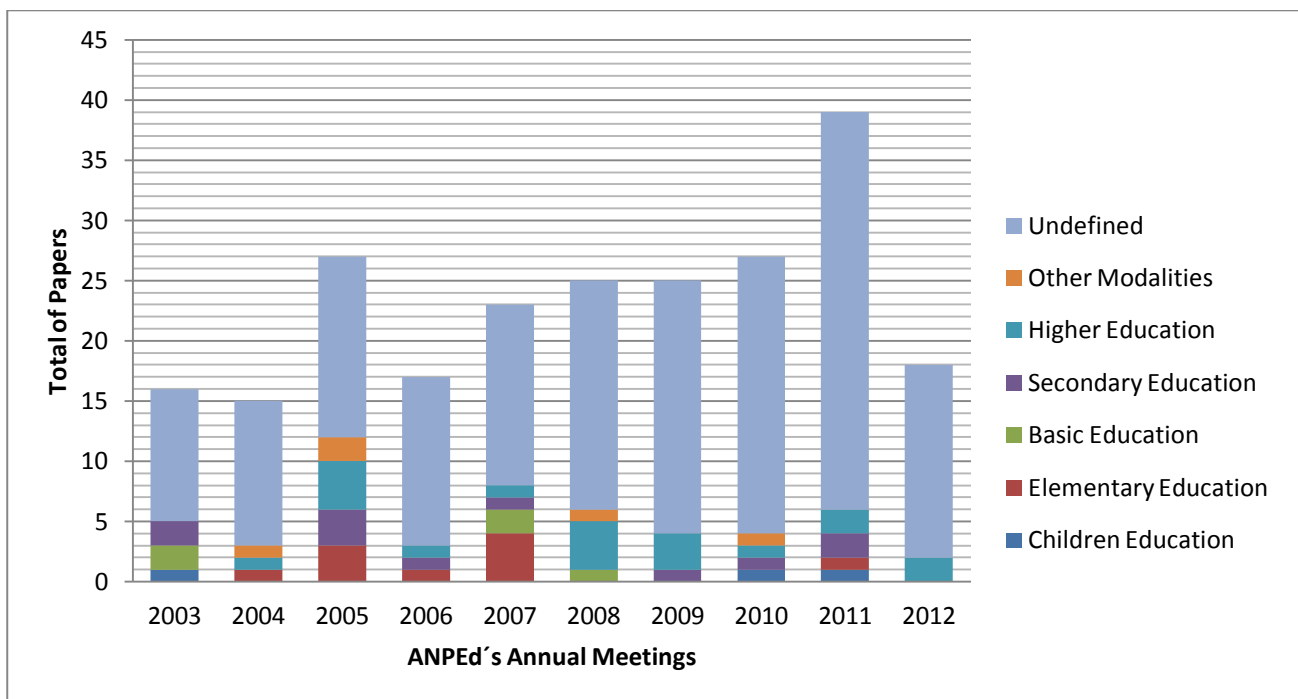
Graph 1: Distribution of the presented papers, according to the teaching modality

By analyzing the data, it was possible to observe that, along the ten years, 179 papers (77.16%) had not a specific teaching modality as the main focus of research, and it was grouped, in this case, under a category titled "Undefined". Among the remaining 53 papers (22.84%) it predominated the surveys referred to Higher Education (8.19%), Secondary Education (4.74%) and Elementary Education (4.31%), totaling 40 papers; while driven surveys to categories as Children Education (1.29%), Basic Education (2.16%) and Other Modality (2.16%), totaled 13 papers (5.61%). In "Other Modalities" category, were included projects regarding Youngsters and Adults Education (EJA), Indigenous Education and Prison Education.

The concentration of papers in the second biggest group, entitled "Higher Education", can be related to the fact of the event be organized by ANPEd, an Association which aims to promote and disseminate the development of graduate studies and research in Education, seeking to contribute to its consolidation and improvement, as well, to stimulate new experiences in the area (Art. 3º of ANPEd's Social Status). In this sense, the modality appeared in 9 out of 12 years of analysis

Related to "Elementary Education", the papers were concentrated in the period of 2004 to 2007 and in 2011, with just two articles. The modality entitled "Children Education" had occurrence of just one paper, published in 2003.

In 2005, it was observed a better distribution among the teaching modalities, although the "Undefined" category concentrated more than 50% of the projects, as happened in all annual meetings analyzed. In other hand, 2012 was the year that shown the lowest variation in modalities, being observed papers just under the "Undefined" category, besides the projects related to "Higher Education".

Another feature of 2012 was the decrease in the total number of papers in the GT, compared to the previous year. The 2011 meeting, which main theme was "Education and Social Justice", contemplated a larger number of projects in the GT-Curriculum, with 39 papers. By the need to strengthen the Postgraduate Programs in Education in the North and Northeast regions of Brazil, the 2011 meeting was held in the city of Natal (Northeast) after 18 consecutive years of meetings in Southeast region.

Continuing the analysis, the next stage had the objective of identifying the institutional origin of the papers, aiming to situate and define the profiles of the researchers and survey conducted. In this manner, it was made a compilation of the authors of all the projects, as well, of the institutional origins of each of them. It was possible to verify that

innumerous papers had more than an author, and for this reason, many of them presented registration of more than one institution. In its majority, around 72% had registration in a single institution.

It's important to highlight some particularities that influenced the categorization in this research. In some cases, there were authors who were registered in more than one institution, sometimes two public ones or one private and other public. For this reason, in order to classify them, there was an investigation over the author's information and its affiliations in the period, enabling the classification of the main affiliation in the paper. Thus, for example, a paper, in which the author got employment relations with a private institution, but at the same time was enrolled in the Postgraduate Program of a public institution, was classified as affiliated to the public institution, that is, to the institution which maintains the Program.

The paper's analysis shows that public institutions, federal and state, are responsible for 88% of the publications about curriculum studies and it also points out that only 10% of all the papers were developed in private higher education institutions. In all the GT's presented papers are still two projects developed by researchers linked to mixed institutions (private-public) and one international paper, that both added up, represents 2% of the total papers in the period.

It became evident that the paper's institutions of origin were mainly the public universities, federal and state. From this survey, a map was made, presented in the Figure 1, which distributed the papers according to the state of origin of the respective authors.
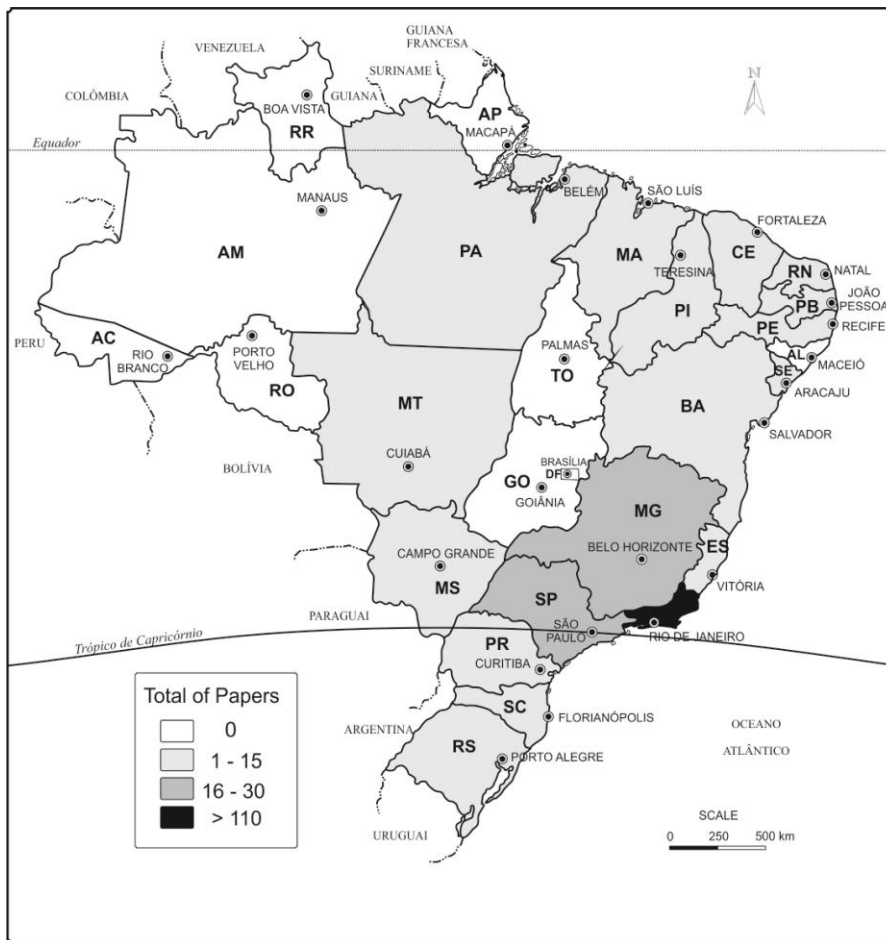
Figure 1: Distribution of presented papers, according to State of origin of the respective authors, in the period 2003-2012.

According to that observed in the map, eight Brazilian states (Acre, Alagoas, Amazonas, Amapá, Goiás, Rondônia, Roraima e Tocantins) didn't present any paper in the GT-Curriculum, within the last 10 years. On the other hand, the papers come mainly from the state of Rio de Janeiro, totaling 112 papers, which represents 45.9% of all the papers in the GT in the period.

Then, it appear the institutions of the state of Minas Gerais (9.43%) and São Paulo (9.02%), representing altogether 18.45% of the total. The 15 Brazilian states remaining account for 35.25% of the total presented in this GT. It's also convenient to highlight that, during the 10 years in question, there was just one foreign paper presented in this GT, affiliated to Universidad San Andrés - Argentina.

Given the concentration of papers from institutions of Rio de Janeiro's state, it's possible to suggest that this fact is due to the existence of research groups in this Education area, for example: (a) Núcleo de Estudos do Currículo (NEC), related to the Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro, which produces studies in Sociology and History of the Curriculum since 1992; (b) Grupo Cotidiano Escolar e Currículo, linked to Universidade do Estado do Rio de Janeiro, active since 1997; and (c) the existence of a line of research named "Curriculum: subjects, knowledge and culture" in the Universidade do Estado do Rio de Janeiro, which have been responsible for the disclosure of many researches in this field, be through thesis, dissertations and scientific publications, as by papers presentation in both national and international seminars.

In other hand, the second position in number of papers by the state of Minas Gerais can also be related to the fact that, eight out of ten Meetings in the period were held in that state.

Aiming to investigate the presented themes in the papers, that have as main focus Curriculum issues, in the analyzed period, at ANPEd's GT-12, themes contained in the documents were classified. In this way, the option was to organize the papers by grouping them in 11 categories accordingly the presented thematic, as shown by the Graph 2.
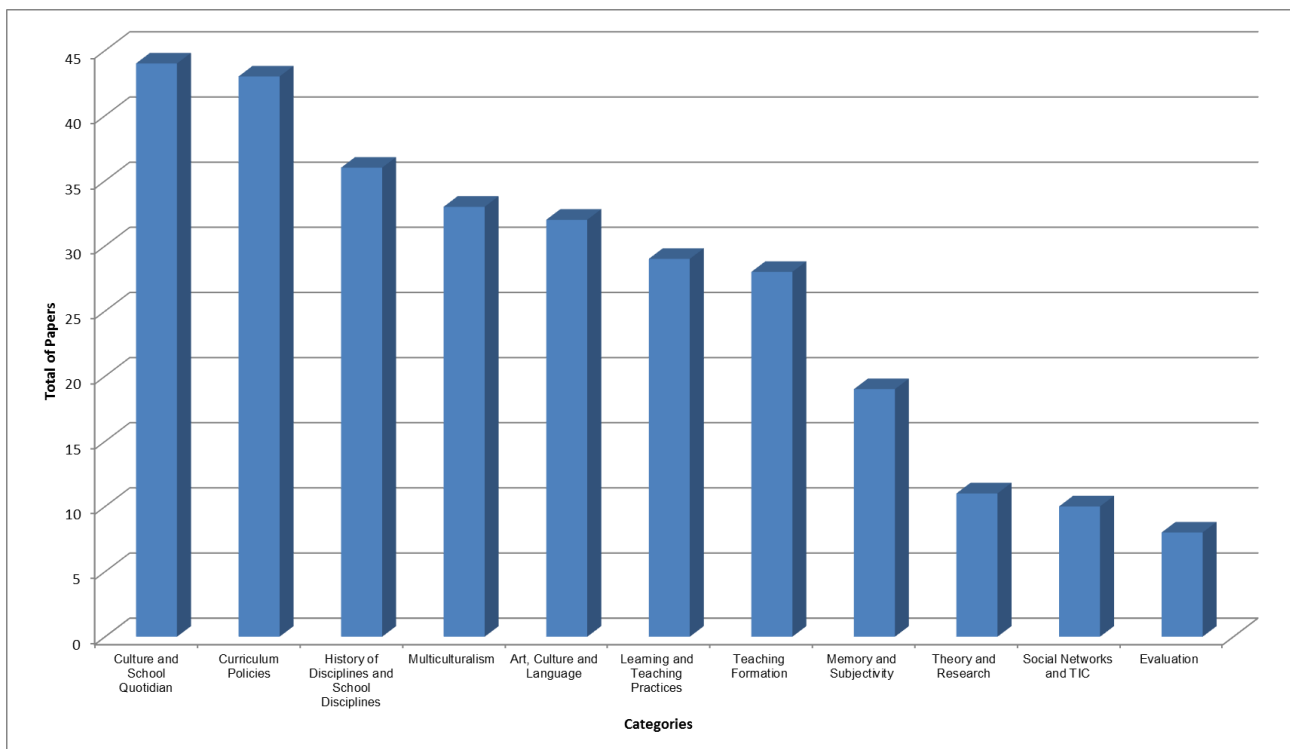
Graph 2: Distribution of presented papers, according to categories

The bibliographic revision indicated that, in papers of such nature, authors propose a general classification criterion, which contemplates both quantitative and qualitative aspects for the projects grouping.

By studying the papers of GT-History of Education presented in ANPEd, between 1985 and 2000, Catani & Faria Filho (2002) proposed the classification of the papers in seven thematic groups that concentrated 60% of the papers. In the "Others" category were listed 40% of the papers. According to the authors, the high number of papers in this group brings, at first, the difficulties of analyzing the thematic issues in the research undertaken in the papers.

In studies which aim to investigate how "Didactics" is approached in academic papers, Pimenta (2001) conducted a qualitative analysis of 69 papers submitted to the GT-Didactics between 1996 and 1999, proposing the distribution of themes in ten categories: Epistemology of Didactics; Theory of Didactics/pedagogical bases proposals; Didactics:

research and teaching; Educational theories and scholar contexts; Methodologies/communicational relations and teaching techniques; Pedagogical teaching practice in Educational polices contexts; Evaluation; Initial and continued teacher's training; Teaching and Learning; and, Balance of the researches in Science teaching.

In our research, the construction process of the thematic categories from the reading of the papers presented in the GT-Curriculum, consisted in a rich debate among the authors. In the extent that these papers have been analyzed, it was built theme categories, totaling the following amount of presented papers in the studied period:

- **Culture and School Quotidian (44 papers):** in this category, the papers presented didn't show a large variety of sub themes, that is, it was possible to identify three sub groups: school quotidian (36), school culture (7) and school organization (1). It's noteworthy the large occurrence of papers regarding school's quotidian, which indicates an epistemological trend in the study of the school's space and its high importance in the curriculum's configuration.

- **Curriculum Policies (43 papers):** it encompassed papers which approached the reflection over the implementation and the impacts of curriculum's policies and actions that arise from state's intervention. It constituted in papers about analysis of official documents about curriculum policies, as the Curriculum National Guidelines (DCN), the Curriculum National Parameters (PCN) and linkages between policy and social practice impacting over the curricular dimension of school institutions. In this category, it was also included papers about citizenship, democracy, ideology and "skills and competences" studied under the perspective of curriculum policies.

- **History of Disciplines and School Disciplines (36 papers):** focused the History of school disciplines, but also in papers which studied specific disciplines of curriculum. In this group, stood out the papers about Science and Biology teaching with the largest occurrence (7) and Physical Education (5). Other disciplines were also the focus of the surveys, as the ones related to the teaching of History, Philosophy, Physics, Chemistry and Geography. Papers regarding the analysis of didactic material, like didactics books, were included in this category because, in general, it analyzed the presented content in these didactics material, and the manner how it biased curricular practices in school disciplines.

- **Multiculturalism (33 papers):** the 17 papers that focused the multiculturalism in curriculum issues were presented with certain regularity among all the years of the analysis. The exception occurred back in 2007, when there was no occurrence of multiculturalism in the GT-Curriculum of that year. In this category were included papers regarding gender, ethnicity, cultural diversity, social movements and the ones which approached inclusion/exclusion issues. In 2008, occurred the largest concentration of papers in this category, which can be related to the main theme of the 31st meeting - Brazilian Constitution, Human Rights and Education.

- **Art, Culture and Language (32 papers):** in this category were included papers which presented reflections over curriculum in different teaching modalities, from the use of arts and its many languages, like photography, cinema, theatre, literature, poetry and music. In general, papers in this category made an approach about culture and its many expressions, such as the inclusion of visits to museums and the educational potencial through these activities, as well as discussions that value the different languages of artistic expressions present in curriculum practices.

- **Learning and Teaching Practices (29 papers):** it encompassed specific papers regarding the relation between curriculums and teaching practices, which totalled 18 papers. The remaining papers analyzed transdisciplinarity, integral teaching, learning, alphabetization programs and project practices.

- **Teaching Formation (28 papers):** papers that deal about curriculum production and its influence over the teaching formation and also regarding the articulation of the practices with the teaching formation's curriculum. Other working group in this category approached issues related, specifically, to the undergraduate curriculum in Pedagogy, which highlights the direct relations between the teaching formation and implications about the work to be developed by the pedagogues in its didactics practices.

- **Memory and Subjectivity (19 papers**): papers included in this category dealt with the subjectivity in curriculum issues, especially about discursive practices (10). In general, the analysis of teacher's discursive practices was used as research methodology over official curriculum proposals.

- **Theory and Research (11 papers):** some of the papers did specific studies about knowledge production, the epistemology and the research methodologies in Education. Overall, it was concentrated in the higher education modality, where there's a degree of formalization of the scientific production. Papers based on the

contributions of Paulo Freire and Dewey were identified. It's important to note that although these authors have been quoted in "Theory and Research" category, many other theoretical references were used in the GT papers, but they were not explicitly in this classification proposition.

- **Social Networks and TIC (10 papers):** the papers regarding informational networks appeared in GT from 2007 on, and this fact can be related to the increase and dissemination of technology usage in different learning modalities. With technological advance, the emergence of new resources adopted in schools and in teaching strategy's variation are demanding new perspectives to be incorporated in the curriculum structure, including the flexibility of learning environments, organization models of school institutions and evaluative practices.

- **Evaluation (8):** in this category it was observed a minor occurrence of papers along the years of 2003 to 2008 and the papers regarding external evaluation systems were grouped, like to the Sistema de Avaliação da Educação Básica (SAEB) and the Exame Nacional do Ensino Médio (ENEM), in addition to the topics related to learning evaluation (5). From 2009 on, there weren't registered papers regarding Evaluation in the GT-Curriculum, although this theme assumed great relevance in the educational public policy in Brazil in the last years with consequences to curricular practices.

4   Discussion over Results and Conclusions

It's not possible to point out the existence of only one thematic approach and of any theoretical monosemy in the 232 presented papers in GT-Curriculum at ANPEd in the analyzed period. However, it's possible to detect a great variety of referential, such as, an expressive diversity of themes among the papers. We could, though, state that mostly of the papers were about, above all, themes linked to the studies of school quotidian and such statement stems from the strong trend of quotidian studies in the Brazil´s Postgraduate Programs, and, in the midst of such studies, the presence of investigations which adopt qualitative methodologies. Such trends occur in the Education research field in Brazil since the 1980's. Another relevant fact to understand the expressively recurrence of school quotidian themes refers to the direct relation that the topic have with the main research lines, and of the research groups registered in the CNPq, of institutions of the state of Rio de Janeiro, region of affiliation of most of the authors of the GT in the period.

One of these groups, created in 1992 at the Education Faculty of the Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro, produces studies in Sociology and in History of Curriculum, focusing both in teacher's formation as in the curricular policies and the constitution processes of school knowledge, and the group is relevant because of the reach of its production and its areas of influence. It counts with professors that take part of the Postgraduate Program in Education, whose researches have been circulated through scientific publications and by the project's presentation at national and international congresses. The group's work is also contributing to the formation of new researchers and to monographs production, dissertations and thesis. As part of the outreach activities of the group's work, occur the exchange with Brazilian researchers, mainly with the ones from states of the middle-south region of the country. In addition to this, the group performs actions of development, teaching and extension, through the organization of events, projects coordination and archives preservation. It's also noteworthy, the consultancy activities, especially in what's related to the continued teaching's formation and to elaboration of curricular materials.

In Brazil, since the 1980's, the study of quotidian has been shown as a perspective of interpretation of the school context as it enable the building of non-documented histories, the possibility of registers which go beyond the official and already established data. These approaches are presented as the possibility of studies about practices in the interior of the institutions.

Writings of Gramsci, A. Heller, H. Lefebvre, Foucault, Derrida, Marx, Freud, Weber, Mannheim, Mauss, and specially works centered in historical perspectives, like R. Chartier, M. Pollak, M. Trebitsch, E.P. Thompson, have been serving as reference to studies of the quotidian.

Probably, answering the crisis of the traditional paradigms of research in Humanities in the Brazilian academic production, this instance of analysis, the school quotidian, is gaining upwardly valuation in the country since the second half of the 1980's, once that through this instance is possible to identify elements of political nature.

Arguing about the plot of the school quotidian, MATOS (1994) wrote:

> ... the most remarkably influence seems to be the discovery of the political in the quotidian framework, that took to the questioning about the transformation of society, the operation of the family, the role of disciplines and women, the emergence of quotidian facts and its gestures. Thus, the reborn of the

quotidian studies is linked to the redefinition of the political, in face to the displacement of the public institution's power in favor to the private sphere and quotidian, as a daily politization.

In the specific field of research in Education, the writings of Azanha (1994) indicate the importance of the study of the daily life and considers "the quotidianity is the fundamental human condition itself". As argues Azanha (1992):

> ... the study of the quotidian only will be interesting if it's possible to get from it, a constitutive effort of a science of the man. Criticizing what 'notwithstanding gives birth to a fad' and, often, falls in the registry of trivialities, the author claims that the importance of the quotidian life studies will just have any scientific value to the human knowledge if it treats the issues of possibility of access, from it, to the social in a wider level.

About the material analysis of this research, there is, for example, many papers addressing the social inequality and power relations in the Education and its relation with school quotidian. The papers whose themes surround this universe, however, present a diversity of theoretical perspectives, like the authors linked to critical theories, which employ contributions from the Frankfurt school of thought, and other authors affiliated to schools alike, or with post-structuralistic influences, which uses authors like Foucault, Derrida, Deleuze and others, as reference.

A relevant aspect observed in the 232 papers of this study is the understanding of the curriculum as a dimension of the school culture that, independently of the theoretical affiliations of the authors, implicitly or explicitly appears in the universe of documents analyzed by this study.

Thus, it's pertinent to make considerations regarding the curriculum, taken as cultural object. In such perspective, the curriculum represents a dimension of the school culture in the sense that the school produces an original culture which permeates a wider social culture, as states Chervel (1990) and Goodson (2008, 2007 and 1995). Taken as social construction, the curriculum also is comprehended as the result of a process through which a tradition is invented, as pointed in Goodson (1995), based on Hobsbawn (1997).

In the aspect of the categories establishedfor this paper, the category "School Quotidian", with 44 incidences, could have been more expressive yet. The same happens with the theme related to "Curriculum Policies", with 43 occurrences. Both categories could have been predominant in the papers without the specificities to be evident. For this reason, the option was to detail the themes, since all were about curriculum and its embeddedness with the school quotidian, with official policies, or none.

Therefore, we agree with the statement of Catani and Faria Filho (2002) in a study regarding the "GT-History of Education", from ANPEd, where the authors argue that the adoption of other criteria to the theme grouping could, undoubtly, be used, generating other categorizations different from those selected by the survey of authors and by this present research. In this case, it would allow further readings about the GT-Curriculum, which not invalidate the methodological procedures adopted in the development of our reflection. On the contrary, it reassures the needs of new studies that analyzes the research production in Education, for historical record of possible shifts in the core of the Postgraduate Programs and Higher Educational Institutions.

Regarding the themes selected for this survey, although it wasn't registered any paper related to TIC in the last year of the analysis, it's expected that it will be present in the next ANPEd meetings, once the increase of the technological usage is a phenomenon that incorporated major changes in the quotidian of students. The absence of this reflection in the GT-Curriculum can generate a gap between the developed studies in the Postgraduate Programs and the reality of Brazilian schools and the inexpressive presence of themes related to technologies or to strategies of systematic evaluation can, by other hand, indicate the need of community's engagement in curricular study, over this perspective.

An important data to be noted regards the difficulties found in the reading of the 232 papers presented in the GT-Curriculum in the period of analysis. Rare were the researches whose titles really meant something related to the paper's content. Such fact can denounce the difficulties of the authors to express the real content of the survey accomplished, a carelessness with the titles attribution to academic papers, or lack of knowledge of the importance and actual function of a title in the disclosure of the scientific paper. One hypothesis to this lack of quality in the enunciation of a title (not expressing the real content of the paper) can be attributed to the incapacity arising from the articulation of all faults considered above. The existence of one of the problems in title's enunciation, or the conjugation of all difficulties described, could come along to disqualify papers with unquestionable contributions and, regretfully, compromise the outreach of important studies in the area.

Our research comes to corroborate the statement of Moreira (2002) which points out that the Curriculum area is getting, in many countries, a significative diversity of themes and theoretical influences. Examining the functioning of

the GT-Curriculum, Moreira (2002) discusses the wider context of the ANPEd and the Postgraduate Programs polices, focusing the presented papers in the meetings held between 1996 and 2000. Thus, the author criticizes the growing number in the acceptance of selected papers and states that this fact are contributing to the "secondarization" of the debate about educational issues which needs attention in the area.

According to many observations pointed by Moreira (2002), different both in time and focus in face of this research, the 232 papers analyzed showed narrow relations with dissertations and theses submitted, or about to be submitted, in the Postgraduate Programs of the country. Regarding this observation, in our research, and as denounced in Moreira (2002), the author questions the effective relevance of the nature of this papers for the purposes of the ANPEd´s GT, once it puts in doubt the effective contribution of those documents to the advances in the pedagogic knowledge and the accomplishment of relevant researches, centered in the candent debate over Brazilian education. As points Moreira (2002), this trend got constituted in the late 1990's, differently of the origins of the papers presented in the GT-Curriculum.

Moreira (2002) makes critics to the development of the papers presented in the GT-Curriculum, also pointing the bureaucratization of the presentations, the increase and the rapidity in the exhibitions of them. The present research had not the objective of analyzing this fact; however, the 232 papers do have these trends indicated by the author. Mainly in reference to the fact that the papers are due to dissertations and theses, regarding that it also can be related to surveys from professors of the Postgraduate Programs themselves, the dispersion of themes, the lack of dialogue with studies from other pedagogic areas and with the ones at the same curriculum field, also expresses, more the application of ideas and theories than the proposition (even if incipient) of new ideas and theorizations. They tend, yet, to not develop critics to antagonic positions.

The field, in the Bourdieu´s perspective (1983), is a social world in which are inserted the agents and institutions that produces, reproduces or diffuses arts, literature and science. Regarding especially to the scientific field, the author argues that the structure of the objective relations between different agents guides the points-of-view, the scientific interventions, the means of publication and the objects to be investigated. This is the structure that will tell what can or cannot be done. It is, in synthesis, the positions occupied by these agents that will define their orientation. For this motive, analysis like the presented by Moreira (2002), Catani and Faria Filho (2002), Warde (1990; 1998) are considered extremely relevant, because they can contribute to the knowledge's advance, once they promote intersections, crossing and shocking different points-of-view and practice improvement, through the deepening of the current debate.

Beyond pointing out the important contribution to the systematic analysis of historical participations of the papers in the GT-Curriculum, our research observed the extreme need of participation of other pedagogic areas, as the ones related to Teaching Practices, Psychology in Education and Didactics, directly related to the school culture and, in its turn, to the curricular field. The presence of papers in these areas could strengthen the many fields and bring the essential political power to all the parts. Also, it would strengthen political discussions held in the core of the ANPEd and the many instances of the educational policy debate. This would be the benefit to Education and to public policy shifts in Brazil.

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Community Schooling In Honduras: An Imagined Conversation with Dewey, Freire and Pinar

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Abstract

In this paper we discuss community schooling as a potential response to ineffective public and private education in Honduras. We present a case of one rural community school in Honduras and highlight strengths of the school and address dilemmas. We discuss four key principles that unite community schools in purpose: perpetuating community values, meeting basic and long term community needs, and allowing involvement of the community in the planning of programs and goals of community development (Rodriguez, 2012). Findings are based on interviews and observations from 2 school teachers, 1 school founder and 4 members of the community whose responses were analysed through an enacted dialogue between one of the authors and educational philosophers Paulo Freire and John Dewey and curriculum specialist William Pinar. Through a multicultural and cross-cultural narrative inquiry methodological framework (Phillion, 2008), we worked within the theoretical framework of Critical Pedagogy developed by Paulo Freire (2003) and John Dewey's (1938) notion of experience and education for a deeper understanding of the ideological and educational experiences of working, teaching, learning and being part of a community school. Our intent is to work towards an answer to the unsuccessful public schooling of developing countries by discovering if grassroot community schools could be the new form of successful and effective schooling.

Keywords: community schooling; Honduras; curriculum.

1. Introduction

Poverty and illiteracy are global issues. In many areas of the world, grassroots community schools have been developed to address these issues (Farrell, 2008). A lack of education perpetuates poverty, and in turn poverty leads to a lack of education. There are many problems in Honduras, as there are in other developing countries, but from our review of the literature and experience with and as a Honduran teacher and teacher educator, we believe grassroots community schools provide the beginning of an answer to problems in the educational system. As researchers we explored options for Honduras; one particularly important option was grassroots community schools. In this paper, we focus on grassroots community schools, specifically Esperanza (Hope) School in Honduras and the possibilities it created for equality in education. It was our intent through this research journey to discover the advantages and disadvantages of programs such as the one we were exposed to in Esperanza School and to see if they could work in other places in Honduras.

1.1. Methodological Framework

We used multicultural cross-cultural narrative inquiry to position ourselves as inquirers with participants as equal inquirers (Phillion & He, 2008). This created an equitable environment for us and our participants to negotiate meanings of the participants' lived experiences. Over a period of three years (part of a longer–term 12 year study) we immersed ourselves in their experiences, actions, and feelings through interviews, informal conversations and off-site activities, which allowed us to enter their inner understandings. We used a critical framework for analysis of the resulting field texts and represented findings in a variety of ways including the imaginary dialogue discussed below.

2. Honduran Facts

Honduras depends economically and politically on the USA and therefore is forced to comply with its demands. Honduras, the third poorest country in the Americas, behind Haiti and Nicaragua, has an unequal distribution of income and high unemployment (UNDP, 2009). With a population of 8 million, Honduras has struggled to meet the

needs of its citizens. Half its people live in cities and the other half in rural areas. The labor force is divided as follows: 39% government services, 39% in agriculture, and 20% in industry (CIA, 2009). The economy relies primarily on exports of bananas and coffee; its natural resources are timber, minerals, coal, and fish (USAID, 2010). The yearly average salary in Honduras is $1600; around 50 percent of households are living in poverty, and 30 percent in extreme poverty (World Bank, 2009). The lack of appropriate schooling in Honduras has immobilized the future of Honduras and the Honduran people. Raising the literacy rate and decreasing the drop-out rate would help alleviate this poverty; this can best be achieved by providing all Hondurans with a better quality education.

2.1. Education in Honduras

The Honduran educational system is composed of public and private schools regulated by the Ministry of Education. Public schooling is informally referred to as the "free education system," and the private system is labeled the "expensive education system." Both systems follow a standard curriculum, which was established in the 1990s (Currículo Nacional Básico), have year-long objectives and are mandated to fulfil the same plan of study. In the public education system, Hondurans are entitled to receive free tuition, books and one meal during the school day. The public school system, however, is not able to provide these commodities. In addition, public school teachers are underpaid, and, over the last several years, teachers have frequently been on strike, which closes schools and deprives children of an education. Teachers are responsible for classes of 60-100 students. There are often no supplies or furniture. The government is failing the public school system, which in turn is failing the community it serves. On the other hand, the private school system provides secure instruction (all mandated school days are followed) and English immersion at the cost of $200 a month. Only a minimal part of the population (exact figures are unavailable) is privileged enough to access this type of schooling (World Bank, 2009).

2.2. Esperanza School

Esperanza School, the focal school of our study, provides K-6th grade instruction and has a 98% graduation rate (Esperanza School, 2010). Forty percent of students attend on a scholarship; the remainder pay on a sliding scale with some paying full fees of $2,500 per year. The school provides an English language immersion program, which enables students to become fluent in English and Spanish. The school follows a student-centered approach to teaching and learning. With a maximum of 15-18 students per class, teachers establish a learning environment conducive to meeting the needs of each student.

3. Community School Principles

A grassroots community school, such as Esperanza School, is both a "place and a set of partnerships between school and community" (Lee & Smith, 1995, p. 25), with an "integrated focus on academics, youth development, family support, health and social services, and community development" (Dove, 1982, p. 37). Its curriculum emphasizes real-world learning through community problem solving and service. The literature shows that students in these schools make more progress toward completing their school years without dropping out (McMullan, Sipe, & Wolf, 1994; Pittman & Haughwout, 1987). These new forms of schooling, curriculum or ways of dealing with the community seem to provide better opportunities for students to respond to the educational system. From an extensive review of the literature we have determined that the unifying principles of successful grassroots community schools are: perpetuate community values, meet community needs, involve the community in the planning of programs, and foster community development.

4. Dilemmas

Although Esperanza School seems to meet the four key principles of successful community schools there were still several dilemmas we encountered. To explore our findings and dilemmas below we enact a dialogue in which we discuss Paulo Freire's, John Dewey's and William Pinar's theories. Freire's (1973) notions of liberation, dialogue, empowerment and conscientization and Dewey's (1938) notions of education, democracy, experience and instruction were compatible with our personal beliefs about education and useful in this study. William Pinar's (1995) notion of understanding curriculum led into an explanation of the deep meanings curriculum discourse exposes students and communities to.

4.1. Dialogue- John Dewey, Paulo Freire, William Pinar and Eloisa Rodriguez

Eloisa: Paulo, John, and Bill, throughout this research, you have learned about Esperanza School and our interest in community schools as a possible solution for problems in the Honduran education system. Part of what liberatory education entails is for people to be critical about their educational reality. In Esperanza School, the employees, parents and the community are content with what the school has to offer and do not seem to question any of the school's practices. What do you think about education in Esperanza School knowing that there is a dominant culture, the U.S., that imposes language, curriculum and pedagogy on this small school and no one mentions it as a concern?

John: This school reaches out to the community and believes that knowing the family and family history of the children in the school will enhance their understanding of where these children are coming from and therefore provide insight into the ways they can learn.

Eloisa: In other words, the school has focused only on the mission of providing quality education to the community but has forgotten about what that means in terms of their political, economic and social reality?

Paulo: I am wondering what good it is for an impoverished family to have their children become bilingual but have no means to continue their education, get better jobs or simply practice the English language learned.

John: In terms of an educational ideology, Esperanza School has good intentions. The school was developed to follow democratic principles of equality and education for all the community. Also, I was impressed by the commitment of the teachers and the principal; the atmosphere in the school tends to create strong expectations for its teachers and students, and it represents human connections bridging the community with the school.

Bill: In your work, Eloisa, you describe people who spend their time in the rural area and who work on their lands and crops. Their realities must be different than those in the cities such as a US curriculum might focus on. I wonder if a new kind of curriculum, a curriculum directed to the specific interests of the local rural community in the area would be best for Esperanza School and what would it represent to the community. I am sure Paulo would agree that this is missing.

Eloisa: Esperanza School's curriculum does not include enough about Honduras and follows a US American curriculum and uses US American textbooks. Paulo, what do you think? How would you deal with this issue?

Paulo: You seem to believe that education is practiced only in the classroom. What about the opportunity to learn about the world, their cultural reality, or their own country? I propose a radical question for Esperanza School: What makes you believe that rural communities in Honduras would want to be educated in a bilingual system?

John: In terms of the English language, your work told us the story of the evolution of curriculum in Esperanza School, their struggle for accreditation and how it is seen as the route to success. This school transformed from a fully Spanish language school to earning accreditation from SACS (Southern Association of Colleges and Schools). Why is it so important for a school like Esperanza School to be accredited?

Eloisa: There is a delicate balance between wanting the accreditation (reasons stated in my participants' interviews) and having standardized questions in yearly tests the students in Esperanza School have to abide by because of the SACS accreditation. It is troubling that the school is using American textbooks that mention dollars and not lempiras (Honduran currency); with examples of snowmen and snowflakes in a warm country that sees only a rainy and a dry season. It is also troubling to see that most of the school's personnel are from the US and continuously fill the students' minds with possibilities of one day going to the United States. It seems to me as though we are living someone else's reality and are filling these children with false hopes.

Bill: Let us backtrack a little bit. What if Esperanza School could function as a genuine community school and more branches like it could exist in Honduras? We have examples of these ideas in Columbia and Mexico. It could be a model for what private education could be like without the price tag attached to it.

John: Bill, I think you have a great idea that can be developed again at a political level. I have always believed that society can change through education, as it is a means for social change.

Eloisa: I am still concerned about Esperanza School and what it brings to the community. On a superficial level, I can see how the school has created a sense of community and involved parents to be active members of the community. But Paulo recommends problem posing and dialogic educational practices as the pillars to attain liberation, dialogue, empowerment and conscientization. I do not see that happening in Esperanza School. Is imposing bilingual education a form of oppression?

Paulo: I can see the issue around bilingual education is an on-going dilemma you have, Eloisa. In my opinion, Esperanza School, although with a mission of, for, and by the community, is still a work in progress, one that is in the process of becoming a genuine community school. A community school foresees the needs of all the community members and strives to attain them. Esperanza School concentrated on the needs of four families who started the school and allowed the Agricultural College to exercise dominance over their decisions because of land and funding needs. A community school would have figured out how to be sustainable so that the community interests would not have been compromised.

John: From my philosophical principles' perspective, I have to say that Esperanza School is a unique model that deserves recognition. I believe it is the purpose of education to discover the aptitudes of the individuals and train them for social use, to fit in society, and to create the kind of citizen a country needs (Dewey, 1916). Esperanza School teachers do this and much more with their students. In my laboratory school, we developed the power of inquiry in my students, and the role of reflection was to construct meaning (Dewey, 1916). I see Esperanza School students being curious about the world and about what they are learning. They reflect upon their acquired knowledge and start to reflect on what they have learned in school. Maybe Esperanza School is not asking students to reflect on their position on the economic ladder or the Honduran political system and what powerful countries are taking from Honduran resources and their sweatshops, but I do not think any school in Honduras does that, and I even wonder if the community schools in the movement do that.

Bill: I have to agree with both Paulo and John on this statement—Esperanza School is not a community school that makes the community reflect upon their reality but one that is concerned with exposing the community to a world of possibilities through language and equality. I wonder then what the curriculum discourse around Esperanza School is. Is it offering a hidden curriculum that makes the community believe the English language is superior?

Paulo: That is precisely what I wanted from schools—to suggest the awakening of critical consciousness through dialogue (Freire, 1973). But if instead schools continue to create masses who believe the world is a perfect place as is, then how can we make it better?

Bill: Democracy and education; liberation and dialogue, although interconnected, I think are very different in course of action and curriculum. So, it seems some schools including Esperanza School follow a model of democratic education but fail to comply with dialogic practices.

John: As you know, dualisms have been part of my philosophy. Why do we have to choose whether a school can teach individuals how to be part of a society or how to be critical of the world that surrounds them? Can both ideas not be taught at the same time?

Bill: That is the piece that is missing. I have discussed curriculum being a political, social, and a racial text (Pinar, 1995). In ways, I see my ideas as similar to Paulo's, I want students to react to my own writing by analysing ways in which curriculum discourse has been used as a powerful element of domination for many societies. I want students who will read the newspapers, articles or any reading that will affect their lives and have something to say about it. Not to just read and accept what is happening such as In Paulo's banking concept of education but instead become students who will take a stand to defend their rights and work towards their ideals.

Paulo, John and Bill, I want to thank you for your time, and I appreciate your thoughtful input over these themes. This dialogue also made me realize there is no one way of transforming Honduran education or any country's education for that matter. Change is a continuous process that needs to be planted in people's minds over the years.

5. Conclusion

Working with a grassroots community school for twelve years has taught us about what happens in a school like Esperanza School. We have seen the growth opportunities teachers and students have had and hope that this growth will eventually impact the country. Therefore, the exposure of Esperanza School's practices to the Ministry of Education in Honduras, or simply to other teachers in the area, will create an opportunity for an educational system that has been victimized by corruption and malpractice.

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Curriculum and Power

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Abstract

School has been an active force in legitimizing the dominant ideology and does it in name of the work market. School, through curricula, has functioned as a company. It was this enterprise concept that lead to the conception of objectives that are more interested in efficiency of a functional economy than in critical thinking. This way, the economy replaces the democratic ideal in the cultural and educational policies. This way the curriculum is seen as an unimportant technical issue and the objectives of education are based on the professional demands.

In this light, the organization of the curriculum is based on a moulding process that is highly instructive and final. Creativity and abstract capacity are considered useless because they are not considered measurable behaviour that can be precisely defined and established. It is obvious that the technocratic model does not include the humanistic and critical perspective of education.

Keywords: Curriculum, Control, Ideology, Social Reproduction, Power

Curriculum and Power

Curriculum is a value. This is my first assertion. And because it is a value, it is an ethical issue. But this value then becomes an aim, for education moulds the mind in a way that enables one to build one's worlds. Furthermore, it is essential in building the real conceptions people have of themselves and their abilities. In this light, education produces (reproduces?) knowledge. One's participation in a social context implies that one has instruction (which does not necessarily mean one is educated) and it is that same context that teaches us how to learn, speak, imagine, etc.

Reflexive thinking was withdrawn from mercantile thinking. In other words, it seems like cultural production had become similar to industrial production. Our culture is established according to the criteria of the political economy, i.e. Culture seems to be at the service of state investment. It is easy to see that the division applied to industrial work is exactly the same as that applied to scientific work and, consequently, the same method is used in the distribution of academic subjects in educational institutions.

We have a specialized culture; possibly even an erudite one, but lacking a philosophical outlook on the whole. The vulgarization, mediocrity and degradation of thought, or in other words, the lack of a true education, is caused by an educational culture that has abandoned the teaching of philosophical reflection. Culture and pedagogic activities have become the responsibility of the state, or the economy and in that way become a utilitarian culture that educates the society to be conformist and submissive at the service of professional opportunisms.

Education is determined by nature and cannot be seen as separate from it. Yet, education is not about extension and amplification and least of all should be reduced to a simple function. When extension and amplification are mentioned, erroneously we intentionally create a greater number of *ordinary men* that see happiness as a utility and that associate education with production and market demands.

Educational systems should reanalyse their policies in order to establish what the participations of companies can teach to motivate students and promote / create a new perspective in schools or educational institutions. (…) At times, the messages that most children receive during their education/schooling do not focus on corporative spirit, and children are less encouraged to create their own companies, as a possible alternative to being employed by another[1].

This means intelligence is at the service of property and profit. The state, pretending to solve social issues, intervenes in the worst possible way in education by cultivating intellectual barbarity. In addition, by reducing education to a useful and functional instrument and promoting a specialist culture, the state is activating a convenient obedience and a certain division at work. The specialist seems to be the factory worker, distant and alienated from an authentic culture. He produces a pseudo-culture that contributes to the advent of a non-culture.

When education is moved by a utilitarian spirit, it does not expand because it is partial. Being an educator is not a fixed position, an occupation or a career cantered on compulsory, extensive and universal appreciations. A genuine education demands a holistic view and can only be provided by a critical spirit, per se, a philosophical one, which implies an affectionate and empirical relationship that brings together and unites the master and the disciple.

In fact, autonomy is given to the student, but it is purely institutional, this means that school does not really promote individual freedom. It only gives the student the illusion of liberty because the specialist guidance aims at keeping him/her in that field. This new man[2] is, therefore, on his own.

The last people to be affected by this emancipation process were the children and it was seen as true liberation by working men and women as (…) but was, actually, an abandonment and treason for children that are still in the phase where survival and growing up is more important than the building of the personality.

(…) the fact that these youngsters are introduced into a world of constant change. People that refuse to take on the responsibility of this world shouldn't have children nor shouldn't be allow to participate in their education[3].

The effect of this education is to keep men immature, ignorant and indifferent. In fact, a uniform, utilitarian and integrating[4] education is mediocre because there is a very thin line between erudite and futile, scientism and publicity and aims only to educate people to serve in the present moment.

The impoverishment of education and, consequently, knowledge is caused by the worshippers of the present, who are obedient slaves of practical and functional demands. The mission of education is being compromised by the personal experience of each one of us and the incentive given by the masters, for

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[1] Report from the European Council of Education, 2000, *The concrete objectives of the educational systems* - Lisbon Summit

[2] **(…) the appearance of a New Man, able and willing to perform his role in modern society, who is prepared and able to judge all the problems that are inherent to the life of the community to which he belongs, satisfied with his position because he is conscientious of the inherent dignity and the social need of his work (…) then what remains to bother us? (…) the fact that we have obtained what was promised and we wanted and the fact that, even with all this, we are still not entirely satisfied with the results-**WEIL,E., *"A Educação Enquanto Problema do Nosso Tempo"* (Education a current problem) in POMBO 8org). *Quatro Textos Excêntricos* (Four Eccentric Texts) , pp.55,58 and 61

[3] ARENDT, H., " A crise na Educação"(The Education Crises) in idem, op.cit.,pp41 and 43

[4] **Integration is always the confirmation of the dominant identity. Integration could be included in an associative process where there is accommodation (where one wants to facilitate one's integration in the group and makes a series of and concessions) and /or assimilation (when social integration requires a complete alteration of one's previous lifestyle. Within the associative process of socialisation there is still cooperation where each individual maintains one's own characteristics (for example manifestations of solidarity).**

education as a transmitter of knowledge cannot be reduced nor confused with learning, nor the commodity of a specialized discipline and least of all with the mediocrity of language.

School curricula should include creative and critical thinking. In the pedagogic process authority (not to be confused with authoritarianism) should be promoted in order to cultivate men through reason and thinking directly articulated with experience and culture. In this situation, availability and enthusiasm are vital from both parties, i.e. will and diligence must come from both the teacher and the student.

Having a noble spirit is not, and cannot be, the responsibility of the state or the market. The state can only guarantee maximum freedom and autonomy which are essential in producing thought. Education based on knowledge is not supplied by the educational institutions because they are so immersed in training professionals, technicians and ideologists who compete for a vacancy in the market. Education is only possible for someone who wants to free oneself, for education aims to free modern man from the curse of modernity.

Ideology is a false consciousness that distorts social reality and serves the interests of dominant groups. It builds meaning in accordance to political, economic and social conveniences. Its justification is legitimized by (passive) social acceptance. It is during power disputes that speech loses its liberating component to take on a commutative dimension. This means, the word is the instrument that aims to strengthen and establish agreement between social partners. It is the concealment of ideas in practical principles. The power of persuasion becomes greater than the power of criticism and valued in a field of action whereas ideology is placed in a field of dominion.

This dominion *refers to an organized group of meanings and practices, to a system of central, effective and dominant, values and experienced actions.(…) Schools, (…) do not only "process people" , but also "process knowledge". They act as agents of cultural and ideological dominions, (…), as agents of a selective tradition and cultural 'incorporation[5]'.***5**

Education and the way it is structured in the distribution of knowledge and meaning, guarantee the social and cultural control of a certain society. How? By producing and reproducing conscience. It appears concealed in social relationships that occur in the classroom. This means that school is, in fact, an ideological device of the state[6].

(…) there is an ideological device of the state that undoubtedly has a dominant role; even though one does not always pay attention to it for it is silent. We are talking about school[7].7

Ideology guarantees a precarious harmony where expectations are confirmed by the practices. Efficiency replaces debate and teaching is supposedly neutral, because the results do not depend on the teacher and the school structure, but on the students. This belief separates man from his capacity to give his own life meaning. The individual is now deteriorating in a collective obligation that hinders one from exploring social order. It is this blindness of consciousness that contributes to dominant power. It seems, however, that ideology turns into a sort of violence silenced by alienation.

In this light, the ideological device of the state has to be restrictive, because by exerting a concealed violence on individuals, it promotes injustice and consequently inequality. **What distinguishes the IDS (Ideological Device of the State) from the Restrictive Device of the State is essentially the following: the Restrictive Device of the State "functions with violence" while the ideological devices of the state functions "based on ideology". (…) In fact, it can be said that any state device, be it restrictive or ideological, "functions simultaneously with violence and ideology, but with a very important difference that impedes that the ideological device and the restrictive devices of state are confused.**

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[5] *APPLE, M., Ideologia e Currículo (Ideology and Curriculum), pp. 27-28*

[6] **Ideological devices of the State refer to a certain number of realities referring to distinct and specialized institutions that appear before the immediate observer.** Althusser, l., *ideologia e aparelhos do Estado* (State Ideologies and Devices), p. 43

[7] Idem, op. cit. p.64

In fact, the restrictive device works mostly and massively with repression (physical included) , even though it also works, secondarily, with ideology.

(…) it should be said that, most ideological devices of the state work mostly and massively with ideology, even though they too function with repression, even though limited(…) and rather slight, concealed or even symbolic (…) this way schools and churches "educate" using methods common in sanctions, exclusions, selection, etc. not only with their officials , but also their followers[8]. The actual concept of efficiency is already a form of violence.

(…)the resistance to the historical feeling of individuals that are in favour of the values of the private societies: in a private society which is not purely rational, the individuals should not be totally calculative, if they were, they would not work, and above all would not sacrifice themselves for the survival of their own particular society-community, and could even reject the principles of efficiency. Social education should not only take into account the historical desires of the community members, but should also keep these values alive – and simultaneously promote maximum rational efficiency[9].

This external (to the society) violence is the struggle of an organized group. The division of social work is precisely the understanding that an individual's worth is nothing more than his strength/ availability to work.

School has been an active force in legitimizing the dominant ideology and does it in name of the work market. School, through curricula, has functioned as a company. It was this enterprise concept that lead to the conception of objectives that are more interested in efficiency of a functional economy than in critical thinking. This way, the economy replaces the democratic ideal in the cultural and educational policies. This way the curriculum is seen as an unimportant technical issue and the objectives of education are based on the professional demands.

In this light, the organization of the curriculum is based on a moulding process that is highly instructive and final. Creativity and abstract capacity are considered useless because they are not considered measurable behaviour that can be precisely defined and established. It is obvious that the technocratic model does not include the humanistic and critical perspective of education. The reason is clear: theoretical understanding is difficult to quantify.

Finding meaning is possible due to education, and the affirmation of that possibility is the educator's role who has to be demanding and responsible. (**…) thinking should have a meaning and not be only something with a commercial value. (…) a negative education is one that not only fails to show where the meaning is, but also where it cannot be[10]. 10**

Business pedagogics only expects education to provide a bigger production, that is, more profit and more happiness; it implies that educating for a market culture allows earnings and these can buy happiness. The state has its responsibilities here: it teaches to fit in, that is, it intends to integrate students by supplying them with an adequate learning and an official profession, thus generating conformism in them.

The division of scientific work resulted in the rupture between knowledge and civilization, yet only education can insert knowledge in life. Schools seem to have lost the purpose of education that is committed to culture. It is not about teaching well-educated people, specialists or people working in culture, but about a greater demand: education that seeks to liberate from the constraints of modernity.

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[8] Idem, op.cit. pp.46-47

[9] WEIL, E., *Filosofia Política (Political Philosophy) p.106*

[10] WEIL, E., *"A Educação Enquanto Problema do Nosso Tempo"* (Education a current problema) in POMBO O. (org). *Quatro Textos Excêntricos* (Four Eccentric Texts, pp.67)

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The ethnography of education as a new path for curriculum studies

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Abstract

This paper aims at reflecting on the ethnography of education as a methodology of curriculum research, taking into account the evolution of the theoretical perspectives of curriculum, which are now far away from the simplistic and supposedly scientific vision embodied in the didactics as "science" of teaching, which characterized the early years of this field.

In fact, if the critical and post-critical curriculum analysis had the power to alert us to another (underground) world, where power relations play an important role, a consequently conscious curriculum practice does require an ethnographic attitude, without preconceptions, thus allowing us to understand the social, cultural, historical, political and anthropological reality of the subjects involved in schooling, from their own standpoint. This ethno-vision will allow us to get access to a whole set of "non-sacred knowledge" of common people that populate the school without being considered minor or illegitimate, for the construction of their identities.

This demands from the curriculum researcher an immersion in the field, in order to apprehend the other's culture as if he were a real native. One thing is to face the curriculum as a political and pedagogical proposal at the level of intentions, thus involving a macro analysis of educational policy; another thing is to look at the curriculum, in a micro approach, entering deep inside the world of the learners, while phenomenological subjects, with their own histories, own backgrounds and own cultural references, that is to say, to look at the curriculum as a practice of social construction of identities

It is at this point of micro curricular approach that, in my opinion, the ethnography of education could be a great help for curriculum research.

Keywords: curriculum studies; ethnography of education; teacher's professionalism.

Introduction

Since the creation of the Research Centre in Education at the University of Madeira, in 2003, the ethnography of education has been faced as an overarching research line, with great probability of being present in the other three fundamental lines of the Center, each one ruling its own post-graduate programs: Curriculum, Pedagogical Innovation and Leadership and Educational Administration.

Thinking about education as a social, cultural, historical, political and anthropological reality, we were already aware at that time of the fact that a real understanding of what is going on in education demands an almost complete immersion in the field. Probably due to the francophone worldview acquired from a PhD done at the University of Caen in 1995, when the phenomenology, the researcher's implication, the social representations and the paradigm of the complexity were object of intensive debates, my affiliation both to Alain Coulon and his ethnomethodology, and to Georges Lapassade and Patrick Boumard and their ethnography of education occurred as a natural process. In fact, soon after my thesis defence, I participated in the creation of an embryo of the Société Européenne de l'Ethnographie de l'Education in Paris in December 1997, with the presence of Lapassade, who became its Honorary President, at the 1st SEEE Meeting in Lecce, Italy, until he died in 2008.

On the other hand, the Anglo-Saxon methodological approaches were originally brought to the CIE-UMa by Carlos Nogueira Fino. He let us know namely American authors like James Spradley, Michael Genzuk, Martyn Hammersley, and others who had inspired him in his PhD defended at the University of Lisbon.

The enlargement of this field, by sharing these two views, was further enhanced by the contribution of others as Peter Woods and Bob Jeffrey, from the UK, Fernando Sabirón Sierra, from Spain, Roberto Sidnei Macedo with his Ethno-

research, from Brazil, and some others working in this area for so many years in Latin America, as Justa Ezpeleta, Elsie Rockwell and others more.

As I am currently leading the research line of Curriculum, with a Masters in Pedagogical Supervision and a PhD in Curriculum, I have been confronted with methodological doubts and concerns raised by our young researchers at the time of designing the research project (usually at the beginning of the second year of one or other program). And the ethnographic approach has emerged, with increasing incidence, as a methodological option for our students who are either educators or teachers. Why does this happen? Is it because it is in fashion? Or is it due to its relevance in the field of educational research? Why is it necessary a permanent dialogue between the scientific area of Curriculum and the Ethnography of Education?

In order to answer these questions I organized this paper in three parts. Facing it as a three-act play I structured the paper in three acts. In Act I the protagonist is the Curriculum. In Act II the main character (the Curriculum) encounters what may be considered an obstacle or a facilitator: the Ethnography of Education. Finally in Act III the climax occurs with the equilibrium resettled through the marriage of Curriculum and the Ethnography of Education.

Act I: Curriculum

Curriculum exists since man imagined an institution of education, be it a university, a (Jesuits) college, or a school. It was necessary to choose which subject-matters to teach in formal education: *trivium* and *quadrivium*, letters and science, mother tongue and foreign language, biology, physics and chemistry, history and geography, in short, a syllabus consisting of knowledge to teach. For centuries, the curriculum was seen as an organized repository of contents (subjects, topics) to be forwarded to younger generations. At the romantic transition of 19th to 20th century, under the auspices of the New School movement, what mattered was the way of learning, that is to say, the methods, and not the subjects themselves. Later the objectives and the evaluation were the two other elements necessary to configure the technological model (the Rationale Tyler) which characterized the industrial public school.

If the universal access to education began to be faced as a way of liberation of the individual from the darkness of ignorance in which he was sunk (Age of Reason and Enlightenment, *Aufklärung*), homogeneous mass schooling quickly revealed itself as a very powerful means of minds' domestication, discipline of attitudes and behaviors (such as punctuality, for example, whatever the weather, sun shining or rain, which was not so easy to be accepted by those who were used to working in the fields according to seasonal and weather conditions). These attitudes were necessary to greater productivity in factories: a maximum efficacy with higher profit margins, and a minimum of time and cost. The technical rationality that pervaded the labor world, in the context of the Industrial Revolution, would early arrive at school, with a special focus in the so-called means-ends relation.

It is at this stage that the curriculum began to assert itself as an area of study and research, caring about the best arrangement of didactic-pedagogical devices to achieve the predetermined aims, goals and objectives, carefully divided into specific and behavioral objectives assuming that the whole would be achieved by the sum of the parts.

The Curriculum was then mistaken with Didactics, in conformity with a simplistic and a cause-effect deterministic paradigm. Taking care of the cause (teaching) the effect (learning) would appear. A "good" educational organization, named as curriculum-as-plan by Aoki (1986), with clear and measurable objectives and well-defined steps should produce the same effects in learners, whenever or wherever they were. This idea of timelessness and universality of the rules of good teaching was associated to mass schooling, aiming at the homogenization. The curriculum was supposed to expand "from the center to the periphery". The "center" idealized what had to be accomplished by the "periphery". And the teacher as part of the "periphery" was the implementer of the guidelines issued by the "center". So he had to be a good educational technician, but just that, a technician. Many of us were trained for these technical functions, and many of us with supervision responsibilities educated teachers to be "good" technicians.

In the late sixties of the twentieth century, however, educational theories with roots in the Frankfurt School (thirties of the same century) began to question the curriculum neutrality, establishing the link between school knowledge and the interests of a particular social class. Since Althusser, who viewed school as a "State Ideological Apparatus", several sociologists started facing the school differently. Bourdieu and Passeron discussed the "reproduction" through mechanisms of "symbolic violence" and "double symbolic violence". They went on characterizing "the Heirs" or explaining later what "Distinction" meant. These social studies were pursued by their disciples Baudelot and Establet

in their "*L'École capitaliste en France*" and, on the other side of the Atlantic Ocean, Bowles and Gintis with their "Schooling in capitalist America". These are examples of intellectuals, philosophers and sociologists who wanted to understand school and its organization at a non-explicit level, but on a much deeper one.

Therefore the "hidden curriculum" became the preferred object of research, facing the school as a political arena where opposing forces fight each other: on the one side, a ruling class, with an elitist and hegemonic culture supported by legislative and bureaucratic procedures, programs, textbooks, tests and examinations, and on the other side, an oppressed class with a popular culture deemed illegitimate to be passed to the younger generations by the school.

But it is under the aegis of a new sociology of education in England (NSE), with Michael Young leading it, that it started, within the area of curriculum itself, a broader movement named as the Curriculum Reconceptualization in which curriculists as William Pinar, James Huebner, Basil Bernstein, Michael Apple, Ivor Goodson, Henry Giroux, Tomaz Tadeu da Silva, José Augusto Pacheco and others more contest the neutrality of the curriculum that the technological models tried to convey earlier. From the point of view of these authors, the curriculum is impregnated with a very strong political-ideological component, aiming to perpetuate the social and political system, based on the assumption of the curriculum neutrality.

This curriculum theory raises questions about the legitimacy of the selection of knowledge, relating it to a matter of power. In other words, who has the power to say what is socially relevant to teach at school? Who decides that? From what social class are those who make the decisions? How far from their kind of language, culture and knowledge, are the students of popular classes? What is the main purpose of the curriculum: to blur or further accentuate social differences? Is it to blame some students for their inability to achieve the level of their colleagues?

Now, this theory argues that the curriculum should reflect the diverse social and cultural worldviews co-existing in the same school setting. Thus it is necessary the involvement of all the social actors, without exceptions: teachers, students, parents ... The "cultural capital" is crucial now obliging curriculum to be read in connection with culture. In this new perspective, curriculum is seen as a social practice in construction, and has to be aware of the cultural diversity that the mass and compulsory school nowadays hosts.

Contrarily to the fatalistic pessimism of the early statistical sociology, now there emerges an idea of "resistance" from the side of the "oppressed" classes, animated by the so-called pedagogy of possibility, or pedagogy of hope, in Paulo Freire's words. It is no longer possible to remain indifferent to the social, economic, ethnic and religious diversity of today's mass school, increasingly marked by the phenomena of mobility, characteristic of the current era of globalization, such as migration, tourism, international partnerships and exchanges.

Now the curriculum begins to be seen not so naive, but as the core of the institutionalized process of education in which power relations intersect in view of the formation of social identities.

One thing is to face the curriculum as a political and pedagogical proposal at the level of intentions, thus involving a macro analysis of educational policy (through legislation, politicians' speeches and their implementation) decided by those in power; another thing is to look at the curriculum, in a micro approach, entering deep inside the world of the learners, as phenomenological subjects, with their own histories, own backgrounds and own cultural references, that is to say, to look at the curriculum as a real practice of social construction of identities.

Act II: Ethnography of Education

In the new perspective presented above, curriculum is no longer unique, centralizing, standardizing and homogenizing. When the Decree-law 98-A/92 sustained the idea of development of specific and/or alternative study programs, later clarified by Order No. 178-A/ME/93 of July 30, it opened the doors for the construction of the curriculum by teachers in schools. This trend culminated with the publication of the famous Decree-Laws 6/2001 and 7/2001, the former republished through the Decree-Law 18/2011. Despite many attempts against the school autonomy we have been used to since then, the School Curriculum Project and the Class Curriculum Project are already part of the daily lives of teachers, forcing them to get closer to the real world of their learners. These are no longer numeric abstractions, or mere objects of learning, but subjects leading their own learning. They are phenomenological subjects, carrying their diverse cultural references that should be replicated in the curriculum.

It is at this point of micro approach, focused on the construction of social identities that the Ethnography of Education interacts with the Curriculum.

When I said, in 2003, in the European Journal of Ethnography of Education, that "a curriculum politically aware and open to cultural diversity requires an ethnographically attentive teacher" (p. 120), I meant (and I am still convinced) that the teacher should be a researcher who takes the initiative of curriculum construction, having a solid foundation of knowledge of the environment in which he acts. And how can he come close to it, except for the ethnography?

If we etymologically analyze the word "ethnography", we split it into *ethnos* (group of people) + *graphein* (writing), ie, writing about a group of people. The ethnography first appeared as a technique used in anthropology and later in cultural anthropology.

Trying to frame it a little better, we know that both sociology and anthropology emerged as academic disciplines in the nineteenth century, both marked by the same paradigm of modernity (western modernity), although each one facing its own specific social object: the modern society, in the case of sociology, and the pre-modern one, in the case of anthropology.

Raewyn Connell (2007) affirms that the project of sociology aimed at legitimizing the imperialism through narratives that justified global domination in terms of subject-matters by white male and Euro-American subjects, while anthropology, coming after the Christian missionaries, played the role of the maid (servant) of the imperialism, because the anthropologists wished to report the lives and customs of the primitive Other, "the alter ego the West constructed for itself" (Trouillot, 1991: 28), constructed from a self-centered - ethnocentric – reference, from the point of view of the scholar, the civilized sage confronted with primitive tribes.

Divided between the physical or biological anthropology, on the one hand, and the social anthropology, on the other, the former studied the fossil or present man in his anatomical physiological and racial characteristics, relating them to his evolution, influenced by Darwin, or his geographical location, while the latter, the social anthropology aimed at studying the rules of social behavior, techniques, practices and customs of a particular social group. In these analyses a biological determinism was present, according to which cultural differences were considered as the result of biological differences among men, reinforcing the colonial and imperialist thesis predominant at that time.

However Franz Boas (1858-1942) broke this evolutionary vision which considered the cultures of non-Caucasian people as inferior, arguing that every culture, regardless its geographic space has a particular story to be discovered. For this it is important to rebuild this story with the terms used by that particular culture. Thus, to systematize the knowledge about it, it is necessary to grasp it as a whole, through long stays on the field, and with the use of the ethnography. In fact, Boas adapted himself to the living conditions of the Inuit people: he learned their language and tried to participate in all their activities.

Bronislaw Malinowski (1884-1942), as well, studied the lives of the natives in the Mailu Islands in 1914. Instead of just observing (direct observation), as other researchers of his time did, he rather used the ethnography, recording on a table he invented all the data he collected from his daily coexistence with the natives, all over the six months he spent on the field, in order to better understand the reasons behind the Kula exchanges. In the Preface to his book "Argonauts of the Western Pacific", referring his stay in the Trobriands Islands, James Frazer says that Malinowski operated the major shift in anthropology because, more than describing, he wanted to really understand the human behavior. Caught by World War I, as he was Polish, he remained there almost an entire year (from July 1915 to May 1916). In 1917 he returned to these islands again.

From this chance event, came the notion that fieldwork should be characterized by a prolonged stay on the field, in order to provide a comprehensive reading of the community observed, from a thoroughly detailed description. Criticizing the previous generation of anthropologists, Malinowski introduced the notion of participant observation, according to the idea that the anthropologist should live with the population in favor of his study, engaging himself in their activities to get as much information as possible. About the "proper conditions for ethnographic work", he wrote: "These, as said, consist mainly in cutting oneself off from the company of other white men, and remaining in as close contact with the natives as possible, which really can only be achieved by camping right in their villages" (p. 6). In this method of information gathering, field diary (*journal de bord* or field notes) plays a very important role.

Clifford James Geertz (1926-2006) is also considered a pioneer of the new anthropology, with fieldwork conducted in Indonesia and Morocco. Having started his studies on religion in Java Island, early found that it was not possible to analyze one aspect, in this case, religion, without being in conjunction with everything else. Geertz proposed a reading of societies as if they were texts, open to interpretation: Hermeneutic or Interpretative Anthropology. The society (the text), full of meaning, is written by the anthropologist, so it is his essay, to be interpreted by those who have not gone through the experiences described. The ethnography is therefore a "thick description" in order to provide others the possibility of a hermeneutic reading.

For Marcel Mauss (1872-1950), the scholar of the "*potlatch*", there are not civilized and uncivilized people, but people of different civilizations (how different groups of people think and do things differently). He also thinks the aim of the research is not to study fragments each independent from the other, but to build a coherent whole of the observed society.

With these studies, the anthropology epistemologically breaks the positivist paradigm that rejected subjectivity and advocated neutrality and distance between the observer and the observed. We are not seeing Malinowski studying the tribe of the Trobriands Islands in the Pacific, with all the academic mannerisms he had when participating in a scientific debate... Neither do we with Margaret Mead interviewing the 68 young women from Samoa about casual sex... Neither with the Tunisian Jeanne Favret Saada when she studied witchcraft and sorcery in Normandy...

The question is, how can we accede to the true meaning of something spoken or performed by members of a community, if we do not share the same meaning, ie, if we are not part of that community? Or from the point of view of the subject observed, will I be able to be so transparent and true before someone who is alien to me? Or will I prefer, instead, to hide myself behind a mask I put on according to each situation?

Anthropology, or better said, cultural anthropology and, through this way, ethnography, show us that to really understand a culture, it has to be described and interpreted as if I were a native of that same culture. It is not enough to look like a native, but I need to be a native, or at least, I need to become a native. For this, I have to allow myself to be converted, to hope they will adopt me. I only know a given social reality in-depth if I am an insider.

As Patrick Boumard (1989) refers in his work "*Les savants de l'intérieur*", "*le savant extérieur, privé par définition de cette 'compétence social', n'a pas accès au sens contextualisé, quels que soient son savoir et même éventuellement sa bonne volonté*" (p. 107). Or as Georges Lapassade (1991) says, "*Un signe ne devient signifiant que dans la mesure où deux acteurs lui accordent une même signification*" (p. 19). Meaning is not something "in my head", but something shared.

Now schools and classes can also be thought of as communities to be studied in this same way. Willard W. Waller (1899-1945), in the twenties of last century, in Chicago, was one of the first studying daily life at school, having published his Sociology of Teaching in 1932. But he did not only analyze the social interactions developed there, but also the multiple ties that the school as a social institution creates with the community around it. This was done using techniques such as life stories, newspapers, field diaries, case studies, personal letters and various documents. He managed to prove that the school has its own culture.

Schools (and who says schools, says classes) are cultural communities. Through the interaction among its members, they also set, like the tribes in a symbolic way, rules of social coexistence, beliefs and values, hierarchies and customs. These environments are socially constructed. And their participants struggle for the construction of their own identities. Is it possible, or at least ethical, for the curriculum to ignore and neglect this reality?

"*L'école est le siège de rituels complexes qui régissent les relations personnelles. Il y a des jeux, des équipes, des 'guerres sublimés', un code moral, un ensemble de cérémonies, des traditions, des lois*" (Coulon, 1990: 68-69). And the curriculum aims, ultimately, at the construction of social identities.

That is why I consider the curriculum has to take into account the entire stock of "secular knowledge" of vulgar subjects who populate the school world, because this knowledge is no longer illegitimate for the construction of social identities.

Act III: Teacher's professionalism

It is at the crossroad between the Curriculum and the Ethnography of Education that I see the teacher assuming, as a researcher, their teaching professionalism. Within the autonomy granted, or better said, conquered by the teachers now, their curriculum decisions cannot be unjustified. They should be based on research, applied research, grounded on his working field which is authentic, natural and not forged for an academic purpose.

As an ethnographer, the teacher should not deny his subjectivity, but rather take advantage of his self-knowledge, to enter the world of the "other." He has to question his own identity: Who am I? Why am I here? What does this class mean to me? What has this to do with my expectations and aspirations, when I chose my course? What was I like when I was a student? Jean-Louis Le Grand refers to this exercise as a self-maieutic implication, or a reflection on the involvement of the researcher in the subject of research, in order to get free from his prejudices. More than a classic

introspective self-analysis of someone alone and far from the world, "*l'auto-maieutique implicationnelle, par ses enracinements multiples, contribue à une déconstruction de ce qui serait une identité pour saisir comment le 'soi' est habité de manière complexe et opaque par une multitude de néo-identités hétérogènes*" (le Grand, 1992: 68).

As an ethnographer, the teacher is devoted to relate to the "other", trying to understand what the "other" thinks, not from his own references but from the "other"'s references. Students, classes and schools are living communities attributing meanings through social interaction. So he has to capture them in order to make them part of the very curriculum of that particular school, or particular class, since the community observed is not a sample and the meanings are not generalizable either.

As an ethnographer, the teacher cannot go to the field with hypotheses previously designed, based on his own references. He must understand the structure and essence of the experiences of "a" group of people, his students, his colleagues, but from the point of view of "the" group. For this he has to ignore his own prejudices and describe the "deep structure" of the phenomena to reach the group's symbolic meanings.

As an ethnographer, the teacher should collect multiple and varied data, allowing their triangulation: from observation records, to the interviews, artifacts, documents, strictly following basic ethical procedures. He may simply start with a blank notepad and record everything that is going on.

As an ethnographer, the teacher has to explain how the categories of analysis were constructed to give meaning to the data, using extracts of dialogues, narratives that at some point will cross with his own narrative thus emerging a text that gives a better understanding of the group interactions. Long stays on the field are the academic years the teacher spends in his school.

Then we can say that the teacher participates, with professionalism, as a real "cultural producer" (Giroux, 1994), in the social construction of identities of his students, in the respect of their history and their culture.

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Approaches to curriculum in Portugal: New or old directions?

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Abstract

The aim of this work is, on the one hand, to characterise how the work *Knowledge and control: New directions for the sociology of education*, edited by Michael Young in 1971, was received in Portugal; and, on the other hand, to assess the development, within the national context, of one of the "new directions" there entered that focuses on a systematic and critical approach of the curriculum able to demonstrate its historical, social, contingent and arbitrary character.

For such purpose, we have set up a documentary corpus covering reviews and articles published between 1971 and 2012 in 19 peer-reviewed scientific journals published by research centres and/or university and polytechnic higher education institutions. The texts were scrutinised taking into consideration the categories of institutional affiliation of the authors, level of analysis, disciplinary/multidisciplinary dimension and topics problematized.

The first results of this mapping convey a shy reception of this work of Michael Young in the years that immediately follow its publication; this contrasts with a general interest in the curriculum that seems to gain new strength during the passage into the 21st century, in a process of appropriation that we will analyse under the light of the institutional development and affirmation of the disciplinary fields of sociology and educational sciences and of the processes of nationalisation and transnationalisation that cross issues related to the curriculum.

Keywords: curriculum; new sociology of education; nationalisation/transnationalisation of the curriculum.

1   Introduction

The new sociology of education came about in a context of criticism of the British sociology of education in the 50s and 60s, whose dominant conceptual framework was the functionalism based on the political arithmetic or on a methodology of major inquiries applied to the functioning of the education system, in which the connections between schooling and social structure were predominant. That reflection initiated by some sociologists, and that the new sociology of education would consolidate, aimed to redirect the British sociology of education to the study of interactions between actors through field research (Hargreaves, 1967; Lacey, 1970) and to the reflection upon the reform of the school curricula (Musgrave, 1970; Musgrove, 1968).

In fact, it was only in 1971 that the book that is generally considered to be the founder of the *new* sociology of education was published - *Knowledge and control: New directions for the sociology of education*, edited by Michael Young and with contributions from, among others, Bernstein, Bourdieu, Keddie, Esland and Young. What banded together these contributions, which were diverse and in some cases contradictory, was the aim of, by placing the curriculum at the centre and moving the analysis of macro-relationships to interactional contexts, reorienting the field of sociology of education towards school knowledge. Within this context, the emphasis is on ways in which knowledge is selected, legitimated and transmitted, through a systematic and critical approach of the curriculum able to demonstrate its historical, social, contingent and arbitrary character, as then argued by Young (1971):

> In any society, by what criteria are different areas of, kinds of and approaches to knowledge given different social value? Those criteria will inevitably have develop in a particular social and historical

context, but, if isolated, may be useful if related to social, political and economic factors in accounting for changes and resistances to changes in curricula. (p.31)

2   Methodological Approach

The documentary *corpus* covered 5 reviews and 118 papers published, between 1971 and 2012, in peer-review scientific journals of social sciences and, within an editorial logic of interdisciplinary dialogue, open to the publishing of theoretical or applied research on education. A universe of 19 scientific publications was scrutinised, 14 of which published by research centres and/or higher education institutions (Análise Social, Configurações-Revista de Sociologia, Educação, Sociedade & Culturas, Fórum Sociológico, Revista Crítica de Ciências Sociais, Revista de Educação, Revista Lusófona de Educação, Revista Portuguesa de Educação, Revista Portuguesa de Investigação Educacional, Revista Portuguesa de Pedagogia, Sísifo - Revista de Ciências da Educação, Sociologia, Sociologia On Line e Sociologia, Problemas e Práticas) and 5 edited by polytechnic higher education institutions (Aprender, EduSer - Revista de educação, EXEDRA, Interacções e Saber & Educar).

The documental collection involved the listing of all titles returned by the search keyword *curriculum* in the queries undertaken in archives/websites of the publications and digital institutional repositories, screening, selection and indexation of texts, based on documentary research procedures (Bowen, 2009; Cellard, 2008) and entering of the information collected in a database.

Through the reviews, we have tried to analyse how the work *Knowledge and control: New directions for the sociology of education* edited by Michael Young in 1971 was received in Portugal and characterise how it was read/interpreted. The papers were analysed taking into consideration the previously established categories of institutional affiliation of the authors, disciplinary/multidisciplinary dimension, level of analysis and topics problematised.

The identification of the *institutional affiliation of the authors* enabled the mapping of both the academic and/or professional placement of the authors and the means of production of their work, either individually or in co-authoring; these data, once articulated with the *disciplinary/multidisciplinary dimension*, make it possible to identify, when there was peer cooperation, the nature of the communication between the authors (from the same scientific-disciplinary and/or professional areas or from different scientific-disciplinary and/or professional areas). The *level of analysis* dimension, in turn, allowed the distribution of texts through different contexts: local (classroom or school), regional, national, and transnational (comparative studies). Finally, the *topics problematised* were identified based on the inventory developed by Pacheco (2006). In order to ensure the reliability of the categorisation (Martin & Bateson, 2007), taking into consideration the fact that this process may lead to multiple imputation, we proceeded to a second identification the topics problematised in a random sample of texts with a return of an index of 82.4% of concordance on the equivalence test for the categorisations made by two judges.

Taking into account what we considered to have been the main phases of the development of sociology and educational sciences in Portugal (Abrantes, 2004; Lopo, 2013), we have introduced an additional time criterion that allowed us to unfold, for the categories where it showed to be pertinent, the time span of this study (1971-2012) into three distinct periods: 1971-1986 (structuring of the disciplinary field), 1987-1999 (consolidation) and 2000-2010 (new challenges).

Frequencies and percentages of each category were calculated with the help of the PASW *Statistics 18* software.

3   Results

Within the universe of 19 journals that we have worked with, 2 started to be published before 1971, 3 between 1971 and 1986, 5 between 1987 and 1999, and 9 as from the year 2000.

From the 5 reviews analysed and published between 1971 and 2012, 2 were centred around the work of Michael Young, respectively, *Conhecimento e currículo: Do socioconstrutivismo ao realismo social na sociologia da educação* [Bringing knowledge back in: From social constructivism to social realism in the sociology of education] (Young, 2010), published in 2009 and *Knowledge and control: New directions for the sociology of education* (Young, 1971) published in 1977 and which was, in what concerns its reception in Portugal, the only critical reading of the work. This review highlighted as the main positive characteristics the redirection of the sociology of education towards the analysis of

new objects, the questioning of concepts unconditionally accepted by the *old* sociology and the critique against quantitative research. By contrast, the artificial closure of its analytical field within the classroom or the school, "as if it were a microcosm" (Mónica, 1977, p.1000), were considered factors of constraint and weakness of the research practice.

Of the 118 articles analysed, only 3 were published in sociology journals.

Regarding the distribution of articles by academic or professional affiliation of the 200 authors, we have ascertained that 33 (16.5%) reported their institutional affiliation to the University of Lisbon, 24 (12.0%) to the University of Minho, 17 (8.6%) to the University of Porto and 10 (5.1%) to the University of Aveiro. The other 22 authors (20.0%) are distributed across 9 universities (Coimbra, Évora, Trás-os-Montes e Alto Douro, Azores, Lusófona of Humanities and Technology, Open University, Technical University of Lisbon and Portucalense). We must note the 22 authorships (11.2%) of primary and secondary school teachers and also the strong presence of academics and/or researchers from foreign universities. Within this universe of 44 authors (22.3%), 27 (13.7%) came from Brazilian universities, 7 (3.6%) from Spanish universities and 6 (3.0%) from universities in the United Kingdom. The presence of 29 authors affiliated with polytechnic higher education institutions, spread through 12 Education colleges, represented 14.7% of the authorships as a whole.

Of the 118 published articles, 39 (33.1%) focused their analysis on the school, 36 (30.5%) favoured the study of the national educational realities, 13 (11.0%) the classroom, 12 (10.2%) the epistemological reflection and/or theoretical analyses, 10 (9.3%) the comparative approaches and 7 (5.9%) the study of educational realities within a region. The introduction of the time criterion, of comparison between the periods of 1987-1999 and 2000-2012, made it possible to encounter two trends of opposite directions. The first shows a growth of studies focusing their analysis at school (from 30.8% to 34.1%), the nation (from 25.9% to 30.7%), the region (from 3.8% to 6.8%), and comparative studies (from 3.8% to 10.2%). The second shows a decrease of the levels of analysis of classroom (from 15.4% to 10.2%) and of epistemological and/or theoretical analyses (from 19.2% to 8.0%).

Regarding the working methods favoured by the authors, there is an almost equal proportion of individual (50.8%) and co-authoring work (49.1%) suggesting the presence of two different preferences: from isolated and peer research. An analysis of the disciplinary/interdisciplinary dimension of that work shows, however, a continuously poor communication between the educational institutions and/or the research units, which the time criterion almost does not change, with 91 (77.1%) of the empirical or theoretical research being undertaken by authors from the same scientific-disciplinary field and/or professional area.

Regarding the topics problematised, the results are spread over several categories, as displayed in Table 1.

Table 1
Topics problematised

Categories	Global analysis (1971-2012)	
	N	%
Curricular contextualisation (programmes and contents)	12	10.2
Curricular decisions	11	9.3
Curriculum and assessment	10	8.5
Curriculum and innovation	2	1.7
Curriculum and multi/interculturalism	6	5.1
Curriculum and problematic behaviours	1	0.8
Curriculum and teacher training	11	9.3
Curriculum and teaching	9	7.6
Curriculum management	11	9.3
Curriculum policies	10	8.5
Curriculum review/reform	13	11.0
Epistemological reflection and /or theoretical analyses	12	10.2
Objectives and skills	2	1.7
Textbooks	8	6.8
Total	118	100

Note: Based on the inventory of categories developed by Pacheco (2006, p.260)

Referring to Table 1, we find that of the total 118 published articles between 1971 and 2012, 13 (11.0%) were focused on the curriculum and curriculum review/reform, 12 (10.2%) on the curricular contextualisation of the programmes and contents, and the other 12 (10.2%) on epistemological reflection and/or theoretical analyses. Articles about the curriculum and teacher training, curricular decisions and curriculum management are then aligned with the same number of 11 (9.3%) published articles.

When introducing the time criterion and restricting the analysis to the period of 2000-2012, which is the one that it may help us to envision the new directions of curriculum research, we find that the results continue to be spread over several categories. Highlighting some of the key findings, of the 90 published articles, 11 (12.2%) were centred on curricular contextualisation of programmes and contents and 9 (10.0%) on curriculum management. Articles about the curriculum and assessment, curriculum and teaching, curricular decisions and textbooks are then aligned with the same number of 8 (8.9%) published articles.

4   Final Remarks

On the analysis of the results previously essayed, even if explanatory and restricted to the documents studied, we now outline a general overview of the most noteworthy characteristics of the knowledge produced about the curriculum between 1971 and 2012. One of the first points we have to single out is the reception of *Knowledge and control: New directions for the sociology of education* (Young, 1971) in the years following its publication in the United Kingdom with only one critical review of the work. This poor receiving, explainable through national and political contingencies, was, however, compensated in the 80s, which was a decade of consolidation of the scientific community, institutional affirmation of sociology and educational sciences, and of expansion of editorial production, by the publication of thematic works and anthologies (e.g., Grácio & Stoer, 1983; Mónica, 1981) that deepened the potentialities of sociological analysis for the studies of educational phenomena, among which the work organised by Grácio, Miranda and Stoer (1983) that includes some of the works previously edited by Young (1971).

As from 1987, and mainly after 2000, we have also identified, besides the greater number of scientific journals to which, clearly, the process of transnationalisation of the educational field is no stranger, a renewal of the editorial interest in the curriculum. An illustrative example is the organisation by educational sciences journals of thematic folders that elect the curriculum as focus by contrast with the deep alienation that the sociology journals have shown towards curriculum issues.

Moreover, if trends of editorial opening and structuring are visible, which seem to be the result of international standards applied to scientific production (e.g., publishing of articles in English, knowledge distribution in electronic formats, increased participation of foreign authors) there are still strategies of internal publishing and self-isolation that restrain the movement of knowledge beyond disciplinary borders.

We also point out the growing trend of studies that link contexts and macro levels of decision and, particularly, of transnational/comparative approaches about the curriculum, compared with the decrease of those focused on the classroom context, from which may result a new balance between the weights traditionally given to the curriculum within the context of school decisions and to macro-political decisions.

Finally, despite the dispersed focus and the continuous valorisation of topics marked by the reforms and the reorganisation and/or curriculum review processes and that are attached to a political agenda, the analysis of the most recent period of 2000-2012 seems to mitigate that valorisation by the importance given to *other* topics such as curricular contextualisation; a new opening that, even if incipient, may be a step in a new direction.

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The emancipation debates on education and curriculum: perspectives and meanings

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Abstract

This article presents the results of an investigation - an exploratory study - on the emancipation concept in the field domain of curriculum theories over the theoretical debates and practices of Portuguese educators. Based on a thorough literature search and on the view of some professors from the University of Minho and Porto, we sought to understand how to scale the concept of emancipation both at the theoretical level and in curriculum practices the well, that they develop in the educational institutions. Assuming that, in addition to the theoretical component, their students embodied by the experienced, we tried to question whether educational institutions are organized or not only to facilitate (consultancy), working with labor reflection, critical thinking and autonomy of students, resulting formative processes grounded on an effective their students of emancipation.

In methodological terms, the methods and theoretical research were conducted by using semi-structured interviews with educators in order to as certain how their productions offer the prospect theory, how they animate the debates the critical education and shape their practices. The results allowed us to understand that empowerment is a structural element of the critical theory, both in the discussions of the educational field and the curriculum the well, which interferes on the way they organize curriculum practices. We intend to understand how teachers work the concept of emancipation and how they do it. In this sense, while synonym of critical education, reflexive and transformative education - mediated or not by the curriculum - the emancipation has been understood and viewed the possibility to substantiate swagger and add changes in the individuals and, is consequence, in the education and society itself.

Keywords: Curriculum; Education; Emancipation.

Introduction

This text aims to present some results of an exploratory study on the concept of emancipation, performed in two Portuguese universities in the year 2012. Starting From a brief theoretical foundation on the concept, we seek to understand how it is that the teachers have seized this concept and the use in their curricular practices everyday.

The concept of emancipation began to integrate the educational debate and to influence curricular practices in Latin America, in the United States and Europe in the late 1970s. Being a structuring element of the theorising critical, this concept has been recurrently used in scientific productions, in the pedagogical proposals, in official documents, in the curricula prescribed, in speeches and in the practices of educators, projecting, in most cases, the possibility of substantiate changes in individuals and, consequently, in education and in society itself.

The text is organized into three main segments. The first in which we have the origins of emancipation in concept of Kant, in the foundations of Critical Theory and in Marxist theorising, and seek to clarify the senses and meanings that were appropriated by debate in curricular field. We are interested in, especially, understand how if expressed the category emancipation and the linkage between the curriculum and the emancipative practices. The second, in which we have carried out the analysis of semi-structured interviews that we conducted to some educators, seeking to explain how Portuguese stalwartly their theoretical productions, such as animate the discussions of scope critical in

education and how to configure their curricular practices. Or whether, as the teachers work the concept of emancipation and in what manner. The third, in which we will center our attention on the senses and meanings of emancipation in contemporary debates.

It is important to clarify that, by the limits of exposure to which this Article is subject, the thematic analysis is not limited in this reflection. Just want to contribute so humble for a debate that is still alive and well in the educational setting.

1. The concept of Emancipation in debates educational and curricular

1.1. The emancipation in Critical Theory in the School of Frankfurt, in Kant and Marx

The Frankfurt School is a title coming from the Marxist researchers from the Institute for Social Research in Frankfurt, founded in Germany in 1923. The intellectuals of the Frankfurt School have developed a tradition known as Critical Theory, directing their criticisms for contemporary society. Through the concepts of *industrial cultural*, *clarification*, *semi formation* and *semi culture*, dealt a sharply criticizes the processes of reification, fetishization and oppression to which men are subjugated due to capitalist social structures. Having interest in this reflection, in highlighting the genesis of emancipation in Critical Theory and the perspective in which this category is discussed by theorists Frankfurtian theories, it should be noted that the root cause of this category is developed from the concept of "*Aufklärung"* presented and discussed by Kant in 1783. But, which means "Clarification" in Illuminationist Kantian meaning?

The concept of Enlightenment, as it is presented by Kant (1784, p . 01), is defined as "the inability to serve in your own understanding without the tutelage of another", being, while emancipation process of subjectivity, obtained through the overcoming of ignorance and laziness, the indulgence that characterizes the condition of subordination of the subjects. The subordination is a condition each individuals own and consists in the absence of decision and courage to use your

Own understanding without being sustained. An important aspect is that access to the clarification cannot be only a revolutionary scenario, since it is a slow process of individual scope and history. This is very important to understand the emancipation dimension of Enlightenment in Kant. In these terms, the emancipation translates the overcoming of the condition of lower per track for a *reason enlightened*, that is, a new way of thinking and reflect, autonomous, the margin of the tutors. The condition of being emancipated not directly depends on the social conditions of production objective of life. Although they can limit it, never constitute an obstacle to Enlightenment.

In the *Frankfurtian theories*, the concept of Enlightenment appears associated with the idea of men overcome their condition of nature and expressed the level of broader progress of thought, whose goal, second Adorno and Horkheimer (1985, p. 17), "dissolve the myths and replace the imagination by knowing". Assume that the reason Enlightenment model, developed by bourgeois, had two dimensions: the emancipation and the instrumental. The criticism of the Enlightenment did touch on the double character that this manifests itself in bourgeois society: the emancipation and domination. The men released by Clarification, that is, emancipated from the condition of nature, produce, by means of social structures, conditions of regression: the domination of man by man himself. Separate from the context of the Modern Age, in which Kant posed the question of Clarification as the exercise of reason alone, limited to individual dimension, the Critical Theory, in contemporary society, proposes the connection of reason to social practice, as an instrument to fight against the dominant trend and oppressive of industrial society, and the forms of production and maintenance of instrumental rationality, through an emancipation policy. It is this linkage that resides the educational potential, and formation of critical pedagogy. For Adorno, "the social theory is in reality a formative approach, and the reflection educational constitutes a focus political-social. A political education" (Maar, 2010, p. 15) .

Adorno (2010) when asking? "For where education should lead?", believes that education is not related with the idea of shaping subjects from ideal models. On the contrary, consists in the development of a conscience true, revealing this aspect a political demand for education. The political dimension becomes a dimension inherent in the educational process, because through the training it is possible to bring the men to develop a reason enlightened, autonomous, critical, that is, a true conscience. The emancipation, second Adornment, embodies a dialectical relationship that should articulate both the thinking of men as the educational practice.

Unlike the Kantian perspective and Critical Theory, the emancipation in Marx is beyond the limits of reason and presupposes the overcoming of the mode of production and of labor relations that are at the basis of sociability

governed by capital. The work, to Marx, must be organized within the logic of free work and associated with, a condition that requires the "domain conscious and collective of producers on the whole process of production, distribution and consumption" (Tonet, 2005, p. 138), resulting in the satisfaction of needs essentially human - the Kingdom of Freedom - and not the exploitation of man and the reproduction of capital. For Marx (1974, p. 942), the freedom "can only consist in that the man social, associated producers, govern rationally this your interchange material with nature, put you under your common control ... and perform with the smallest possible expenditure of forces and conditions more appropriate and more worthy of his human nature". In this sense, the real emancipation presupposes the abolition of private ownership of the means of production, that is, requires a radical change of the current social form. For this reason, the emancipation in Marxian perspective has a revolutionary character. And this radical transformation requires the development of a political consciousness and revolutionary, an ideology - subjective conditions - articulated with objective conditions, to generate effective possibilities of transformation of reality.

1.2. The emancipation in curricular field: the Curricular Theories Critical

The theorising curriculum criticism has its genesis in political and social movements that broke out in Europe, in the United States and Latin America from the mid 1950s. Such movements have produced changes in the trends of social reproduction that prevailed at the time. As a result, the curriculum field, as a mediator of educational processes, was influenced by both existing conflicts on social circumstances of years 1960, as by astute theorizing in the area of humanities and social sciences, produced in contradistinction to the *status quo needs* . In accordance with the perspective presented, emerged in curricular field a debate around what became known as "curriculum theory criticism", influenced jointly by critical marxists (and neomarxistas) the theories of Reproduction, of Correspondence and Resistance, as well as by contributions of the New Sociology of Education and the movement of reconceptualizacao.

However, what defines the curriculum theory criticism? What are the objectives that underlie it? In a general way, in the curriculum, the curriculum theories critical embrace the trends who questioned the predominance of traditional concepts in education and, in particular, within the school curriculum, unveiling the economic, political and ideological that permeated the explicit curriculum and the hidden curriculum (Jackson, 2009), as well as the relations of determination and power that underlie the intentions, to content and curricular practices. The curriculum theory refutes the critical processes of social reproduction, economic and cultural dominant, which contribute to reproduction and perpetuation of social inequality through education, whether by ideological character of the dominant culture present in curriculum content, whether by the practices and policies that favor the maintenance of hegemonic culture. In this context, we can highlight the work developed by the authors, such as Michael Apple - through its critical neo Marxist to the curriculum - and Henry Giroux - with emphasis to the curriculum as cultural policy and the radical pedagogy, in addition to contributions of Paulo Freire in the educational field in Brazil and the sociologists of the New Sociology of Education - Basil Bernstein and Michael Young.

In the opinion of Silva (2011, p . 17), the categories that structure the curriculum theorising critical are: "ideology, cultural reproduction and social power, social class, capitalism, social relations of production, awareness, emancipation and liberation, hidden curriculum, resistance". In this text we will center our attention on the concept of emancipation and its importance as a structuring element Curriculum Theory Criticism, since it makes explicit the position taken from authors whose criticisms are directed to the problems and contradictions posed by historical and political context of the capital and express propositions of struggle and of opposition to the current order, particularly in cases of (re)production of knowledge and the curriculum.

2. The prospect of emancipation in the speech of educators Portuguese

 In relation to the origin and its meanings of emancipation, the educators Portuguese interviewees identify the theoretical roots of this concept in the production of Brazilian educator Paulo Freire, mainly with regard to the contributions present in the work "Pedagogy of the Oppressed", text in which the author makes a critical reflection about the design of that means by "banking education", a metaphor that compares the school education to banking processes and according to which the knowledge is deposited in students - so passive and uncritical - by educators. Even in relation to the origins of emancipation, refer, also, to his connection with critical perspectives, such as the author Jürgen Habermas in his "Theory of Communicative Action" and in "Curriculum Theory Criticism".

In a general way, are not explained in the speeches of educators respondents were not a deepening, nor an accentuated concern with the bases theoretical-philosophical (ontological) concept of emancipation. The emphasis

focuses on its dimension gnosiologica, that is, as this concept is expressed, objectively, in educational praxis and in broader social contexts. In this regard, the emancipation is related, in the individual, with competence or suitability for the autonomy or self-consciousness, freedom, conscience critical and reflexive, mediated by ethical ideals and democratic. In the social field, the emancipation is identified as project collective and progressive, opposition to regulation (counter-hegemonic) and for social transformation. In short, from the perspective of educators who were interviewed, the concept of emancipation is more of educational side, a time that, in addition to assume the development of certain skills by students, such a condition should extrapolate and mediate their intervention actions in a broader social context, explaining, as well, his political character.

From among the different didactic-methodological proposals for actions in a perspective of emancipation, we can highlight the following points: a) It is necessary to take into account the trilogy "knowledge, power and wanting to", that is, to have knowledge about where you want to go, be aware of the objective conditions that enable the realization of a given task upon the power of agency and decision on the part of educators and students, and finally, whether the educators and students want a curriculum from the perspective of emancipation (want); b) It is necessary that the teachers and the students have a critical knowledge about the curriculum content, situating them so active and conscious in relation to the social, political and economic to which they belong to that, this way, To be able to perceive what is the emancipation and decide whether or not they should fight for their achievement; (c) The two points presented previously are articulated with the following settings practices in educational institution: negotiation of training curriculum, promotion of a participatory pedagogy, clash of visions and practices of education, pedagogical experimentation and critical reflection on the practice, valuation of ethical and political dimensions of vocational training and education, the development of a pedagogy of experience - promoting processes of theorization of experience and authentication of theories with a purpose manufacturing -, concern with the critical spirit, with the capacity of argument and reasoning, development of cognitive reasoning (and moral) and learning of content of critical And emancipatory.

However, even that the educators and students at locales the didactic-methodological proposals previously submitted, the necessary conditions for an effective emancipation depend on a set of processes and social, political and economic structures that establish the guidelines and educational curricula, as well as determinations in practice and of social reproduction that is extrapolated for the bosom of educational institutions . This perspective is evident in the speech of teachers interviewed, when questioned about the limits and possibilities of emancipation in current educational scene. Among the limits reported, we can highlight the historical factors, structural and policy, such as the perpetuation of breeding traditions in education, anti-democratic values in organizational management, the implementation of *top-down reforms* and universal curricula, as well as a teacher training founded on a conception of technical education. Another important aspect highlighted by some interviewees refers to the limits of their own emancipation, especially when it is hipervalorizada in individual terms and not as collective project. To deal with the emancipation as an individual project, it runs the risk of this concept be appropriate by the ideology of powers, resulting in the development and imposition of new meritocracias, that meet even more to the interests of neo-liberal policies.

As regards the possibilities of realization of emancipation, the interviewees indicated the existence of positive experiences of emancipative collective projects, such as, for example, the Movement of those Without Land in Brazil, at the School of the Bridge and the Rural Schools in Portugal, founded on democratic ideals, critics and counter-hegemonic, seeking to rebuild relations edited by social logic of capital, such as the linkage between living, learning and working. Another example mentioned lies in the proposal of the External Evaluation of Schools in Portugal that, in spite of presenting contradictory aspects in its dynamic, has a potential emancipative that grows as it streamlines the discussion as a result of the intervention of external evaluators.

In This way, the educators interviewed recognize that conditions exist for an emancipatory education in nature. Moreover, the interviewees believe that at this moment the emancipation became indispensable, in order to counteract the growing expansion of economic and instrumental rationalities that characterize the political and economic context of our society, inspiring practice counter-hegemonic. However, it is recognized that, in spite of the immense difficulties to realize an emancipatory education, it should enhance the practices of progressive nature and resistance that is foreseen in educational context. But, for which these opportunities can be potentiated is necessary, as they explain the educators interviewed, recognize the school as a place of decision curriculum and the teachers and students as agents product configurators of curriculum, establishing a curriculum in *counterflow* , or *against-curriculum* , organized from the dilution of the elements that constitute an obstacle to the emancipation. In addition, it is important to understand that the educational institutions, by their very nature, do not have conditions to give answers to all the problems that have to respond. In this regard, it is necessary to place new issues and investigate

what can be done on the basis of cognitive and relational work that characterizes the democratic potential and a posture of emancipatory education.

3. Perspectives of Emancipation: senses and meanings.

After performing this analysis on the concept of emancipation, retracing their theoretical roots in Kant, in the tradition of the Critical Theory of the Frankfurt School, and briefly, in Marx, we realized that the meaning of emancipation if scales in different perspectives, resulting in its ownership by theoretical debates and by teaching practices and curriculum with various meanings.

We Contacted who, in kant, the emancipation is understood as a condition of full age, of enlightenment and of autonomy, attribute that restricts the reason, and his private use or public, not being related to any collective social project. The ownership of this perspective by Frankfurt School is not restricted solely to the limits imposed by reason. For the tradition of Critical Theory, the emancipation has an important role in social practice: contribute to the clarification of the social conditions that produce the barbarity. However, unlike the marxist perspective, which argues that the emancipation presupposes a full freedom of individuals, through suppression in capitalist society of social classes, for the tradition of Critical Theory, the emancipation does not have this revolutionary character, much less constitutes an ideal to atimgir, because the contradictions are treated within the capitalist society. In the area of education, the concept of emancipation was influenced by Marxist perspective, expressing themselves through progressive pedagogical trends. This concept also influenced the debate within the Curriculum Theory Criticism, presenting the criticism the same determinations, that is, the influence of trends in reproduction of the *status quo in* curricular policies.

The process of research that we have developed has allowed, even, that the theoretical debates in the curriculum, both in the context of curricular theories criticism regarding the perspective of educators interviewed, have a focus on the meaning of emancipation, both at the individual level, by seeking to develop subject informed, critical, reflective, conscious, autonomous and free, either at community level, in that the emancipation is seen as a condition of education critical, reflexive and progressive, articulated with the interests of social transformation, production of democracy and citizenship, in the sense of counter-hegemonic struggle in a broader social context. It should be noted that the issues are not spelled out, or better, was not considered the emancipation in a revolutionary perspective.

The teachers interviewed, despite recognizing the limitations and difficulties for the development of an emancipatory education, try to resist the impositions of contradictions of economic dynamism and social, which form cescente, establish new requirements for educational institutions, and the curricula prescribed, producing knowledge and pedagogical practices that oppose the settings and dictates of capitalist logic. In this regard, the interviews reveal that the dominant perspective of emancipation in discourse and practice of educators Portuguese explicit an approximation to Critical Theory and the Clarification Kants, also featuring some elements present in Marxist perspective of emancipation, especially with regard to the overcoming of political contradictions, social and economic that prevail in society.

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CTD-O: Developing an online course on curriculum theory and studying how to do it

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Abstract

Curriculum Design Research (CDR) is a branch of educational design research whereby the development of a curriculum or part of it is systematically studied, with a strong focus on the evaluation of successive prototypes of the product being developed. This paper discusses how CDR has been used to study the development of CTD-O, which is a course on Curriculum Theory and Development that started to be taught totally online in 2011/12 in an institution where the full virtualization of a course is still a rare phenomenon. I will describe and discuss the evaluation of prototype 1 (2011/12) and prototype 2 (2012/13) of CTD-O, which was very successful. Most students stated, via questionnaires, that, if they could move back in time and decide whether to take the course online or offline, they would take it online.

Keywords: curriculum design research; e-learning; teaching curriculum theory.

1   Introduction

This paper reports my experience of teaching a course on Curriculum Theory and Development (CTD), via e-learning, in the academic years 2011/12 and 2012/13, at the University of the Azores (UA), Portugal. After teaching related courses through face-to-face instruction for 18 years, I decided to develop an online course, considering emergent calls for the consolidation of e-learning within the above-mentioned institution. In 2011, after attending a training program, I proposed the virtualization of a course on CTD that has been offered to undergraduate students of basic education in Angra do Heroísmo campus. The proposal was accepted by the students and by the governing bodies of the UA. Therefore, its implementation started in the second semester of the academic year 2011/12.

The fact that the full virtualization of a course is still a rare phenomenon in the UA suggests that the experience should be studied in a systematic way. Accordingly, I have used Curriculum Design Research (CDR) to study the development of the above-mentioned online version of a course on CTD, which, from now on, will be designated as CTD-O. CDR is a branch of Educational Design Research (EDR) whereby the development of a curriculum or part of it is systematically studied, with a strong focus on the evaluation of successive prototypes of the product being developed. Plomp (2009) defines EDR as

> the systematic study of designing, developing and evaluating educational interventions (such as programs, teaching-learning strategies and materials, products and systems) as solutions for complex problems in educational practice, which also aims at advancing our knowledge about the characteristics of these interventions and the process of designing and developing them. (p. 13)

CDR "is often initiated for complex, innovative tasks for which only very few validated principles are available to structure and support the design and development activities" (van den Akker, 2009, p. 45). In other words, CDR deals with problems for which heuristics or "how to do" guidelines are scarce. Accordingly, a CDR project typically starts with a research question that represents the researcher's commitment to finding design principles for a given kind of intervention. Models of e-learning and guidelines for online course design can be found in the literature, but they hardly cover the specific needs of CTD-O. Therefore, the project reported in this paper started with the following research question: what are the characteristics of an online course on CTD that meets the learning needs of undergraduate students of basic education?

In a CDR project, tentative versions of the product being developed – that is, successive prototypes – are usually evaluated and revised in a systematic way. Since the project reported in this paper has followed a prototyping approach, I will describe and discuss the evaluation of prototypes 1 (2011/12) and 2 (2012/13) of CTD-O.

2   Designing CTD-O

Learning Management Systems (LMS) are frequently used to deliver online courses offered by higher education institutions, because they facilitate both the instructor's backstage work in preparing a learning environment and the interaction between the students and that same environment. Since Moodle platform is the only LMS available for all the academic community at the UA, it has been the main electronic resource used in the e-learning experience reported here.

As figure 1 illustrates, CTD-O can be analyzed at three levels. On the first level, the overall organization of the course is considered. The second level is focused on the modules' structure. On the third level, attention is paid to the organization and presentation of the material through which the students are expected to learn and to monitor their own progress in learning.
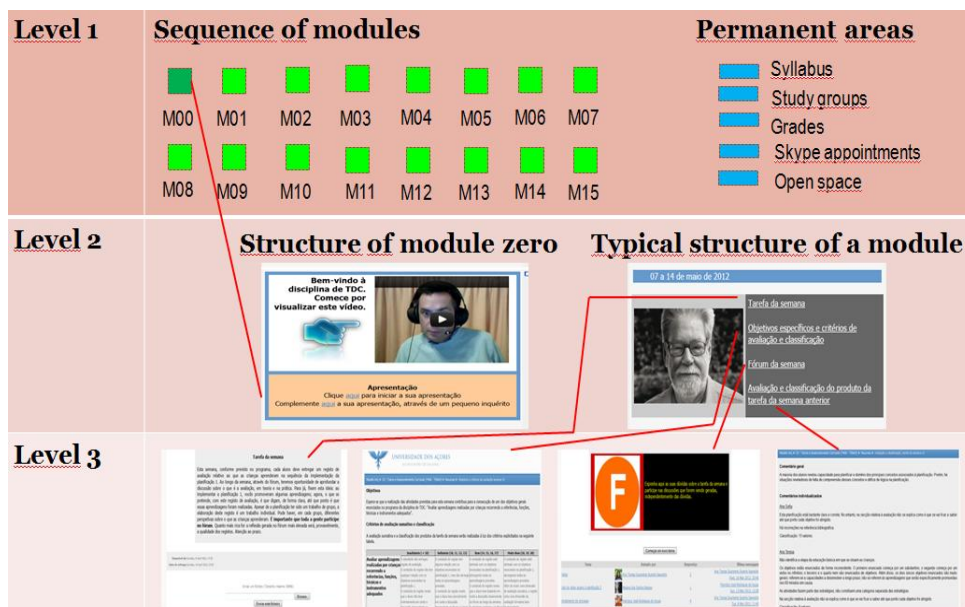
Figure 1: A framework for the analysis of CTD-O.

The design of CTD-O is based on small asynchronous tasks assigned and completed every week. Each week corresponds to a small module. In each module the student has to complete one small task, which is subject to formative assessment and also to grading. The student's final grade at the end of the semester results from the sum of the grades assigned to the modules, instead of depending on two or three written tests or assignments, which is the typical approach in the Portuguese academic tradition. Every week the grade of the previous module is disclosed and formative assessment is provided, in the form of comments whereby mistakes are corrected, the consolidation of knowledge is supported and some information related to upcoming modules is anticipated.

All the material related to each module is revealed to students week by week, although it was inserted into the platform and organized in advance. Figure 2 illustrates the typical structure of a module. Through hyperlinks made available beside the picture of a relevant author (which changes every week), the student accesses all the material that he or she needs in order to proceed with the learning activities. The first link directs the students to a webpage wherein guidelines on how to perform the week's task are provided. Another webpage, which discloses the module's objectives and related assessment criteria, is accessed from the second link. The third link leads to the week's forum, through which I track the students' progress, answer their questions, encourage them to avoid procrastination, and

stimulate discussion. Finally, another link directs the students to a webpage focused on assessment and grading of the assignment completed in the previous week.

Figure 2: Typical structure of a module.

The first week of the semester is dedicated to a module with a different structure, which was especially designed for the beginning of the semester – module zero. As figure 3 illustrates, that module includes a small video, through which I present the course, as well as two activities that allow the students to introduce themselves: an ice-breaking forum and a questionnaire that collects basic information about the students (e. g., information on their technological competence, their reasons for studying education, etc.).

Figure 3: Structure of module zero.

When analyzing CTD-O at level 1, it is also important to notice that, besides interfaces with the weekly modules, which occupy a central position on the screen, CTD-O provides access to permanent areas related to the course in general, including the course syllabus, a chart with the composition of study groups, a table with the grades assigned in previous modules and the overall grade accumulated by each student so far, a tool for scheduling individual appointments via Skype, and an open space whereby the students can communicate freely with one another via chat or forum.

3   Evaluating CTD-O

The quality of CTD-O has been evaluated in the light of validity, practicality and effectiveness criteria – an approach that has been followed in the evaluation of other products of educational design (Nieveen, 1997; Teixeira, & Silva,

2008). The evaluation techniques have included micro-evaluation, screening, expert appraisal, and tryout, which are the most common approaches in CDR (Nieveen, 1997).

Evaluation of validity covers content validity, which is related to the scientific rigor of what is taught, and construction validity, which is related to the requirement that the product is designed in a logic and consistent way. Content validation has been pursued in two ways: firstly, through updates of the course syllabus, considering the state-of-the-art knowledge in the field of CTD; secondly, through expert appraisal, whereby a reputable scholar in the field of CTD has analyzed CTD-O and commented on its scientific rigor. Construction validation has been pursued mainly through expert appraisal, whereby the technological dimension of CTD-O has been evaluated by a prestigious scholar in the field of Educational Technology. In their comments on prototype 1, the external evaluators suggested that the variety of learning experiences provided to the students should increase and that more attention should be paid to some technical aspects of the study materials, especially some audio recordings. Such comments helped me improve the quality of CTD-O in 2012/13.

The practicality of CTD-O, that is, the extent to which it is usable by the students, was firstly evaluated through micro-evaluation: tentative versions of some modules were tested in the context of the training program that I attended. Later on, the implementation of CTD-O in 2011/12 was regarded as a tryout of prototype 1 and its implementation in 2012/13 was regarded as a tryout of prototype 2. In order to express their opinions on the usability of CTD-O, the students responded to an online questionnaire, which was administered in three moments: at the midterm of the 2011/12 edition of the course, at the end of the 2011/12 edition, and at the end of the 2012/13 edition. Because of space limitations, only data related to the second and to the third moments will be presented and discussed here. The 2011/12 class had 15 students, 14 of which responded to the questionnaire; the 2012/13 class had 9 students, all of which responded to the questionnaire. The graph presented in figure 4 summarizes the students' answers to the question that most directly addressed the usability of CTD-O from their perspective. As the graph suggests, the students have considered CTD-O usable.
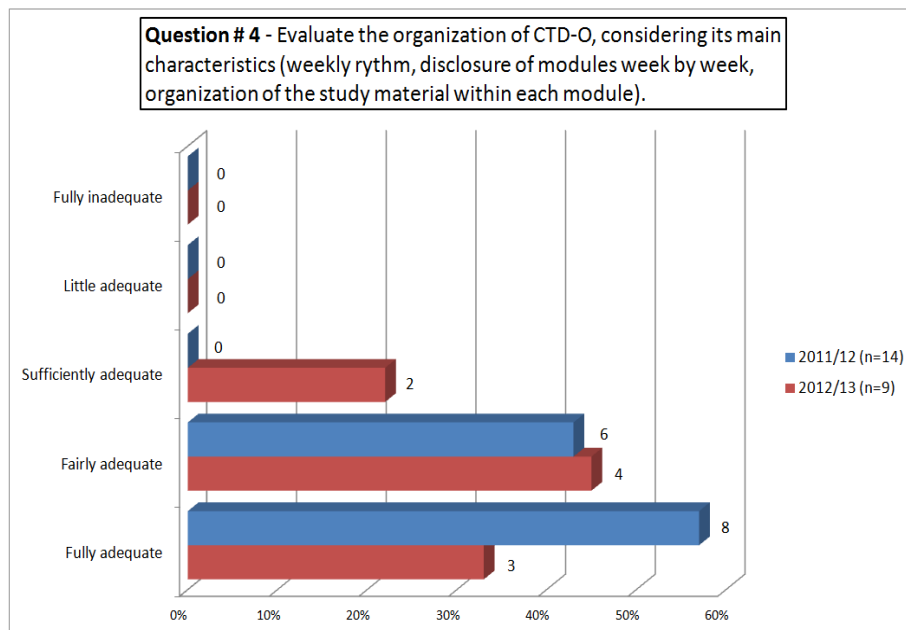
Figure 4: Analysis of students' answers to question # 4 of the questionnaire (evaluation of the organization of CTD-O).

Students also have evaluated the effectiveness of CTD-O favourably, considering that, as the graph presented in figure 5 illustrates, there was only one case – in 2011/12 – in which a student stated that she had learnt less from CTD-O than she would have learnt from face-to-face instruction. Furthermore, all the students from the 2011/12 class and eight out of nine students from the 2012/13 class stated that, if they could go back in time and decide how they wanted to take the course, they would take it online.

The summative assessment of the students' learning reveals that the objectives of the course were achieved at least at the same level as they had been when the course was taught via face-to-face instruction, which further supports the claim that CTD-O has been effective.
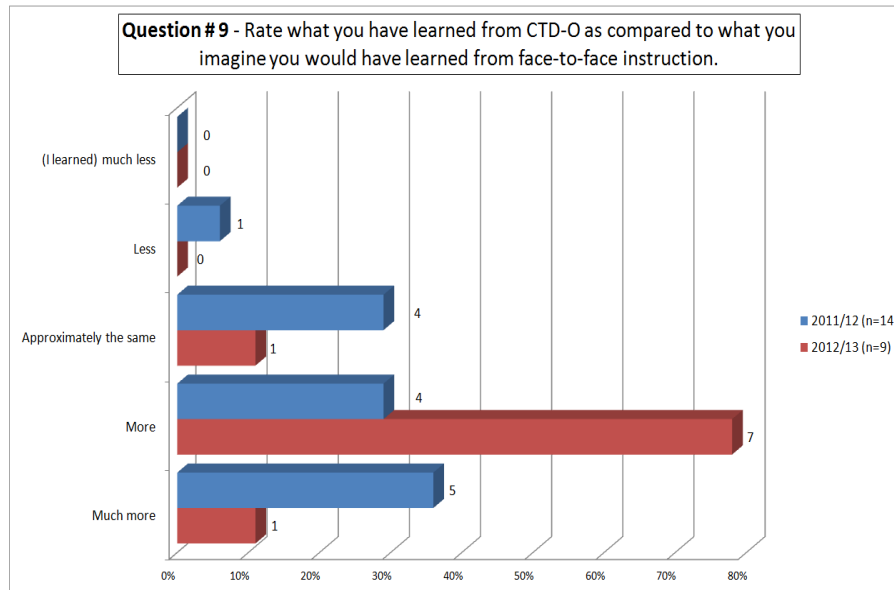
Figure 5: Analysis of students' answers to question # 9 of the questionnaire (students' overall perception of CTD-O as an effective source of learning, as compared to an imagined situation of face-to-face instruction).

CTD-O has also been evaluated through screening, which is a technique whereby the researchers "check the design with some checklists on important characteristics of components of the prototypical intervention" (Nieveen, 2009, p. 95). Since, in the literature review, I did not find a checklist that could be directly applied to CTD-O, I composed a checklist by synthesizing contributions from different sources, including texts on e-learning in general and texts that convey guidelines for teaching courses from other fields online (Edwards & Gordon, 2010; Herrington, Reeves, & Oliver, 2010; Stevens-Long & Crowell, 2010; Wijekumar, 2010). According to the above-mentioned synthesis, CTD-O should have the following characteristics:

- Provide very clear guidelines for the students' tasks
- Provide a learning environment that, on the one hand, has a consistent structure and, on the other hand, allows for surprise, exploration and discovery
- Facilitate the students' concentration on the essential information, by excluding unnecessary material that may divert their attention
- Ensure regular student participation
- Ensure the instructor's presence online, through regular interaction with the students
- Allow the participants to express emotions
- Include a safety plan, which minimizes damage in case a serious technical problem occurs
- Take advantage of the fact that every piece of online communication is automatically recordable and may eventually be used as study material whose quality can be more easily controlled than notes taken in a traditional classroom
- Balance different channels of information transmission (e. g., by combining visual presentation with voice narration)
- Ensure interaction and collaboration among students, including reciprocal comments on assignments
- Provide regular feedback and scaffolding
- Maximize the provision of feedback and scaffolding to the group-as-whole, considering that responding to every individual posting is an inefficient (and probably unsustainable) practice
- Provide tools that allow students to track their progress

These ideal characteristics are relevant for several kinds of quality criteria, especially effectiveness and construction validity. They all have been taken into consideration in the design of CTD-O. The results of screening have suggested that there are some cases in which the corresponding real characteristics of CTD-O need special attention.

The design of the learning environment (second characteristic on the list) has been improved. Special attention has been paid to the design of level 3 interface (cf. framework for the analysis of CTD-O – figure 1), which still had a

gloomy aspect in prototype 1, because of a simplistic usage of some Moodle tools. In prototype 2 its design became more attractive.

With regard to exclusion of material that may divert the students' attention (third characteristic on the list), the portion of music provided in some resources needs to be reduced. The insertion of a musical background in some recordings of the instructor's voice may contribute to a more pleasant listening experience, but if it becomes outstanding it will probably distract the students, as one of the external evaluators remarked.

Taking advantage of tools provided by the LMS that allow for easy recording, storage and organization of data (eighth characteristic on the list) has been one of the most rewarding aspects of the experience, for it has helped me question the myth that effective online teaching is only possible if the courses offered are purely theoretical. By attending CTD-O, the students had to plan and implement short sessions of teaching with small groups of children. Those sessions were recorded on video and the students handed in assemblages of selected segments of the recordings. Each assemblage, which was 5 minutes long, was commented through a small text posted beside it in the platform, as figure 6 illustrates. This sequence of procedures allowed for an efficient analysis of the practical activity performed by the students, inasmuch as the comments were focused on the most important aspects of the activity and were recorded on a durable and easily retrievable format. Such level of efficiency is more difficult to achieve in a situation based on direct observation of practice, note-taking, and oral comments.
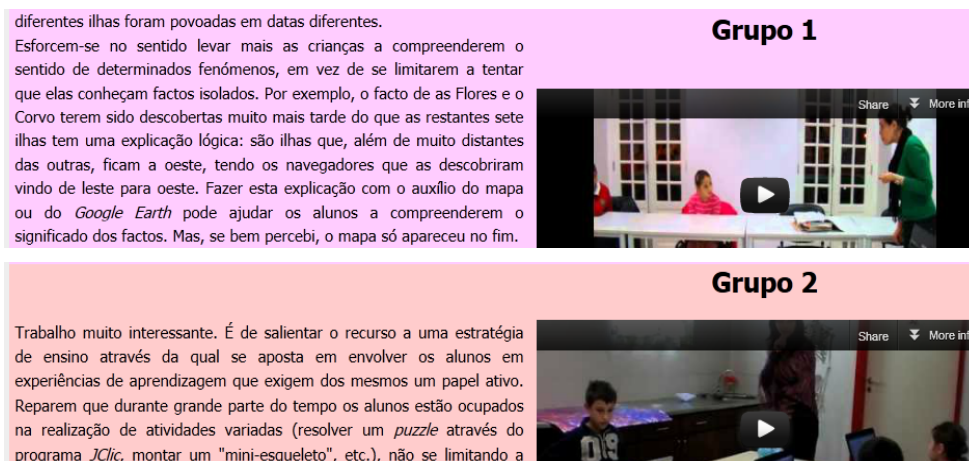
Figure 6: Examples of written comments to videos that showed practical activities performed by the students.

In CTD-O, very detailed feedback was provided to group assignments. Feedback to individual assignments was usually provided through texts with comments that applied to the whole set of assignments submitted in the context of a given module, illustrated with passages from some students' productions. Some students claimed detailed individual feedback for every assignment. Although in 2012/13 I tried to raise the students' awareness of the fact that such practice would be unsustainable (twelfth characteristic on the list) and encourage them to reflect on the implications of general comments to their individual cases, claims for individual feedback decreased but did not cease.

4   Conclusion

The evaluation of CTD-O is positive. The objectives of the course have been achieved and there is evidence of overall student satisfaction, despite some cases of less satisfaction with regard to some specific aspects, especially the amount of feedback provided.

CDR is expected to advance knowledge, through the statement of design principles, about the desired characteristics of the interventions designed. As a small research project, CTD-O does not add much to the design principles related to distance education in general that have already been conveyed by the literature. Nevertheless, considering that e-learning is only taking the first steps within the UA, the results of this study may eventually be taken into consideration in the context of other local experiences.

One of the most rewarding aspects of CTD-O has been the application of the principle that one of the advantages of e-learning is the possibility of easily transforming any piece of communication that flows within the course into study

material whose quality can be controlled. References to this principle in the literature are frequently implicit rather than explicit. Its application to CTD-O suggests that it can be further explored, which may eventually contribute to the generation of more attuned design principles.

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History and Early Childhood Education: an *impossible* relationship?

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Abstract

The development of historical thinking and cognition in early childhood is a new subject that requires further investigation with children and educators. Specialized Literature presents many perspectives: from Piaget's skepticism (Piaget, 1961) to Cooper's optimism (2012). There are quite few papers on historical consciousness, following historical literacy (Barca, 2006), it is fundamental observing how first age children appropriate relevant information from historical point of view, although is a subject little studied in Portugal's scientific standpoint (Cruz & Carvalho, 2007). Starting from this fact, the intention of the authors is to understand this phenomenon and proceed to a literature review to support the best research we intend to develop. Children's first images about history are strictly linked with personal life dates and familiar birthdays, as well as local heritage and toys (Wood & Holden, 2007). Starting with a case study, Cooper (2006) presents the great potential of knowledge and, above all, the interest and curiosity children from three years old develop about historical concepts, even with a slight conceptualization that we can call the emergence of some historical thinking (such as Jorn Rusen defended) - with ideas such as "ancient", "recent", "different (Solé, 2011). From 1997, Portuguese Early Childhood Curriculum begins to understand the importance of heritage, identity and the development of historical consciousness (OCEPE, 1997) related to a strong link to pedagogical strategies such as roleplay, fotography, genealogy, museums and social games (Barca & Solé, 2012) that represent the spirit of the recent "Metas de Aprendizagem" (Learning Goals) whose purpose is the widespread disciplinar connection. Assuming the relevance of this issue for the formation of historical consciousness, it is pertinent to ask ourselves about how to develop students of preschool their historical literacy skills. Being on the field listening and observing children between 3 and 6 years old is the best way to understand their perceptions, feelings and, also, their thoughts about heritage, ancestors, past figures and other elements related to history education (Marques, 2011). For this purpose we chose a qualitative methodology essentially by conducting a case study (Yin, 2005; Stake 1999; Rodríguez et al., 1999). The best feature that identifies and distinguishes this methodological approach is a research plan that involves intensive and detailed study of a well-defined entity (Coutinho, 2005).

After the definition of the subject to be studied, we began our literature review. It reflects informal interviews with children from 3-5 years old, but also formal activities conducted at the kindergarten, always with a qualitative view (Graue & Walsh, 2003; Bogdan & Biklen, 1994). It results of an experience performed at Areosa, VC (Silva, 2013).

Keywords: History Education; Early Childhood Education; Early Childhood Curriculum; Introduction.

1. Introduction

The end of World War II made it possible, in the field of Social Sciences and Humanities, a number of significant advances and discoveries very relevant. We would like to highlight the importance that historical knowledge has assumed in the valuation of social and human knowledge, being a kind of "pivot" in the dialogue between the humanities (which, even in 60-70 years has led to some subjects were deliberately assigned to "auxiliary sciences of history").

At this same time, the great figure of constructivism was the psychologist Jean Piaget, whose positions on the drilling of historical notions with young children has always been of great suspicion, because they were concerned notions and concepts of complexity - including Time and Space - whose level of abstraction would not be available to a child who stood at the pre-op. In fact, the progress of research in history education shows that the stiffness and univocity of Piaget's theory should not stop educators and pedagogues to go further ...

1.1. Motivation

Experience tracking educators managing their professional internships in Preschool Education has shown that, surprisingly, children who attend the kindergarten in public in the municipality of Viana do Castelo a willingness to engage with past evidence of their local environment, while seeking information about some past events nationwide through its natural curiosity.

In fact, since 1997 the *Curriculum Guidelines for Preschool Education*[1] seek to show that history's knowledge is essential overcome child's personal dimension and next (OCEPE, 1997) that its construction in the early years naturally egocentric easy to (re)learn elements of National and European history itself. The historical period suggests that the document is to explore the Prehistory (OCEPE, 1997), time rearmost of studying the past and which, by its symbolic dimension and fantastic, naturally captivates kids by their difference compared to present times.

In fact, these points sharpened our curiosity in research that to be the true role of education in early childhood history Marques, 2011), this article is an attempt to understand what has been written about the relationship between almost impossible to abstract the complex intangible assets in the mind of a child to a permanent desire of knowledge anchored in questions increasingly insistent desire to "bring the past into the present."

2. Scope

Experience tracking educators managing their professional internships in Preschool Education has shown that, surprisingly, children who attend the kindergarten in public in the municipality of Viana do Castelo a willingness to engage with past evidence of their local environment, while seeking information about some past events nationwide through its natural curiosity.

Perspective the role that early childhood may have on the assertion of empirical studies in history education is, in our opinion, the focus of this study. Positive signs are beginning to emerge in the late '70s, when the developmental psychologist Margaret Donaldson rebate through inductive studies closer to social science methodology, findings that Piaget had in their laboratory studies regarding the feasibility of cognition in children with history of such a young age.

As regards Isabel Barca (2001): *Donaldson (1978) compared decentered perspective studies involving the kind of* […] *tasks designed by Piaget and Hughes, but differed on the subject of focus: the studies of Piaget, was used laboratory equipment* […] *Hughes replaced by puppets, something that is familiar to the imagination of children. From these data, Donaldson suggested that children may already be able to understand the perspective of the Other (refuting some extent, the Piagetian concept of child's egocentrism)* […] *Incidentally, for Vygotsky (1961), the child is able to grasp concepts related to culture and otherness, being increasingly prepared for these challenges just to the extent that opens into contact with his neighbor*.

In the field of history education, these issues begin to be debated with incisiveness. Hillary Cooper (2006) considers that *the constructivist learning theories of Piaget, Vygotsky, Bruner, and research based on the work of these authors, can be applied to history, from early childhood, and ways of increasing complexity.* This author created the concept of "Historical Imagination" (Cooper, 2004) related to interpretation and analysis of historical content and evidence that supports the emergence of historical thinking. We believe that little children are able to perform this imagination early beginning to discuss concepts such as power, society, royalty linking this to current life.

Therefore, it is essential to ensure a link between the past images, related to children such as houses, cars, animals, documents, to construct historical empathy as Lee defends (2004). The representation of the past is consolidated by the perception of difference and change on people's thinking, habits and material culture. For that, we must not forget the importance of History digital media (Cruz, 2011).

Indeed, adaptation to the sensitivity of child's activities at the pre-operative period becomes essential. In the study made by Silva (2013) - on the theme of the Portuguese Kings shown to the children - which then unfold, we tried to work in this direction.

The first point was the ideas that children brought about what being a king, a queen or a princess and how these figures engaged its power in the population. The result of this exploratory work is clear in this first table:

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[1] Hereinafter referred only by the initials "OCEPE".

Table 1: Preliminary ideas expressed by children 3-4 years of age on historical significance

Historical Idea	Historical Thinking
Castle as a referent of historical identity	*I have a book ok kings and princesses that live in a Castle* (VT)
Crown as royal symbol	*The crown above the hair is yellow, golden and silver* (MF e TM)
Gold and Power	*It was all golden because they were rich* (TM)
Ideal image of Princess	*Princesses have great dresses and roses* (MG)

The ideas expressed by the children of this parish of Viana do Castelo realize that we manifest the emergence of some notions of historical thought, notably with the symbolism of the crowns and the use of golden color as an indicator of royal power. Simultaneously, coinciding with the formation of magical thinking, connected to the world of fantasy, castles populate an imaginary rich which refers to fairy tales and children's stories.

Then, we developed activities related to the exploitation of digital books, with narration done by a well known public figure and illustrations that were following the thread of the story. This strategy proved to be very wise and took a large stake in the group of children who, through the image adapted to their context age perfectly understood the concepts and ideas that the educator wanted to work. Then we present some images of these digital books that are available on the Camões Institute for use by the whole community:

Figure 1: Digital image explored with children

The use of this resource has proved fruitful for the construction of learning motivating and meaningful, also contributing to the creation of an atmosphere of involvement in the consolidation of historical knowledge, since the references that were transmitted to children by way of an introduction to its national history, be sought as far as possible, close and identifiers that age concrete. Some of the scanned images are presented below:
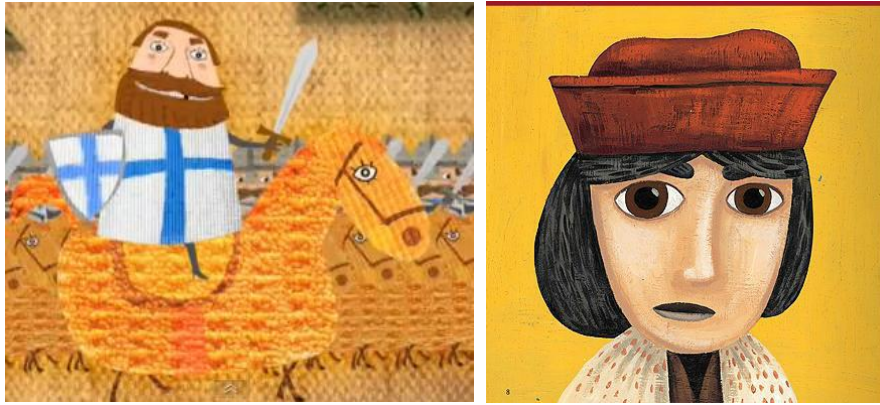
Figure 2 and 3: Explored images of Kings Afonso Henriques (Left) and D. Manuel I (Right)

There were explored several historical eras and Kings such as D. Afonso Henriques (Middle Ages), D. Manuel I (Modern Era) and D. John V (Final Modern) for the epochal contact with different contexts and diverse evidence of the presence of the past in the monuments and cultural tradition.

As an example of the Historical Education activity developed, we present the concepts that children retained about King Afonso Henriques:

Table 2: Substantive Ideas about King Afonso Henriques

Historical Idea	Historical Thinking
Genealogy	*It was Dona Teresa's son* (F)
Battle	*He had a sword and he fought* (TM)
Social Security	*He helps people* (G)
Patriotism	*For Portugal and For Castles!* (AF)
Transports	*He travels by horse but I have a car* (BZ)
Leisure	*We play with other toys* (TD)

According to this children speech we should underline and reinforce the importance of historical significance on elements such as Castles, Kings, Queens and Princesses but also a strong feeling of change between those medieval times and ours. Children understand elements present on flags, buildings and also feel – such as the "patriotical" move made by AF – a strong national and regional identity interpreting local heritage and giving a mean to that evidence (Marques, 2012).

Figure 4 and 5: Drawings about King Afonso Henriques fighting (left) and with his family (right)

Afonso Henriques was named on the group of children as the "Fight King". They also related him to a great family with lots of sons and daughters, just as the video and the book shows.

It is also interesting to analyze king's role on public governance:

Table 3: Substantive Ideas about Royalty and Power

Historical Idea	Historical Thinking
Governance	*I did ruled, bu I don't know how* (MG)
Power	*I know… I saw it on cartoon … He makes thinks* (JS)
Social Kindness	*He helps people* (G)
Historical Empathy	*The king must help people doing things… It's just like the daily chief… I saw it on cartoons* (AM)
Battle and Leisure	*Struggles and nothing more… Stays in bed… Horse Rides*(TD)
Family	*Two twin sisters, a family… I want to marry and have children* (VT)

Figure 5 and 6: Drawings about Royalty and Monarchic Power made by BR and G – "If I was a King"

Children understand king's rule on public power and governance. It also gives significance to cartoons and stories when Educator tells them it was true just like our time.

3. Conclusion

History Education in Earlychildhood is, in our opinion, not only a matter of curricular interest, but also a decisive tool to children's future. Such as Maths suffered some time ago, History is considered very difficult to this level and some Educators find it, pure and simply, impossible to apply. As we tried to show from this case study, it is possible and it is desirable.

We think it is necessary to try some new pedagogical experiments, resources and tools to show that History is fascinating and very important.

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An Example of Practice Based on Interdisciplinary Approach: Conscious Consumer Instruction

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Abstract

In the light of today's progress in education, alternative approaches are searched and used in order to enable learners to gain higher order skills during the process. The studies recently conducted shows that there is a tendency for the curriculums adopting the interdisciplinary mentality and emphasizing relationality and integrity rather than the fragmentation and seperation in discipline-oriented instruction. It is obvious that the interdisciplinary instruction approach will also serve this purpose in our country where the learner's being able to use the knowledge effectively coping with the increasing knowledge and integrating what s/he learns with the real life. The study conducted in accordance with this purpose, intends to introduce and discuss an example of application that has been prepared to focus on daily topics based on the interdisciplinary approach. Information concerning the learning outcomes, the skills and values aimed to gain, content, interdisciplinary relations, the learning-teaching and evaluation processes of instructional design is given and in addition a sample lesson plan in the unit is presented. It has been assumed that the instructional design's, developed taking 'consumption' concept as centric, being based on interdisciplinary approach will contribute to students' active involvement in the process establishing relations between different disciplines, improvement of high order thinking skills and sustainable comsumption conciousness.

Keywords: Concious Consumption, Integrated Curriculum, Interdisciplinary Instructional Design, Curriculum Development

1 Introduction

Nowadays, within a transformation towards information era thanks to scientific and technological developments, the contemporary education system requires from individuals to be trained as scientific literate, science, mathematics and computer literates (Tekin and Tekin, 2004). It is aimed to gain the students high order skills such as research, inquiry, reasoning, establishing relations, problem solving, communication in the curriculum the compliance with rising value in society and increasing knowledge is targeted. (NCTM; 1989, 1991, 2000).

When we look at today's practices, to ensure the effectiveness of teaching and educating individuals with the desired quality, alternative approaches based on gaining high order skills are being investigated and used. These studies, recently carried out, indicate that there is a tendency for the curriculums adopting the interdisciplinary mentality and emphasizing relationality and integrity rather than the fragmentation and seperation within discipline-oriented instruction. (Martinello, 2000). Educators are aiming to gain pupils issues mimicking real life and even reflect life as a mirror by offering opportunities to develop their multi-intelligence via using the thematic approach. Therefore, in the education systems, an interdisciplinary way is monitored.(Armstrong, 2000).

According to Jacops (1989), interdisciplinary teaching is defined as an approach, which handles a topic, incident, problem, title, or experience by addressing the method and approach of more than one discipline. This approach requires to integrate knowledge and skills in different disciplines around a common theme in an effective and meaningful way (Yıldırım, 1996). While including different comments on the definition and properties of

interdisciplinary approach, it is seen that the common points in all definition are use of information and skills of more than one discipline and combination of the subject fields and livings (Jacobs, 1989;Yıldırım, 1996; Diker, 2003). In this sense, it is observed that the need for individuals who can assess the problems in a multi-directional way and practice the gained knowledge-skills throughout the real life immediately is effective in the interdisciplinary approach's gaining importance day by day.

As a result of the research including the practices of interdisciplinary approach, it is presented that this approach increases establishing a relationship between the concepts and academic success, high-order thinking, developing reading and writing skills, motivation for learning, being interested in and attending schools (Mathison and Freeman, 1997; Guthrie, Wigfield and VonSecker, 2000; Sullivan, 2000; Özkök, 2005; Suraco, 2006; Coşkun and Altun, 2012). In Kander's work (2003), that the students who attended and graduated from this training, with the application of the interdisciplinary design in which maths, science and technology fields are combined, can overcome all the matters of daily life about science and mathematics, and also they can communicate effectively with people who are interested in other disciplines.

In terms of our country, it can be remarked that the curriculums' fundamental philosophy contains of an approach which takes student's interests and requirements to the center (MEB, 2005). In respect with this approach, it's stated that it is not that possible to reach the targeted learning outcomes using traditional structure based on a single discipline. (Akpınar, Çakmak and Kara, 2010). In this sense, in our country where learner's effective use of knowledge coping with increasing knowledge and integrating what is learned with real life are aimed, it is apparent that the interdisciplinary approach will serve this purpose. Therefore, how the curriculum based on interdisciplinary approach can be applied most effectively should be discussed and its effect on the required outcomes should be emphasized.

For this requirement, the conducted research is intended for development of a instructional design centering the concept of consumption and based on interdisciplinary approach. It is indicated that the development process of instructional design seen as improving the effective, productive and appealing learning methods in order to meet the needs of education comprises of five stages:analyzing, designing, developing, practicing and assessing. (Şimşek, 2009). In this study having the characteristics of concept-based interdisciplinary instructional design, the teaching process has been designed based on "conscious consumption". Conscious consumption unit, which contains lesson plans and educator guide, has been prepared.

Taking all these into consideration researcher's purpose is introducing and discussing this application example prepared for daily issues based on interdisciplinary approach. In this research, information about the learning outcomes of conscious consumption unit, targeted skills and values, contents, interdisciplinary connections, learning-teaching and assessment process is given. And then, the instructional design of conscious consumption unit developed by the researchers according to interdisciplinary program is given.

It is considered that developed instructional design's being based on interdisciplinary approach will contribute to students' active involvement in the process relating the different disciplines, learning the concept effectively and permanently, development of the common compulsory skills aimed to gain in all of the seventh grade curriculum and sustainable consumption awareness.

2 Example of Application

In this section, information about the objectives, content, learning-teaching and assessment processes of conscious consumption unit is given and an example lesson plan is presented.

2.1 Goals

After application of concious consumption unit, students are supposed to gain awareness of consumer's behaviour and habits and question these factors with a critical perspective, it is aimed that they use various knowledge and skills effectively in the desicion making process about life and gain a consumer view sensitive for environmental and public issues. In this sense, the outcomes of conscious consumption unit which is prepared taking consumption concept to the center, skills and values targeted to gain, lesson duration and related disciplines are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: The topics and outcomes of conscious consumption unit, skills and values targeted to gain, lesson duration and related disciplines

Learning outcomes	Skills and values targeted to gain	Duration	Related Disciplines

Outcomes	Skills and Values	Hours	Related Disciplines
1. S/he gives examples for consumption resources from daily life. 2. S/he distinguishes production and service groups composing consumption. 3. S/he defines consumption concept using the difference between requirement and demand.	Basic skills Associating, reasoning, critical thinking, using Turkish effectively, well and correct Values Responsibility, sensitivity to natural environment	40+40+40	Mathematics Science and Technology Social Studies Turkish
4. S/he interprets statistical data. 5. S/he tries to guess based on data and the result of analysis. 6. S/he creates a vision for environmental and social damage of unconscious consumption. 7. S/he realizes the importance of sensitive consumption for the environment.	Basic skills Reasoning, associating, critical thinking, creative thinking, problem solving Values Sensitivity to natural environment	40+40+40	Mathematics Science and Technology Social Studies
8. S/he sequences consumer's rights. 9. Utilizing from the statistical data, s/he makes inferences about the importance of consumer rights both individually and socially. 10. S/he distinguishes the features that a conscious consumer should have.	Basic skills Associating, reasoning Values Responsibility, Equality	40+40	Mathematics Social Studies
11. S/he becomes aware of the factors leading consumer's behavior. 12. S/he evaluates the factors that promote the consumption on the basis of the conscious consumption understanding. 13. S/he designs a unique banner that encourages conscious consumption.	Basic skills Using information technology, Associating Critical thinking, creativite thinking Values Honesty, scientificity	40+40+40	Mathematics Visual Arts Media Literacy
14. S/he questions the things which should be done to spend money wisely. 15. S/he calculates the percentages used in commerce and shopping. 16. S/he reliazes the importance of creating a budget. 19. S/he effectively manages his/her financial resources in accordance with the objectives and needs. 20. S/he creates the most appropriate budget plan according to chosen products and services. 21. S/he designs a brochure offering a selection of products and services.	Basic skills Associating, communication, searching, problem solving, critical thinking, creativite thinking entrepreneurship, Using Turkish effectively and well and correct Values Responsibility, sensitivity to natural environment, aesthetics	40+40+40+40	Mathematics Social studies Turkish

When table 1 is examined, 21 outcomes can be immediately seen in this unit plan. In parallel with these outcomes, it is targeted to gain common compulsory skills in curriculum and national and universal values such as responsibility, sensitivity to the natural environment, responsibility, fairness, honesty, and scientific and aesthetics. In the unit which contains 16 course hours totally, interdisciplinary links which are based on the concept of consumption is shown in Figure 1.

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
the features of sustainable consumption

TURKISH
The analysis of texts in terms of conscious consumption of consumer problems

SOCIAL STUDIES
The affects of consumption on society and country's economy
Universal consumer rights

Consumption

VISUAL ARTS
Visual factors affecting consumer choice

MATHEMATICS
Conscious Consumption
Arithmetic

MEDIA LITERACY
The affect of media on consumption

Figure 1. The Visual Relationship Network established between disciplines

2.2 Content and Learning-Teaching Process

The topics handled in the unit of conscious consumption are: Consumption sources, sustainable consumption, consumer rights and behaviours and features of conscious consumption. During application process, general goals, organization scheme and content of the design are given in a file called ' Background Information of Conscious Consumer Education' that guides teachers. Five different lesson plans were prepared and the properties of these lesson plans are explained below.

Lesson Plan 1 : This plan involves consumption sources. In accordance with the given outcomes, two worksheets and an assessment sheet has been prepared in order to apply consumption activitiy in our life. At the end of this activity, the students are expected to notice the effect of economic, social and natural sources on social life and distinguish product and service groups that form consumption. In the second dimension of the lesson plan, the students are expected to reach the concept 'consumption' and math, science and technology and Turkish courses are associated with each other.

Lesson Plan 2: It deals with sustainable consumption. In the lesson plan, two worksheets have been prepared for the activity called ' I am thinking while consuming' and a video is displayed. At the end of this activity, the students are expected to notice the harm of unconscious consumption on the environment and society and gain sustainable consumption awareness. An assessment worksheet has been prepared within the lessonn plan and math, science and technology and Turkish courses are associated with each other.

Lesson Plan 3 : This lesson plan is about consumer rights and behaviours, and therefore two worksheets have been prepared for this lesson plan addressing the activity called ' Do I know my consumer rights'. The students are expected to have information about consumer rights and the social and individual importance of consumer rights. In the lesson plan, an assessment worksheet has been prepared and in accordance with this lesson plan math, social studies and Turkish courses are associated with each other.

Lesson Plan 4: This lesson plan handles conscious consumption preferences and two worksheets have been prepared for the activity called ' Let's analyze ads and posters ' ,and a performance task has been prepared to be applied at the end of the class. The students are expected to realize the factors shaping consumer behaviors and assess these factors

taking sense of conscious consumption into consideration. Within the framework of the lesson plan math, visual arts and media literacy courses are associated with each other.

Lesson 5: This lesson plan has been prepared to deal with conscious consumption preferences. Two worksheets have been preapared for the activity called 'My shopping basket'. The students are expected to have information about the positive effects of a conscious consumption on an individual and national economy. Moreover, to be given at the end of the class, a project work concerning outcomes of both the activity and the unit has been prepared. Within the framework of the lesson plan, math, social studies and Turkish courses are associated with each other. A sample lesson plan prepared for the "my conscious consumption preferences" topic is given in Table 2.

Table 2: A Sample Lesson for Conscious Consumption Unit

Unit	CONSCIOUS CONSUMPTION	
Topic	My conscious consumption preferences	**Learning Outcomes**
		The consumer notices the factors that affect consumption behaviors The consumer assesses the factors motivating for comsumption by taking sense of conscious consumption into consideration The consumer designs an original poster that motivates consumption
Grade Level	7	Duration: 40+40+40+40
Skills and Values	**Skills that are intended to be acquired**	**Values that are intended to be acquired**
	Using information technologies, associating, critical thinking and creative thinking	Honesty, being scientific
Basic Concepts	Consumer preferences, deceptive advertisements and posters	
Teaching-Learning Process	**Strategy, Method and Technique**	Lecturing, question-answer, discussion and demonstration technique
	Teaching Setting	Classroom
	Equipment and Tools	Worksheet 7-8, Performance Task 1, Computer, Projector, CD
Related Disciplines	Math, Visual Arts, Media Literacy	
Guiding Questions	1. What are the factors that affect consumption preferences?	
Generalizations	• Visual and audial factors affect consumption preferences • Deceptive factors used in ads and posters should be distinguished for a conscious consumption	
Application Process	• In order to draw attention and introduce the topic, " Advertorial" should be demonstrated to students from the CD	

	Video	at the beginning of the course.
Note to Teacher: *You can benefit from background information of concious consumer education in order to use work sheets effectively*		• Students should be aware of objectives of course by being informed that they will learn whether people are misled in advertisements, positive and negative messages served in the ads, how to differentiate the facts in the background of presented product, consumer preferences affect what. • After the advertisement movie, the following questions should be asked to students and carried out a class discussion. Advertising movie that you watched; 1. Is real or fictional? Why? 2. What are the factors attract your attention related to this advertorial? 3. Who can be the people that advertisement movie wants to impress? 4. Do you think that misinformation has been made in this advertorial? Explain with reasons. • After the class discussion, students should be informed about that advertisements in the media, due to economic concerns, have served products affecting specific target groups by using language, audio and visual effects, and the advertisements have functions encouraging unconcious consumption, as well. • In the next step, Worksheet 7 which is prepared for the activity called '' Let's analyze Advertisement and Posters'' should be distributed to students. • Table spaces in stated worksheet must be filled by the students, questions at the end of the table should be discussed in the classroom atmosphere. • During the class discussion, it should be stated that elements such as color, brand, format and ingredient of product are used in order to draw attention of consumer. • During the class discussion, it should be emphasized that product packaging should give more information about the product and a concious consumer should make comparison by looking from the expiry date under packaging to, production date, ingredient and price of product. • In the next step'' Worksheet 8 that is prepared for second part of Let's analyze Advertisement and Posters'' activity should be distributed to students by copying. • Questions in the worksheet should be answered by the students individually and then answers to each questions should be discussed in the classroom atmosphere. • If students have different views which may be example for deceptions, they should be shared in classroom atmosphere. • Afterwards, the definition of deceptive advertisement should be presented to the students. • In the final stage of the activity, answers which students give to the last questions in the worksheet should be listed under the title of conscious consumption. • Features of a concious consumer should be emphasized and, the course should be completed by summarizing honest, scientific and conscious consumption, which contributes to the society.
Assessment		• In the stage of assessment, ''Performance Task 1'' sheet should be distributed by copying. • After this stage, the students should be given time to investigate the contents and identification of the task, instructions and rubric and if there exist questions of student should be answered.

2.3 Assessment Process

During the application process of concious consumption unit, assessment of product and process has been taken as a basis. In this context, assessment sheets are prepared so as to be implemented at the end of each activity. In addition, in the process a performance task is given and an example of project work which will be given to students at the final unit is presented.

While the first of stated assessment sheets directs to subject of consumption resources, classifying product and service groups according to demand and necessity and explaining the classification with reasons are intended in the context of worksheet. Assesment sheet 2 will be carried out by students at the end of the lesson plan based on the issue of sustainable consumption. In this process of assessment, students are expected to classify product and service groups according to demand and necessity and explain conducted classification with the reasons. Assesment sheet 3 is related to consumer rights and behaviours and it contains identification of violation states of the consumer rights, explanation of solution proposals with the reasons.

The other measurement tool is performance task that is based on process of assessment. In this task, without resorting to misleading and deception, students are expected to design a poster that will attract the attention of consumers. In performance task requiring self- study, the expected gain and values, the description of task and practice guideline are stated and necessary time to complete the task is determined as 2 lesson hours. An analytical rubric recommended for assesment of performance task is prepared.

The project work is designed to be used at the end of the unit. This work which helps to assessment of process and product together, students are expected to make a budget plan which covers; transportation, accommodation, food

and according to the costs of other activities and prepare a brochure according to this budget which draws the attention of the consumer. In the project work, the expected gain and values, description of task and practice guideline are stated and an analytical rubric is prepared for assesment of process and product. The necessary time for this homework which should be completed individually is determined as two months.

3 Conclusion, Discussion and Recommendations

In this study an intructional desing based on interdisciplinary approach and centering the concept of consumer is introduced. In interdisciplinary approach, a topic, event, problem or experience which is located in the centre should be handled with the method and perceptive of more than one discipline. (Jacobs, 1989). One of the most important goals of teaching with this approach is stated as students' gaining a multi-faceted way of thinking (Yıldırım, 1996) and the results of research concerning this issue shows that this approach contributes to meaningful and effective learning (Jacobs, 1989).

For this reason, interdisciplinary teaching practices are commonly included in our country curriculum in which common compulsory skills are targeted to gain such as critical thinking, problem solving and creative thinking (MEB, 2005). When we look at common application, it can be seen that a disciplinary teaching in other words any subject is handled within a disciplinary framework (Demirel et all, 2008).

In an other study in which activities in science and technology curriculum were examined determining that those activities are not suitable for interdisciplinary approach and realizing that the associations are not clear and obvious support this situation. (Güven and Hamalosmanoğlu, 2012). In addition to these limitations, it is stated that there are very few resources for the content, importance of the interdisciplinary approach and how to use it in our country which is widely used in USA (Aybek, 2001). However, for a qualified education, in addition to paying attention to different content, capability and discipline information, the necessity of having high quality and collaborative curriculum providing focusing on interdisciplinary instruction is emphasized. (İşler, 2004).

In this context, instructional design which is developed during the research process is expected to guide interdisciplinary practices and to prepare the ground for the new research and applications related to the subject. Following the development of this pre-research project, it is aimed to implement this design for the seventh-grade level students. Moreover, we assume that we can contribute to the new education model which is called 4+4+4, started in 2012-2013 by this instructional design.

Considering the innovations predicted in the given model, it can be clearly seen that the curriculum prepared for mathematic applications course that takes place in the selective course list is open for improvement. In this sense, it is thought that this instructional design (which can be used for mathematic applications course as well as having the features of a curriculum for a new course that can be added as an elective to the curriculum) will contribute to the effective and productive teaching of the course.

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Trends in Studies in the Field of Curriculum Development and Instruction in Turkey: a Content Analysis Related to Curriculum and Instruction Congress

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to examine the trend in research studies presented in the Curriculum and Instruction Conferences in Turkey. The descriptive research model was used in the study. The document analysis method was used in data collection. A total of 674 research studies either presented at the national and international Curriculum and Instruction Conferences (553 conference proceedings) or published in the Curriculum and Instruction Journals (121 journal manuscripts) were analysed. The data were analysed via the content analysis method and the findings were described by using the frequencies and percentages. The findings indicate that "analysis of the applications and evaluations of the learning and teaching process" (17.21%) was the most studied topic, while the "hidden curriculum" (0.74%) and "learning approaches" (0.74%) were the least studied topics. About 42% of the research employed qualitative methodology, 20.08% of the research employed quantitative methodology, and 3, 93% of the research employed mixed-method methodology. However, in 29.11% of the research studies, no description about the study design was provided. The most common data collection method was the questionnaire (18.89%). The most common data analysis methods were descriptive statistics (35.10%), parametric statistics (26.70%), and qualitative methods (16, 12%). A substantial number of papers included no explanation about data collection and analysis methods. Also, most papers were structurally unorganized, which makes it difficult to understand for most readers. The number of studies targeting the topic of curriculum development was quite limited.

Future studies should pay attention to the structural organization of the manuscripts and use separate subheadings for methods, data collection and data analysis. The number of studies focusing on the area of curriculum development should be increased. Moreover, asking authors to provide their summaries in a structured format may contribute to the quality of the papers.

Keywords: Curriculum and Instruction, tendencies, field research.

1. Introduction

Science is to get to know the universe and discover the truth. Science defines verifiable information obtained by a systematic method based on observation, experiment and mind which make the universe, community and human a subject of research (Büyüköztürk, 2008).Scientific research can be defined as the process which consists of efforts for achievement of knowledge in accordance with the functions of comprehension, explanation and control of science by scientific methods (Ural and Kılıç 2005).

Science is a cumulative process. Each discipline achieves the new truths based on the current scientific truths. In this sense, the knowledge that academic disciplines have is closely related to the literature. In recent years, it is observed that there has been a significant increase in literature studies related to academic fields. Research for the studies in the literature provides information on the nature of the current researches as well as giving directions to subsequent ones.

In the literature, there are very few researches for determining the trends of curriculum and research for instruction field. It is seen that these studies are intended for the examination of graduate thesis in the field of curriculum and instruction (Gömleksiz and Bozpolat 2012; Bıkmaz, Aksoy, Tatar and Atak-Altınyüzük, 2010; Saraçoğlu and Dursun, 2010) and published articles (Ozan and Köse, 2012). Any study on the examination of papers presented at Curriculum and Instruction Congress in Turkey has not been observed. This makes it an important study to fill this gap. In addition,

the examination of field specific studies presented at congresses as a whole is important for introducing how a change took place in the in the process of historical development, its shortcomings, needs and foresights in the light of scientific findings.

In this context, the aim of this study is to determine the trends in the field by examining the researches presented at Curriculum and Instruction Congresses.

For this purpose, an answer to the following questions was searched for.

1. What are the research topics in the field of curriculum development and instruction in Turkey?

2. What are the research methods used in the field of curriculum development and Instruction in Turkey?

3. What are the data collection tools used in the researches in the field of curriculum development and Instruction in Turkey?

4. What are the data analysis techniques used in the researches in the field of curriculum development and Instruction in Turkey?

2. Method

2.1. Research Model

This research structured for determining the trends of the researches in the field of curriculum development and instruction in Turkey was designed in scanning model. The scanning model is intended to identify the currently condition or in the past as it is (Karasar, 2009).

2.2. Data Collection

In data collection, document analysis method, one of the qualitative research methods, was used. Document review covers the analysis of written materials including information about the intended case or cases to research.

2.3. Validity and Reliability

In content analysis carried out to increase the internal validity of the study, themes were tried to be determined as broad enough to cover the concepts related. All of the findings were directly given without interpretation in order to increase the internal validity of the study and also other researchers were included in the analysis process of data. To increase the external reliability and external validity, the research process and those made in this process were tried to be explained in detail. In this context, the model of the research, data collection process, the analysis and interpretation of data were defined in detail. Also, the obtained raw data and codes are stored by others in a way to be studied by others.

2.4 Analysis and interpretation of data

In this study, a total of 674 studies, 660 of which are oral presentations at national and international curriculum and instruction congress and 14 of which are articles published at curriculum and instruction journals, were examined. 121 of these studies are full-texts and 553 of them are abstract. By making an overall assessment in terms of the topics of printed papers and published articles examined, research methods, data collection tools and data analysis techniques, the trends in this field were tried to be determined. The data obtained were subject to the content analysis. The main objective in the content analysis is to achieve the concepts and relationships to explain the collected data. Through content analysis, the data are defined and the facts that may be stored in data are revealed. In content analysis, the basic procedure is to gather the data similar with each other within the framework of the specific concepts and themes and interpret by organizing them intelligible to the readers (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2008).

The data obtained from content analysis are described with frequency and percentage values.

In this study, the steps in the process of data analysis and the procedures performed are described below.

1. Data Coding: At this stage, the relevant researches were examined, and during preliminary surveys, code, concept and themes formed the general framework of the coding list. The actual coding was realized by reworking on the codes from data set and literature.

2. Identifying Themes: At this stage, for the convenience of researches in classifying data and identifying the themes, what codes would coexist was decided. Thus, combining of codes and the establishment of meaningful relations between them were provided.

3. Organization of codes and themes: At this age, the obtained codes themes were organized. To increase the reliability, reduce subjectivity, and make comparisons between themes and categories, data that combines under the same code and theme were digitized and so frequencies were obtained and associated with sub-problems.

4. Identification and interpretation of findings: At this stage, the tables for themes related to each sub-problem were prepared, descriptions were made and findings were interpreted.

3. Findings and Interpretation

Research topics are represented in Table 1.

Table 1: Research Topics

Research Topics	Ayvalık		Eskişehir		Bolu		Journal		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
The Basics of Curriculum	8	7.48	15	3.88	-	-	-	-	22	3.26
The applications in the Process of Learning-Teaching and Assessment	16	14.95	59	15.25	38	22.89	2	14.29	116	17.21
Attitude Determination	5	4.67	11	2.84	9	5.42	-	-	25	3.71
Theoretical Studies	8	7.48	16	4.13	5	3.01	3	21.43	31	4.60
Measurement and Assessment	3	2.80	24	6.20	-	-	-	-	27	4.01
Learning and Teaching Styles and Strategies / Thinking Skills	6	5.61	20	5.17	11	6.63	1	7.14	37	5.49
Testing of effectiveness of different environment, materials, activities, approaches, methods and techniques	2	1.87	19	4.91	12	7.23	2	14.29	34	5.04
Hidden Curriculum	2	1.87	2	0.52	1	0.60	-	-	5	0.74
Preparation and implementation of Programme	3	2.80	1	0.26	2	1.20	-	-	6	0.89
Teacher Training	15	14.02	39	10.08	15	9.04	1	7.14	70	10.39
Curriculum Evaluation	10	9.35	26	6.72	11	6.63	2	14.29	59	8.75
Opinions concerning the curriculum	24	22.43	40	10.34	19	11.45	-	-	81	12.02
Scale Development	2	1.87	11	2.84	7	4.22	-	-	20	2.97
Learning Approaches	2	1.87	3	0.78	-	-	-	-	5	0.74
Comparative Education and Curriculum Development	1	0.93	11	2.84	1	0.60	1	7.14	14	2.08
Other	-	-	90	23.26	35	21.08	2	14.29	122	18.10
Total	107	100	387	100	166	100	14	100	674	100

When findings related to research topics are examined in terms of the total number, it is seen that a total of 674 studies were made; 107, 1. at the first Congress of the National Curriculum and Instruction, 387 at international curriculum and Instruction Congress,166 at the second national curriculum and Instruction Congress and 14 at international Curriculum and Instruction journal. Findings indicate that studies were made on the topics of at most "The applications in the Process of Learning- Teaching and Assessment (% 17.21), "Hidden Curriculum" (% 0,74) the least, and "learning approaches" (% 0.74).When the trends of the topics at national and international congresses according to the time are examined, while it is seen an increase in the topics on" The applications in the Process of Learning- Teaching and Assessment", "Different environment, "Material", "Activities", "Approach", "Testing of Effectiveness of Method and Techniques" and "Scale Development", it is seen a decrease in the topics on "The Basics of Curriculum", "Theoretical Studies", "Teacher Training" and "Curriculum Evaluation".

Methods are represented in Table 12.

Table 2: Method

Method	Ayvalık		Eskişehir		Bolu		Journal		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Descriptive Scanning	45	37.82	115	29.72	69	41.32	3	21.43	232	33.77
Relational Scanning	5	4.20	14	3.62	8	4.79	-	-	27	3.93
Multiple Exception Method	-	-	1	0.26	-	-	-	-	1	0.15
Mixed	3	2.52	16	4.13	5	2.99	3	21.43	27	3.93
Experimental	4	3.36	14	3.62	10	5.99	1	7.14	29	4.22
Meta-analysis	-	-	5	1.29	2	1.20	-	-	7	1.02
Scanning the literature	10	8.40	12	3.10	2	1.20	-	-	24	3.49
Qualitative	13	10.92	38	9.82	28	16.77	-	-	79	11.50
Case Study	11	9.24	21	5.43	12	7.19	-	-	44	6.40
Sample event analysis	-	-	1	0.26	-	-	-	-	1	0.15
Action Research	1	0.84	4	1.03	-	-	1	7.14	6	0.87
Case science	-	-	4	1.03	3	1.80	1	7.14	8	1.16
Comparative Education	-	-	2	0.52	-	-	-	-	2	0.29
Unspecified	27	22.69	140	36.18	28	16.77	5	35.71	200	29.11
Total	119	100	387	100	167	100	14	100	687	100

When findings related to research methods are examined in terms of the total number, it seen that 687 research methods were used; 119, 1 at the first National Curriculum and Congress, 387 at the international Curriculum and Instruction Congress, 167 at the second National Curriculum and Congress and 14 at International Curriculum and Instruction Journal. However, that a finding related to the method was not achieved in a total of 200 (% 29.11) researches can be interpreted a dramatic data. Findings indicate that at most "Descriptive Scanning" (% 33.77) and the least "Multiple Exception Method" (% 0.15) and "Sample Event Analysis" (% 0.15) methods were used. From the findings, it can be said that descriptive scanning is nowadays the most preferred method, and also there has been an increase in the usage of experimental method. When the findings related to the method are examined, it is seen that there has been a decreasing trend in the usage of literature scanning method.A parallelism can be established between this situation and the decreasing trend of theoretical studies.

The results obtained from content analysis reveal the inconsistency of the described research process and the research method stated in certain studies. For instance, in E1 research, "…in the research, control group pre-test-post-test, research pattern and descriptive scanning model were applied. The research was performed on two groups. Cooperative learning in the experimental group and traditional teaching method in control group were applied."…this statement can be exemplified for this inconsistency. Method confusion was identified in some studies. In E6 study, the statement "…in the research, descriptive method, one of the qualitative research methods, was used." can be shown as an example for this confusion. In E7 study, the statement "… in the research, the interview method from qualitative research patterns was used." can be set another example for that confusion. In some researches where Quantitative and qualitative research methods are used together, it is seen that while there are explanations related to the method, this method is not expressed as a mixed method.

Data collection tools are represented in Table 13.

Table 3: Data Collection Tools

Data Collection Tools	Ayvalık		Eskişehir		Bolu		Journal		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Attitude scale	6	4.88	18	4.37	13	7.22	-	-	37	5.03
Survey	26	21.14	73	17.72	35	19.44	5	23.81	139	18.89
Inventory / Scale	22	17.89	73	17.72	26	14.44	3	14.29	124	16.85
Problem scenario	-	-	2	0.49	-	-	-	-	2	0.27
Success / permanence test	4	3.25	21	5.10	12	6.67	-	-	37	5.03
Interview Form	26	21.14	69	16.75	35	19.44	3	14.29	133	18.07
Observation Form	3	2.44	17	4.13	3	1.67	2	9.52	25	3.40
Document review	7	5.69	40	9.71	23	12.78	2	9.52	72	9.78
Open-ended questionnaire	2	1.63	13	3.16	6	3.33	-	-	21	2.85
Daily	-	-	4	0.97	2	1.11	2	9.52	8	1.09
Unspecified	27	21.95	82	19.90	25	13.89	4	19.05	138	28.04
Total	123	100	412	100	180	100	21	100	736	100

When the findings related to data collection tools used in researches are examined in terms of the total number, it is seen that 736 different data collection tools were used; 123, 1 at 1st National Curriculum and Instruction Congress, 412, 2 at 2nd International Curriculum and Instruction Congress, 180 at 2nd National Curriculum and Instruction Congress and 21 at International Curriculum and Instruction Journal. However, in a total of 138 (% 28.04) researches, that a finding related to data collection tool was not achieved can be interpreted as a dramatic data. The obtained findings indicate that data is collected by using at most "questionnaire" (% 18.89) and "Interview Form" (% 18.07), and the least "Problem scenario" (% 0, 27). When the trend according to the time in data collection tools used in studies at national and international congresses is examined, it is seen that there has been an increase in the usage of "success / permanence test", "document review" and "open-ended questionnaire" tools.

In the light of the qualitative data, it is indicated that scale and survey type tools in the introduction of data collection tools are used interchangeably. In E3 study, "…as data collection tool, to study the perspectives, the scale was prepared by researches. The survey consists of two parts…" In E4 study, "…according to the obtained result, the scale can be said to be reliable. With the statement, "in the final version of the survey with the validity and reliability studies…"scale and survey type tools were used interchangeably.

Data analysis techniques are represented in Table 14.

Table 4: Data Analysis Techniques

Data Analysis Techniques	Ayvalık		Eskişehir		Bolu		Journal		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
SPSS	-	-	27	4.25	1	0.39	-	-	28	2.43
Frequency	31	13.30	68	10.71	25	9.73	3	10.34	127	11.01
Percent	29	12.45	69	10.87	23	8.95	4	13.79	125	10.83
Arithmetic average	20	8.58	34	5.35	20	7.78	3	10.34	77	6.67
Standard Deviation	14	6.01	23	3.62	10	3.89	1	3.45	48	4.16
T test	28	12.02	54	8.50	20	7.78	4	13.79	106	9.19
K.Wallis H	5	2.15	13	2.05	6	2.33	1	3.45	25	2.17
Mann- Whitney U	5	2.15	15	2.36	5	1.95	-	-	25	2.17
One-way analysis of variance (Anova)	24	10.30	41	6.46	18	7.00	1	3.45	84	7.28
Pearson momentler	-	-	6	0.94	2	0.78	-	-	8	0.69
Regression analysis	-	-	4	0.63	1	0.39	-	-	5	0.43
Structural equation modeling	-	-	1	0.16	-	-	-	-	1	0.09
Covariance: (Ankova)	-	-	3	0.47	3	1.17	-	-	6	0.52
Manova	-	-	1	0.16	1	0.39	-	-	2	0.17
Chi-Square	3	1.29	7	1.10	4	1.56	-	-	14	1.21
Scheffe	7	3.00	7	1.10	1	0.39	-	-	15	1.30
Tukey hsd	3	1.29	3	0.47	1	0.39	-	-	7	0.61
LSD	1	0.43	4	0.63	2	0.78	2	6.90	9	0.78
Content Analysis	19	8.15	63	9.92	35	13.62	2	6.90	119	10.31
Descriptive Analysis	8	3.43	21	3.31	14	5.45	3	10.34	46	3.99
Document Analysis	4	1.72	10	1.57	5	1.95	1	3.45	20	1.73
NWIVO	-	-	-	-	1	0.39	-	-	1	0.09
Unspecified	32	13.73	134	21.10	57	22.18	4	13.29	227	19.67
Data analysis in progress	-	-	27	4.25	2	0.78	-	-	29	2.51
Total	233	100	635	100	257	100	29	100	1154	100

When the findings related to data analysis techniques used in researches are examined in terms of the total number, it is seen that 1154 different data analysis techniques were used; 233 1 at 1st National Curriculum and Instruction Congress, 635 at 1st International Curriculum and Instruction Congress, 257 at 2nd National Curriculum and Instruction Congress, 29 at International Curriculum and Instruction Studies Journal. However, in a total of 227(% 19.67) researches, a finding related to data analysis techniques was not achieved. In 29 (% 2.51) of studies reviewed, the process of data analysis is in progress was expressed, but there is no explanation on data analysis techniques. The obtained findings indicate that from quantitative data analysis techniques, at most "frequency" (% 11.01) and "percentage" (% 10.83) and the least "Structural equation modelling" (% 0.09) are used. On the other hand, it is seen that from qualitative data analysis techniques, at most "content analysis" (% 19.67), and the least "NWIWO" technique are preferred. When the trend of data analysis techniques in used in studies at national and international congresses according to the time is examined, it is seen that while there has been a decrease in the usage of

descriptive data analysis techniques such as "frequency", "percentage" and "t test", there has been an increase in the usage of "content analysis" technique. This situation can be interpreted as an indicator that there has been a decrease in the usage of quantitative data analysis techniques, and an increasing trend in the usage of qualitative data analysis techniques. Qualitative findings reveal that in some studies, data collection tools and data analysis techniques are inconsistent. For instance, in E2 research, "…to get the views of employees following the expert opinion, a survey was developed and conducted for 200 employees working in the institution. The obtained qualitative data was analysed…" On the other hand, in some researches, data analysis techniques are not expressed in a clear and understandable way and, and in others, package program used only in analysis process is expressed. E5 in the study explains the data analysis process with the statement; "…in data analysis, SPSS package program was used."

4 Conclusions and Recommendations

In this study, the following conclusions were achieved based on the data obtained.

1. With these research conclusions, in terms of topic distribution, a similarity is seen between the conclusions obtained in the research made by Ozan and Köse (2012), in which studies in the field of curriculum and instruction are scanned in ULAKBIM national database and in terms of topic distribution "The applications in the "Process of Learning-Teaching and Assessment", "Curriculum assessment", "Teacher Training", "Scale Development" and "Measurement and Evaluation".

In addition to this, a consistency is seen between the conclusions obtained from the examination of 72 post-graduation and doctorate thesis studies which are allowed to download from the thesis scanning department of Council of Higher Education and the ones made by Saraçoğlu and Dursun (2010) at the department of curriculum and Instruction in Turkey and the conclusions in the research made by Bıkmaz, Aksoy, Tatar and Atak Altınyüzük (2010, in which doctoral thesis made in the field of curriculum development in Turkey were examined.

2. In this study, the researchers examined were carried out by methods of quantitative (% 41.77), qualitative% 20.08 and mixed % 3.93. However, in % 29.11 of them, a method was not specified. On the other hand, while in the study made by Ozan and Köse (2012), in the articles examined, % 73.30 quantitative, % 11.80 qualitative, % 6.11 mixed method were used, in % 8.60 of them, a method was not specified. The result of two researches can be evaluated as the indicator that quantitative methods are more preferred than qualitative and mixed methods. In the researches made by Saraçoğlu and Dursun (2010) with Bıkmaz, Aksoy, Tatar and Atak Altınyüzük (2010), it was concluded that most of the studies examined were carried out by quantitative methods.

3. The results obtained from the research indicate that as a data collection technique, survey (% 18.89) is at most preferred. The findings achieved in the researches made by Saraçoğlu and Dursun (2010) and Bıkmaz, Aksoy, Tatar and Atak Altınyüzük (2010) supports this conclusion.

4. The distribution of percentage of the researchers examined which were analysed; % 35.10 by descriptive method, and % 26.70 by predictive method, % 16.12 by qualitative method. In the study made by Ozan and Köse (2012), the articles examined were analysed by % 46.07 descriptive method, % 41.66 predictive methods, and % 12.25 qualitative methods. It is seen that considering the result of two researches, in parallel with the methods used, quantitative data analysis techniques are more preferred than qualitative data analysis techniques

5. It was determined that there are a substantial number of researches, in which method, data collection and data analysis techniques are not specified. This situation can be explained in a way that some of studies are theoretical, but that there are no explanations mentioned in other studies can be seen as an important problem.

6. In most of the studies, it was seen that sub-headings, which are to be in a scientific study, were not included and all explanations were collected in a single paragraph. This situation makes it difficult for readers to understand and interpret the researches.

7. In the introduction of data collection tools, scale and survey type are used interchangeably, which causes a scientific contradiction.

8. Examining the studies, it was determined that there are few studies related to directly curriculum development.

9. In some researches published as abstract text, it was determined that data collection and analysis process is in progress and thus findings are not included.

In the research, recommendations based on the conclusions are listed below.

1. In researches, method, data collection and data analysis techniques should be expressed under the relevant headings in a clear and understandable way.

2. As that the uncompleted researches are included in the book of abstracts reduces the enjoyment degree from the research, only the completed researches should be included in the book of abstracts.

3. Considering the fact that there are few studies related to directly curriculum development, the number of curriculum development studies should be increased.

4. That abstracts are requested as the structured abstracts at congresses, the pressing of full-texts of studies are provided both can increase the quality of such congresses and contribute to make the shared studies more qualified.

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The Analysis of the Fatih Project the New Development in the Turkish Education System According to the Community, Input, Product, Process (CIPP) Model

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Abstract

As of the start of the years 2000, Turkey has made important gains in the field of establishing an equality system up to date. With the "Fatih Project in Education" and with the innovations made in the e-school system and educational technologies (reforms) a modernization period has ben entered at the same time with Europe and the world. The Fatih project is an undertaking aimed at establishing equality in education and eliminating all differences of level among all the students in all layers of society, living in all the regions, rural and urban areas through the use of computer tablets. The Fatih Project, which is the abbreviation for "Research the Opportunities the Action to improve Technology"   is one of the projections in this modernization process". Fatih, one of the new developments in the Turkish education system has brought many discussions together with its introduction.

When examined favorably, the purpose of the Fatih project is to interface the class environment with technology and to use technology permanently and to offer technology to the use of to every student. Even a student in the most remote corner of Turkey may study the subjects through the use of tablets individually at his/her own pace. By providing education through the computer tablets instead of learning through performing and living method; it is aimed at eliminating the difference of levels between the students living in the regions, cities and rural areas give them equal opportunity. However, trying to establish equal opportunity through the use of technology and to overcome the of levels between the students living in the urban and rural regions has opened this system to discussions. While this system is implemented in certain regions it will begin to be implemented Turkey wide as of the year 2015. This new system has brought many arguments with it. This reserach was conducted to answer the following questions from the anlysis of the Fatih Project conducted according to the community, input, product, process (CIPP) model.

1. Does the FATİH Project have general and special purposes?
2. What sort of changes do you expect for see in the students as a product at the end of the application of the FATİH Project? Can you make estimated comparions?
3. How can the concerns of the parents and the pedagogs in connection with the FATİH Project be overcome?
4. Has this implementation been introduced to meet a social need or for political concerns? What is the gist of the arguments in this regard?

This research method is qualitative research method. Data collection form was used in semi-structured interview developed by the investigators. Interview forms are created, experts gave their opinions. The sampling of the research is comprised of 200 participants such as principals, branch chiefs, assitant provincial education directors, and provincial education auditors Turkey wide who participated in the "Fatih Project" seminars conducted as the Rize/Çayeli On-the-Job Training Institute of the Ministry of Education during the 2011-2012 and 2012-2013 academic years.

Key Words: Fatih Project, CIPP Model, Fatih Project of CIPP Evaluation

Introductıon

In order to provide equal opportunity among all the members of the Ministry of Education it has introduced the "Fatih Project in Education" which is the abbreviation for "the Action to Increase Opportunities and Improve Technology" throughout the country, starting in the academic year 2011-2012, in 17 provices and 52 schools as the initial implementation schools. The pilot implementation of the project will be completed in 3 years and the education standards of 620 thousand classes throughout Turkey are expected to change and the former education with books and notebooks is expected to be converted into a new form of education replaced using informatic technologies. Under the scope of the project not only the lives of the students but the lives of the teachers will also change. The teachers will receive training from the informatic technology experts in order to adapt to this sytem in which informatic technology will be used. The students will study their lessons via the e-state education system to be prepared by the ministry. The contents of the program and the guidebooks for the teachers will be prepared anew under the scope of the project. The integration of the Fatih Project which starts from pre-school education will continue up to the last year of high school. The students will take examinations and lessons prepared under special programs. Use of the internet with awareness and safety is a part of the new education system.   The priority of the activities to be supported under the scope of the project is to especially provide equal opportunites among the children of families whose socio-economic levels are low and and the children of families with higher socio-economic levels throughout the country, and to set the way improve the quality of informatic technology in the country. The objective of the project is to provide information and access to the communication technologies to all the students. It was decided to make available informatic technologies to all the schools by the end of the year 2014 in order to eliminate the regional differences (Fatih Project, 2013).

In the hundreds of researches conducted in different parts of the world, comparing the results of computer supported eduation and non-computer supported education, a meaningful difference could not be found in favor of computer supported education systems (Ergün, 2011). Again, in the research conducted in the USA it was observed that the students were involved with their blogs, listened to music or sent e-mails to each other throughout the classes. Because the teacher had no control over the class the lessons could be interrupted at any time. Additionally, it was observed in the provices where the initial application was made, the children abbused this technnology in different ways (Güven, 2013).

It was observed from the research conducted in the wrold, that the implementations made in the USA, Brazil and Turkey, did not contribute to the success of the student.   For example, when the contributions to education of the tablet which was initiated in 2005 in the USA, was researched it was observed that this did not increase the success of the student and that they reverted back to the old system.   The amount spent that year only in one region for this purpose exceeded US$ 33 million (Güven, 2013).

In this study the (CIPP) model was used to conduct an overall evaluation of the Fatih Project implemented in 52 schools in 17 provinces Turkey wide. According to Stufflebeam (2003) a program is evaluated in a process of four steps according to Context, Input, Process, and Product and each step is implemented to decide on the program (Ornstein ve Hunkins, 1998; Erden, 1998; Demirel, 1999; Gözütok, 2000).

Problem Sentence

How will the product, obtained as a result of the evluation conducted according to context, input, process, product (CIPP) model of the Fatih project implemented Turkey wide, during the 2011-2012 academic year be?

Sub Problems

1. Does the Fatih Project have general and special purposes?
2. What sort of changes do you expect for see in the students as a product at the end of the application of the Fatih Project? Can you make estimated comparions?
3. How can the concerns of the parents and the pedagogs in connection with the Fatih Project be overcome?
4. Has this implementation been introduced to meet a social need or for political concerns? What is the gist of the arguments in this regard?

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to find answers, by obtaining the views of the education administrators to the question as to how the Fatih project evaluated according to context, input, product and process (CIPP) be? and implemented Turkey wide, and come up with recommendations for solutions to correct the deficiensies in the project.

Method

The method of the research is qualitative. Phenomenology design was used in keeping with the nature of the research. The pilot implementation of the reserah was conducted at the On-the-Job/Training Institute at Rize/Çayeli with the administrators who participated in the seminars and the questions in the discussion form were tested and the necessary corrections were made. The validity of the scope of the discussion form was accomplished by obtaining the views of the experts.

Sampling Group

The sampling of the research is comprised of 200 participants such as principals, branch chiefs, assitant provincial education directors, and provincial education auditors Turkey wide who participated in the "Fatih Project" seminars conducted as the Rize/Çayeli On-the-Job Training Institute of the Ministry of Education during the 2011-2012 and 2012-2013 academic years. Different types of samplings were used for the education administrators who partcipated in the working group for easy access and for representing each region and province where the pilot implementation is made. The demographic features of the education administrators who participated in the study are given in Table 1.

Table 1: Demographic features of the working group

Gender	Femalen	21
	Male	179
	6-10	24
	11-15	16
	16-20	30
	21-25	36
	26-30	20
	31-35	34
	36 and more	30
Education	Graduate	147
	Post graduate	53
Type of Duty	Branch Chief	50
	Asst.Prov.Education Director	50
	Prov. Edu.Auditor	50
	Principal	50

In Table 1 we see that women comprise 21% of the working group and men comprise 79%, majority of the members of the group have more than 16-20 years of senioriıty, which shows that they are quite experienced in this field and that most of them hold graduate degrees.

Analysis of the Data

NVIVO 8 qualitative data program was used in the analysis obtained from the aplication of the semi-completed discussion form. The compatibility of the codes was tested by obtaining the views of three experts for the codes used in the analysis of the data. Direct exerts were also contained to reflect the individual views and remarks of the educational administrators.

FINDINGS

Table 2:Contex and input evaluation according to the CIIP model

1. General and Special Purposes of the Fatih Project	Yes/f	No/f	Incomplete/f
Fatih Project has general and special purposes	200	-	-
Purposes of the Fatih Project have been identified for different types of schools	140	60	-
The scope of the lessons in the Fatih project are consistent with the purposes	80	100	20
2. Priorities in the implementation of the Fatih Project	Yes/f	No/f	Incomplete/f
Shortages in technical support and infrastructure have been eliminated	44	115	41
On-the-job training of teachers and and aministrators are complete	76	70	54
The (SAR) values of the smart boads were calculated	-	200	-
The student lesson books and teacher's guidebooks were prepared according to the new system	-	200	-
The technical features of the tablets are sufficient to process the interoperative lessons	-	147	53
The software for the computer supported interoperative lessons were prepared	-	200	-
The software of the lesson are sufficient to provide insight of the lesson	-	200	-

When the data contained in Table 2 are examined, in looking at the components of the contex and input we can say that the inputs are insufficient and incomplete for the pilot implementation. The radiation problem of the smart board which concerns the participants most from the findings the tablets, the lack of interoperatbity between he smart board and the tablets, the software of the interoprability lessons are incomplete and insufficient, and the techical features of the tablets are insufficient to process the interoperability lessons. The studies conducted by Dursun vd. in (2013) expressed the concerns of the school administrators. An opinion of one of the administrators is given below:

> "We say yes to the smart board be we definitely do not believe that there is any benefit in the tablet. This process reduces the book reading habits of the students. The students use the tablets primarily for games, music and the like entertainments. "

Table 3:Evaluation of process and product according to CIIP model

3. The results expected from the students and teachers as a product after the implementation of Fatih Project	out of 200 persons/f
Positive Views	
Addresses the field of sensing and learning	80
Interoperative processing of the lessons gives the teachers time	93
It helps the student to show interest in the lessons and supports individual learning	127
It offers different options according to the fields of intellect and makes the lesson more interesting	103
Negative Views	
This is a project imposed without making suffic ient studies	176
The community and the teachers are not ready for this sytem.	168
The state will incur economic lossesı	149
This will reduce becoming familiar with and reading books	182
At one time there was a generation that did not read and now we are heading for a generation that will not write	180
The system also supports distant learning.	147
As this system will reduce the creative learning and teaching habits of the teachers, lack of digital skills and mental laziness (this system will make both the teachers and the students lazy)	135
Weakening of establishing social relations and empathy	158
Will damage equal opportunity for the students living in rural areas	163
The disabled students will not benefit from this system.	182
Violence, bullying and unethical behaviour in the digital environment are being experienced.	149

In looking at the data contained in Table 3 there are more negative views in respect to application and product there are mor negative views than there are positive ones. This indicates that the educators have seriouinistras concerns in repect to this application. In the studies conducted with the school administrators by Dursun v.d. in (2003) Gürol, Donmuş and Arslan (2012) said they had encountered similar problems together with the Fatih Project. In the studies conducted by Çiftçi, Taşkaya and Alemdar in (2013) with the class teachers they had similarly stated that the project will adversly affect the reading and writing habits of the students. The positive and negative views of the dministrators in respect to the subject are given below:

"I find the Fatih project to be very beneficial. Our students are becoming acquainted with technology.   This saves the students from carrying loads of books. This will save the administration from financial expenses and save the forests and trees and from wasting time. This system saves the students from carrying books. I find it to be beneficial".

"I believe that our people are not yet ready for this system. I believe that the system will bring economic losses to the states and to the public. I don't know how people can be successful without feeling the warmth of a book, without writing, without going into trouble, without researching and questionıng?

"At one time we had a generation that did not read. Now we are heading for a generation that will not write.   I believe that this ystem will make the teacnation of the problems encounterelimihers lazy also. I also believe that there is some abuse in the use of the computer tablets. I want the matter to be reconsidered. I protest people who are not educators to make desicions on education. I want them to consult the matter with the educators".

Table 4: Views of the families and pedagogs

4. Concerns of the families and pedagos in connection with the Fatih Project	out of 200 persons/f
Families and students are content	183
Educators are concerned	167
Determination of the subjects on which the families and pedgogs have concerns, mainting constant contact with the members for the solution of the problems and to make corrections in the system	145
Informatic ethics should be included in the program	159

When the data in Table 4 is examined we see that, in general, the students and the families are content with the system and that educators and the pedagos have concerns on the matter.

Table 5: Views on the implementation of the system as a communal necessity and state policy

5. System as a communal necessity and state policy	out of 200 prsons/f
Political advertisement	183
Although this is a communal need the system was introduced for a political purpose	167
This system was bred both for communal needs and from political concerns.	145
This is a communal and universal requirement which is late in the making	79

In reviewing Table 5 we see that, in addition to those who support the system, there are many who don't, and who view this implementation as a political advertisement.

Conclusıon

According to the data obtained from the education administrators who were in the pilot implementation of the Fatih project and from the CIPP evaluation we can say the following for the implementation from contex and input components;   we can say that although the purpose was determined beforehand, not meeting the main features such as the training of the teachers and administrators, preparation of the textbooks and software, technical infrastructure, the tablets having the technical features to study lessons, we can say that the systm is not ready to be implemented because of the aforementioned insufficiensies and shortfalls.

We can cite the following results by indicating that there are problems especially in the implementation dimension:

- This an implemntation where no consideration has been given to diabled students
- Students living in the rural regions whose socio-economic levels are low do not support this system
- There are no interoperable software for each lesson. What was done was that they entered the
- İnformation in the books into computers
- The inability to write on the tablets is a great shortfall as well.
- The students will be limited to the information avalable in the tablets, they weii be behind in thinking and in acquiring skills at synthesis level.
- The students's skill of writing, reading and thinking will be blunted.
- The students will be prevented from developing their skills in developing social activities and establishing empathy.
- Offences such as violence, bullying in the digital environment are being experienced. Therefore, lessons such as informatic ethics should be included in the program. Sanal ortamda şiddet, zorbalık gibisiber suçlara

yönelik olumsuz durumlar yaşanmaktadır. Bu nedenle bilişim etiği gibi derslerin de programda yer alması gerekir.

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Problems and Solutions on Implementation of Civilization and Democracy Education Program

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Abstract

Purpose of this study was to identify problems and possible solutions on implementation of civilization and democracy education program from teachers' perspectives. A phenomenological study was conducted in order to achieve this aim. Participants of the study were 14 social sciences teachers working at elementary schools in Ankara and chosen by snowball sampling. For the study, data were gathered by semi structured interviews in order to have in-depth information and analyzed by descriptive analysis. Results of the study showed that some objectives of the program are hard to achieve; there is not enough connection between content and daily life experiences; some activities are too hard to implement due to the crowded classrooms and time limitations; explanations about implementations are not clear enough for teachers; and teachers are not using evaluation tools suggested by the program.

Keywords: Civilization and Democracy Education Program; Phenomenology; Curriculum Studies.

1   Introduction

Purpose of education is to raise citizens, who can easily be adapted to social changes and developments; have democracy culture and are defensive about human rights. This situation makes education become more important especially for the societies ruled by democracy. In these societies, it is necessary for citizens to be educated in order to adopt democracy, human rights and freedoms; bring them into their way of life; and fulfil their responsibilities. For this reason, states give citizenship, democracy and human rights education to their citizens.

Citizenship education has been defined by focusing on the responsibilities of individuals as citizens like preparation of youth to their roles and responsibilities as citizens during education process (Kerr, 2009) or activity process taking place in order to provide preparation for citizens' roles and responsibilities (Devies, 2000).

As emphasized also by Will Kymlicka (1999), citizenship education is not only learning basic realities of institutions and political life, but also includes in-depth commitment to democracy and acquiring values brought by democracy (cited in Mclaughlin, 2000). Citizenship education is given to make citizenships become aware of their rights and responsibilities; and understand the importance of being an active citizen in a democracy (Collins and O'Brien, 2003). In this kind of education, it is necessary to teach individuals democracy; skills related to democracy; democratic values like equality, justice and freedom; and principles of democracy like pluralism and overall participation.

Gülmez (2001) emphasized that democracy is an administration process providing opportunity for human development in all aspects freely. Moreover, he stated that it is hard for democracy to survive in the societies with people not protecting democracy, where autocracy will take the place. For this reason, it is important for the societies ruled by democracy to raise human preserving democracy by 'democracy education'.

Democracy education is defined as education that gives value and importance to student's value as an individual; group working; mutual respect and personality in education stages, teacher-student relationships and educational activities (Oğuzkan, 1981: 46). Furthermore, democracy education is a process that involves learning of democratic behaviors by living (Lister, 1982) and this process can be effective and permanent when it is progressed with democratic procedures and in democratic environments. Democratic life style is internalized and improved in democratic

environments. For instance, in an environment where individual are respectful to human rights, it is more possible for them to acquire to respect human rights. Similarly, being tolerant can be learned in an environment filled with tolerance. Because of that, it is important to have one's rights such as education, communication, etc. and use these rights appropriately in the societies where democracy education takes place. Human rights are values reflecting respect to human life and honor. Democracy and human rights are indispensable to each other and protection and improvement level of democracy and human rights in a country is a demonstrator of democracy in that country (Gözütok 2007). From this perspective, democracy and human rights should be considered together.

In a certain developmental age of humanity, "human rights" are a list of individualized rights that each individual theoretically deserves to have; or a body of superior, universal principles and rules aiming to develop and protect one's identity which must be endowed innately for just being born as a human being. Human rights are the rights securing human dignity (Karaman–Kepenekçi, 2008; Yeşil, 2002; Gülmez, 2001) and they contribute to rising of individuals' living standards (Flowers, 2000).

States who have been signed the international agreements are responsible from introducing human rights and teaching respect to human rights to their citizens. It cannot be expected from everyone to live their rights and freedoms; and be respectful and tolerant to the owners of these rights and freedoms without having an education basing on human rights (Tanırlı, 2007). For this reason, individuals need to be educated in terms of human rights.

Although human rights education is mostly considered as teaching of human rights, it is actually not limited with teaching. Transferring of values related to human rights and creating specific behaviors are also included in the scope of this education. During human rights education, it is important to give information about international regulations; enhance efforts for preserving of human rights at regional, national, international levels and prevention of human rights violations; work towards the elimination of barriers mystifying human rights; provide opportunity for students to be able to make a synthesis of universal and national values and evaluate standards about human rights (Karaman-Kepenekçi, 2000). Moreover, in order for someone to know his rights and live with these rights, it is essential for him to observe these rights in his democratic life. For this reason, human rights education needs to be a part of social and political education (Cunningham, 1993). Furthermore, it should be put into practice in a structure aiming to acquire knowledge and skills for individuals' behavior change in order to create a universal culture of human rights (Davis, 2000).

Education of human rights, democracy and civilization should be started at families. Parents should be models for their children by their democratic attitudes and behaviors; and they should be respectful to their children's rights and freedoms. However, it is possible that negative attitudes and behaviors can occur in children since the education given at home is not systematic. Because of that, schools have an important role on transforming these behaviors from negative to positive. For this reason, lessons like education of civilization, democracy and human rights should be started at preschool level and continued at all education levels. Nevertheless, these lessons are given at elementary schools in Turkey since preschool education is not common.

Elementary education is the level of education system that students can learn democratic values, duties and responsibilities about civilization, rights and freedoms; and use these values. Since the foundation of Turkish Republic, it has been tried to provide theoretical part of democratization process with the help of lessons in education programs. At first, these lessons were given at 4th and 5th grades with different names like Civics, Citizenship, Human Rights and Civilization Education. Then, these lessons took place at 7th and 8th grades since compulsory education became eight years (Gözütok, 2007). Moreover, although in early years of the Republic, lessons had been more focused on citizens' responsibilities to states, they have been also focused on human rights and freedoms and democracy since 1990's.

On the other hand, civilization education has been taking place in learning process as an "inter-discipline" rather than a lesson since 2005 Programs (ERG, 2005). In 2006 – 2007 academic year, implementation of "Inter-discipline" took place at 1st and 6th grades, whereas in 2007 – 2008 and 2008 – 2009 academic years at 7th and 8th grades in order. Since then, Civilization and Human Rights lesson, given as a separate course at 7th and 8th grades, has been removed from the program.

After 5 years from the removal of Civilization and Human Rights lesson, "Civilization and Democracy Education Program" was developed for 8th grades and implemented at September 14, 2010 (MEB, 2010). At first, pilot implementation was done at 10 cities in 2010 – 2011 academic years and changes were made due to the results of piloting. Then, it started to be taught as a compulsory lesson in 2011 – 2012 academic years. In other words, "Civilization and Democracy Education Program" was taught as an elective course in 2010 – 2011 academic years and have become a compulsory course since 2011 – 2012 academic years. It was aimed with the program to educate students who are respectful to human dignity; knowledgeable and defensive about human rights and freedoms; filled with the culture of democracy; and fulfilling the responsibilities of citizenship.

There are four themes named as "Every human is valuable", "Democracy culture", "Our rights and freedoms" and "Our duties and responsibilities" in Civilization and Democracy Education Program (MEB, 2010). For this reason, it can be said that Civilization and Democracy Education Program aimed students to be familiar with the basic concepts of democracy culture, civilization, human rights and freedoms; gain awareness, sensitiveness, consciousness, opinions, attitudes and behaviors about these concepts.

However, studies (Arıkan, 2002; Başaran; 2007, Toraman, 2012; Uyangör, 2008; Yiğittir, 2007) show that Civilization and Democracy Education Program has also problems about achieving the objectives like former Civilization and Human Rights Programs. In these studies, it draws the attention that problems are mostly caused by learning process. For this reason, it is necessary to examine teachers' opinions about problems in this process and possible solutions to these problems thoroughly since they are the implementers of the program. Finally, it is thought that results of the study will contribute to program development process and literature.

1.1 Purpose and Research Questions

Purpose of the study was to identify problems and possible solutions on implementation of civilization and democracy education program from teachers' perspectives. In the light of this aim, researchers asked for the following questions: What are the opinions of teachers about implementation of Civilization and Democracy Education Program's

- Objectives,
- Content,
- Learning process,
- Evaluation process?

2 Method

2.1 Research Design

Phenomenological research design from qualitative research designs was conducted to reveal the implementation problems and possible solutions of civilization and democracy education from teachers' perspectives as the purpose of the phenomenological research is to focus on phenomenon that we are aware of but do not have in-depth understanding (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2011).

2.2 Sample

Participants of the study were 14 social sciences teachers working at elementary schools in Ankara. Participants were chosen by snowball sampling from purposeful sampling strategies in which interviewed teachers were asked for recruit other knowledgeable teachers among their acquaintances since it provides opportunity to talk with "information-rich key informants or critical cases" (Patton, 1990; 176). All of the teachers interviewed were working as social sciences teachers at state schools and four of them were female whereas ten of them are male.

2.3 Data Collection Procedures

Data of the study were gathered by interviews conducted with teachers as Marshall and Rossman (1995; 82) described interview from a phenomenological perspective as '... a specific type of in-depth interviewing grounded in the theoretical tradition of phenomenology'.

Semi-structured interview schedule was used to reveal perceptions of teachers about implementation of civilization and democracy education program in terms of objectives, content, learning and evaluation processes. Before the interviews, semi-structured interview schedule, prepared by the researchers, was reviewed by three subject specialists from human rights education, qualitative research and measurement and evaluation areas. A pilot interview was also conducted to reveal the nonworking parts of the schedule. Due to the feedbacks of subject specialists and pilot interview, the schedule took its final form.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted between February, 11 and March 1, 2013 and recorded by tapes with the permission of interviewees and tape-records were transcribed by the researchers. However, two of the interviews had to be put down on paper by researchers' note-taking due to the lack of permission for tape-recording. Moreover, although individual interviews in order to make interviewees feel more comfortable were preferred, two of the teachers had to be interviewed at the same time due to their time limitations.

2.4　Data Analysis

After the transcription of tape-records and clarification of field notes? the data were analyzed by content analysis. During the content analysis, inductive coding in which the patterns, codes, themes and categories come from the data rather than being decided prior to the data gathering or analysis (Patton, 1990) was preferred. In other words, the coding system of the data was developed after the data collection by the researchers since there was no existing framework for the coding (Marshall and Rossman, 2006). For this reason, first, all of the researchers did several readings of the data in order to better understand the texts and searched for the regularities and patterns as well as for topics that the data covered. After labelling the topics and patterns with words and phrases presenting them, which is called as coding, all researchers went through the data in order to establish consistency in coding. Then, final codes were categorized under themes due to the aim of the study with the help of discussions carried by the researchers.

2.5　Transferability and Trustworthiness

In order to conduct a transferable and trustworthy study, during the interview scheduling process, expert opinions about the appropriateness of the questions were taken into consideration and a pilot interview was conducted. By this way, dependability of the study was satisfied as techniques had been used were evaluated in order to provide credibility and transferability criteria. Finally, with the help of discussions between researchers during the data analysis process, peer debriefing was also took place (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

3　Results

The results of the analysis were given under six main subtopics:

- Teachers' Opinions about Objectives of Civilization and Democracy Program
- Teachers' Opinions about Content of Civilization and Democracy Program
- Teachers' Opinions about Learning Process of Civilization and Democracy Program
- Teachers' Opinions about Evaluation Process of Civilization and Democracy Program
- Teachers' Opinions about Teachers Teaching Civilization and Democracy Program
- Teachers' Opinions about Other Problems and Solutions of Civilization and Democracy Program

3.1. Teachers' Opinions about Objectives of Civilization and Democracy Program

Opinions of teachers participated in the study about objectives of Civilization and Democracy Program were summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Teachers' Opinions about Objectives of Civilization and Democracy Program

Opinions	Frequency
Positive Sides of Objectives	**18**
Clear and understandable	12
Simple	5
Appropriate for students' level	1
Problems About Objectives	**9**
Not appropriate for students' readiness level	5
Not clear or understandable	2
Not written in a systematic way	1
written imprecisely	1
Suggestions About Objectives	**4**
Need to be concreticized	2
Need to provide flexibility to the teachers	1
Need to be reviewed	1

As it is seen from Table 1, most of the teachers thought that objectives are clear and understandable. Although some of the teachers found objectives simple, some other found them not appropriate for students' readiness level. For this reason, two of the teachers suggested objectives to be more concretized.

Similarly, Toraman's (2012) study basing on teachers' views about the lesson showed that teachers found objectives appropriate and serving for the purpose, which is parallel with the findings of this study.

Opinions of teachers participated in the study about the teachability/practicability of Civilization and Democracy Program's objectives were summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Teachers' Opinions about Teachability/Practicability of Objectives Civilization and Democracy Program

Opinions	Frequency
Positive Sides about teachability and practicability of Objectives	**8**
The objectives are teachable	8
Problems about teachability and practicability of Objectives	**19**
The objectives are hard to turn into behaviour	6
Conflict between taught and real life	5
Objectives are not teachable and practicable	4
Hard to teach the abstract objectives	2
Similarities between lessons' objectives and former objectives given as inter-discipline objectives	1
Conflict between content and some objectives	1
Suggestions About teachability and practicability of Objectives	**5**
Connection between taught and real life must be provided	4
Objectives must be written in the students' books	1

In Table 2, it is seen that most of the teachers thought that objectives are teachable, whereas others mentioned the opposite due to the problems about teachability and practicability of objectives. Mostly stated problems are that students have difficulty in changing their behaviours due to what they have learned; and connecting their learning to real life. Because of that, teachers focused on that a connection between taught and real life should be satisfied.

In Table 3, opinions of teachers participated in the study about the measurability of Civilization and Democracy Program's objectives were summarized.

Table 3: Teachers' Opinions about Measurability of Objectives Civilization and Democracy Program

Opinions	Frequency
Positive Sides about measurability of Objectives	**4**
Measurability of the objectives	4
Problems about measurability of Objectives	**20**
Hard to measure	10
Hard to observe behavior change due to the conflict between taught and real life	5
Pressure on teachers about grades	2
Student's unwillingness about measurement and evaluation	1
Using classical measurement tools	1
Evaluating students based on national examination style questions rather than behavior change	1
Suggestions About measurability of Objectives	**2**
open ended questions must be asked	2

It was specified in Table 3 that most of the teachers found objectives hard to measure. Moreover, some of them mentioned that it is hard for them to observe behaviour change in their students since there is a gap between what they have taught and real life. Although teachers identified lots of problems about measurability of objectives, they did not give plenty of suggestions. Only two of them mentioned that asking open ended questions should be better. This situation gives rise to the thought of teachers' professional illiteracy in measurement and evaluation.

Likewise, teachers stated in Toraman's (2012) study that they have difficulties in finding examples about measurement and evaluation and measuring some objectives. Moreover, Uyangör (2007) also resulted that teachers found explanations and examples about measurement and evaluation insufficient.

3.2. Teachers' Opinions about Content of Civilization and Democracy Program

Opinions of teachers participated in the study about content of Civilization and Democracy Program were summarized in Table 4.

Table 4: Teachers' Opinions about Content of Civilization and Democracy Program

Opinions	Frequency
Positive Sides about Content	**14**
Appropriateness of content	5
Connection to real life	5
Better content compared to former program (2005)	2
Contemprary Topics	1
Topics about universal values	1
Poblems about Content	**38**
No connection between content and real life	7
Inappropriate content for student level	5
Insufficient knowledge in textbooks	5
No opportunity to practice students' learnings	4
Inappropriate content for children	2
Content that is too theoretical	2
Content not appropriate for behavior change	2
Content not appropriate for 'closer to further' principle	2
Content not interesting for students	2
Topics frequently repeating	2
Content not appropriate for 'from simple to complex' principle	1
More abstract content compared to former (2005) program	1
Repetition of topics taught at former grades	1
Hard to teach democratic values	1
Teaching responsibilities before democracy in content	1
Suggestions about Content	**50**
Providing connection between content and real life	10
Concentrating more on individual's rights and ways of regal remedies	6
Having more relevant content to the county's agenda	4
Giving priority to democracy in content	4
Adding knowledge about legislations to the content	4
Not removing topics from program	2
Not repeating previous topics, rather adding new topics in content	2
having problem-project based content	2
giving responsibilities of states to citizens clearly in content	2
Giving content more detailed for some topics	2
having contemporary content	2
not giving examples inappropriate for students' level	2
Having important topics like rights at the beginning	2
Putting universal values in content	1
Putting "Historical development of human rights" in content	1
Teaching responsibilities less	1
Teaching both rights and responsibilities	1
Renewing of content	1
Simplifying content	1

In Table 4, it is obvious that some teachers found content of the program appropriate and connected to real life, whereas others found conflict between content and real life. Moreover, problems stated by teachers were that content is not appropriate for student level; there is not enough knowledge in students' textbooks; and students do not have opportunity to practice their learning. Because of that, most of the teachers suggested providing connection between content and real life. Furthermore, teachers also recommended concentrating more on individual's rights and ways of regal remedies rather than teaching responsibilities; having more contemporary content; giving priority to democracy in content; and putting knowledge about legislations in content. In other words, it can be said that having topics like civilization, responsibilities and individuals' responsibilities more than topics like individuals' rights and democracy are attention getting for teachers.

In the study conducted by Karaman–Kepenekçi (2005), teachers mentioned that a) lesson is not effective when it is based on knowledge; b) lesson is also ineffective when content and other factors are considered; c) there is a need for arrangements in the program for students' to develop skill like critical thinking, cooperation and participation so that the lesson become more effective. Different than Karaman–Kepenekçi's study, in this study, results showed that teachers found knowledge given in content insufficient.

3.3. Teachers' Opinions about Learning Process of Civilization and Democracy Program

Teachers' opinions about learning process of Civilization and Democracy Program were summarized in Table 5.

Table 5: Teachers' Opinions about Learning Process of Civilization and Democracy Program

Opinions	Frequency
Positive Sides about Activities	**5**
Practicable	3
Activities give ideas to teachers	1
Not Having problems during activities	1
Poblems about Activities	**51**
Not practicable	11
Insufficient time for some activities	5
Teachers' not implementing activities in classrooms	6
Hard to implement in classroom situations	5
Not appropriate for student level	4
Prepared imprecisely	3
Only some of the activities are practicable	3
Discipline problems during activity implementations	3
Conflict between activities and real life	3
Too many activities	2
Program developers' reflecting their views on activities	1
Not reflecting social diversities	1
Program developers' not knowing constructivism	1
Teachers' not reading activities	1
Students' not finding activities realistic	1
Ineffective in achieving objectives	1
Suggestions about Activities	**36**
Providing connection between activities and real life	6
Reducing the number of activities	4
Providing more flexibility to teachers about activities	3
Increasing the number of fieldtrips to institutions	3
Increasing the number of project based activities	3
Giving knowledge in content of activities	3
Reorganizing activities such a way that less in number but better in quality	2
Having appropriate activities for student level	2
Making students like the lesson	2
Having appropriate group works for student level	2
Having interdisciplinary activities	1
Using students' daily life experiences	1
Preparing boards in activities	1
Enriching activities	1
Interviewing with experts about topics	1
Considering lesson more (school administration)	1

As seen from Table 5, some teachers thought that activities are practicable, whereas most others claimed the opposite. Other problems indicated by teachers are that there is not enough time for some activities; teachers are not implementing activities in classrooms; some activities are hard to implement in classroom situations; some activities are not appropriate for student levels; activities are prepared imprecisely; discipline problems occur during implementations; and there is a gap between activities and real life situations. Prominent suggestion for these problems is providing connection between activities and real life situations. Teachers also suggested that they should be more flexible during activities; number of activities should be increased; field trips to institutions should be done; projects should be designed by students; and knowledge should be given to the students in content.

As mentioned before, different than Karaman–Kepenekçi's (2005) study, teachers participated in this study thought that knowledge given to the students is not sufficient and suggested to improve. On the other hand, it can be said that designing projects will help students to improve their critical thinking, cooperation and participation skills, which was also found in that study. Similarly, both studies resulted that duration of the lessons should be increased in order to have more effective lessons. In addition, Toraman (2012) also found that although activities are student-oriented, there is not enough time for implementing these activities. Parallel to these findings, Başaran (2007), Uyangör (2007) and İnan (2005) also found that duration of lessons is not enough for implementing these activities.

Teachers' opinions about activity explanations of Civilization and Democracy Program were summarized in Table 6.

Table 6: Teachers' Opinions about activity explanations of Civilization and Democracy Program

Opinions	Frequency
Positive Sides about explanations of Activities	**8**
Clear explanations	4
Adequateness of explanations	2
Implementation friendly explanations	1
Explanations giving idea about practices	1
Poblems about explanations of Activities	**11**
Not practicable explanations	5
Teachers' not reading activity explanations	3
Insufficient explanations	2
Inflexible explanations	1
Suggestions about explanations of Activities	**2**
Having explanations appropriate for student level	1
Having explanations appropriate for sociocultural environment (considering regional differences)	1

Table 6 shows that although teachers found explanations of activities clear, they have problems during their implementation. They also mentioned as a problem that they do not read these explanations. Moreover, they suggested these explanations to be appropriate for student level though they are for teachers.

Opinions of teachers participated in the study about teaching methods and techniques of Civilization and Democracy Program were summarized in Table 7.

Table 7: Teachers' Opinions about Teaching Methods and Techniques of Civilization and Democracy Program

Opinions	Frequency
Positive sides of teaching methods and techniques	**4**
Practicable	4
Poblems about teaching methods and techniques	**57**
Teaching methods and techniques lessons at undergraduate level	9
Inadequate knowledge of teachers about methods and techniques	9
Insufficient time for implementation of methods and techniques	8
Using only lecturing	7
Hard to implement	5
Discipline problems during implementations	5
Not implementing methods and techniques	4
Students' familiarity with classical methods	3
Practicability of methods and techniques only in some classrooms	3
Teacher's not improving themselves about methods and techniques	3
Not having teaching methods and techniques lesson with practice at undergraduate level	1
Suggestions about teaching methods and techniques	**20**
Increasing time	4
Rearranging physical structure of classrooms due to needs of methods and techniques	4
Motivating students about research	3
Being persistent about implementing new methods and techniques	2
Giving compulsory courses to teachers about teaching methods and techniques	2
Making teachers to self-question themselves	1
Using drama	1
Giving freedom to teachers about content selection	1
Combining objectives	1
Awarding teachers when they make good implementations	1

When looked at Table 7, it can be said that some teachers have problems in implementation of activities. Some of these problems are that there is not enough time for using these methods and techniques; teachers mostly prefer lecturing during their lessons, most of the methods and techniques are hard to implement; discipline problems are occurring during implementation of methods and techniques; students are used to classical teaching methods and techniques; and finally teachers are not knowledgeable about new methods and techniques since they did not have practical lessons during their undergraduate education or did not have in-service education new methods and techniques. Karaman–Kepenekçi (2005) also mentioned that lessons should be more effective if teachers have guiding books or information about appropriate teaching methods and materials for activities. Furthermore, suggestions to other problems are increasing time, rearranging physical structure of classrooms due to needs of methods and techniques and motivating students about research.

3.4. Teachers' Opinions about Evaluation Process of Civilization and Democracy Program

Teachers' opinions about evaluation process of Civilization and Democracy Program were summarized in Table 8.

Table 7: Teachers' Opinions about Evaluation Process of Civilization and Democracy Program

Opinions	Frequency
Positive sides of measurement and assessment	**2**
Practicable	2
Poblems about measurement and assessment	**30**
Not implementing suggested measurement methods and techniques	8
Students' being uninterested in measurement tools like performance tasks and projects	7
Not practicable	3
Implementation of classical exams	3
Performance tasks' being not reliable	2
Students' making their assignments with laziness	1
Not having effective seminars	1
Teachers' not being knowledgeable about measurement and evaluation	1
Suggesting inefficient measurement tools	1
Teachers' not reading explanations of program and measurement tools	1
Students' grade concerns	1
Having plenty of measurement tools	1
Suggestions about measurement and assessment	**11**
Increasing lesson hours	2
Giving teachers in-service trainings by experts about measurement and evaluation	2
Using performance evaluation	2
Giving grades classically	1
Using classical measurement tools	1
Annihilating classical exams	1
Giving less but eligible performance tasks	1
Grading students' behaviors in classroom and school	1

It is seen from Table 8 that teachers are not implementing suggested measurement methods and techniques; students are uninterested in performance tasks and projects; measurement tools are not practicable; and teachers mostly prefer measurement tools with they are familiar like classical exams.

As a solution, increasing lesson hours; giving teachers in-service trainings by experts about measurement and evaluation; and giving more importance to performance evaluation were suggested. Similarly, results of other studies showed that teachers have difficulties in finding examples about measurement and evaluation and in measuring some objectives (Toraman, 2012); and they found explanations and examples about measurement and evaluation insufficient (Uyangör, 2007).

Teachers' opinions about measurement and evaluation tools of Civilization and Democracy Program were summarized in Table 9.

Table 9: Teachers' opinions about measurement and evaluation tools of Civilization and Democracy Program

Opinions	Frequency
Positive sides of explanations of measurement and assessment tools	**5**
Sufficient explanations	5
Poblems about explanations of measurement and assessment tools	**7**
Explanations not read by teachers	5
Explanations not reflected to the implementations	1
Explanations not understood	1

As seen from Table 9, some teachers thought that there are sufficient explanations in the program about measurement and evaluation. On the contrary, Uyangör's (2007) study showed that teachers found explanations and examples insufficient in the program. Furthermore, it was seen as a problem that teachers are not reading these explanations.

3.5. Teachers' Opinions about Teachers Teaching Civilization and Democracy Program

Teachers' opinions about teachers teaching Civilization and Democracy Program were summarized in Table 10.

Table 10: Teachers' opinions about teachers teaching Civilization and Democracy Program

Opinions	Frequency
Problems about teachers	**8**
Teachers' not being prepared for lessons	3
Not following the agenda due to political obstacles (Officers' law, Complaint line)	2
teachers' low motivation	1
Lesson being given by teachers from different branches	1
teachers' self-censor	1
Suggestions about teachers	**4**
Giving in-service training to teachers	2
Motivating teachers about in-service training	1
Increasing extra-curricular workload of teachers	1

Table 10 shows that teachers also criticized their colleagues in this study. Results indicated that teachers are not getting prepared before lessons and they cannot discuss contemporary agenda due to political reasons. Moreover, they stated that giving in-service training to teachers and motivating them about taking these educations will be helpful. Likewise, teachers mentioned that attending to in-service trainings and following innovations will increase efficiency in Karaman–Kepenekçi's (2005) study.

3.6. Teachers' Opinions about Other Problems and Solutions of Civilization and Democracy Program

Teachers' opinions about other problems and solutions of Civilization and Democracy Program were summarized in Table 11.

Table 11: Teachers' Opinions about Other Problems and Solutions of Civilization and Democracy Program

Opinions	Frequency
Other positive sides	**2**
aiming to ensure good citizens	1
providing awareness of democracy	1
Other problems	**81**
Students' being uninterested and unconcerned about lesson	14
Insufficient time	10
Insufficient number of questions in national examinations	8
Conflict between program and real life	7
Program developers' not knowing teachers enough	5
Hardness of teaching abstract concepts	4
Conflict between school education and family education	4
Teaching other lessons rather than cde	4
Program's being not appropriate to turkey and country realities	3
Program developers' not considering ideas of stakeholders	3
Conflict between thought and society	3
Lack of materials	3
Not having a democratic environment in schools	2
Lack of technological tools	2
Having problems due to political reasons if contemporary agenda is discussed at classroooms	2
Not giving some important topics due to time limitation	2
Program's being like direct translation	1
Teachers' finding lesson unnecessary	1
Students' not considering lesson	1
Programs' being extremely directive	1
Effect of parents' political views on teacher and education	1
Other Suggestions	**44**
Increasing duration of lesson	9
Giving lesson at former grades	8
Satisfying relationship between content and real life	6
Increasing student motivation	4
Increasing number of questions about this lesson at national examinations	4
Giving content under revolution history lesson	4
Using audio-visual tools with textbooks	3
Giving examples to topics and concretize abstract concepts	2
Starting education at family	2
Incorporating students into decision making process in any situations	1
Increasing student motivation about claiming their rights	1

As summarized in Table 11, there are other problems such as insufficient time; insufficient number of questions in national examinations; conflict between program and real life; hardness of teaching abstract concepts; and conflict between school education and family education. In addition, teachers also mentioned that students are uninterested in lesson; program developers do not know students enough; and other lessons are given during this lesson time. Suggestions stated by teachers were increasing duration of lesson; giving lesson at former grades; satisfying relationship between content and real life; increasing student motivation; increasing number of questions about this lesson at national examinations; giving content under Revolution History Lesson; and using audio-visual tools with textbooks. Also in Karaman–Kepenekçi's (2005) study, teachers emphasized the necessity of increasing duration of lesson and students' being uninterested in lessons.

4 Conclusions

In this study aiming to identify problems and possible solutions on implementation of civilization and democracy education program, it can be concluded that

- Some objectives are not appropriate for students' readiness level and it is difficult for some objectives to feign and to observe behaviour change.
- Content of the program is insufficient and not appropriate for student level so that students can not reflect what they have learned to their lives.
- Some activities are not appropriate for student level; teachers are not considering explanations about activities; some activities are not practicable; some teachers are implementing neither activities nor teaching methods and techniques in classrooms; teachers implementing activities are having discipline problems; duration of lessons not enough time for implementation of activities; teachers prefer mostly lecturing as they have difficulties in implementation of new methods and techniques; and teachers are not knowledgeable about teaching methods and techniques since their teaching methods and techniques course in undergraduate level had not been effective.
- Teachers are not reading explanations about measurement and evaluation in the program. Because of that they are mostly using measurement tools with which they are familiar rather than using tools proposed by the program. Similarly, students are also uninterested in new measurement and evaluation. For this reason, teachers are mostly using classical examinations for measurement and evaluation.
- Teachers are not coming to classrooms prepared and not preferring to discuss contemporary agenda due to political reasons. Moreover, program developers do not know students enough; students are uninterested in lesson; classrooms are too crowded; there are differences between education given at schools and education given at families; and finally other lessons are given in this lesson time.

About the solutions, teachers suggested that

- Objectives should be more concrete.
- Content should be more related to life and country's agenda; and include individual's rights, ways of legal remedies, democracy, and laws more.
- Number of activities should be reduced and more flexibility should be given to teachers in activities. Students should be more active in learning process by fieldtrips, projects and research. Moreover, physical structure of classrooms should be rearranged due to the needs of methods and techniques and lessons should be promoted by audio-visual materials.
- Teachers should attend to in-service trainings about measurement and evaluation; and give importance to performance evaluation. Furthermore, number of questions from this lesson in national examinations should be increased.
- Duration of lessons and students' motivation for lessons should be increased and the lesson should be given earlier than 8th grade or it should be given under Revolution History Lesson.

5   Suggestions

Basing on the results of the study, it can be suggested that

- Problems of Civilization and Democracy Education Program should be solved by program development process.
- Experiences of teachers teaching Civilization and Democracy Education Program should be helpful in solving the problems.
- In-service trainings should be prepared and given for teachers teaching Civilization and Democracy Education Program about measurement and teaching methods and techniques.
- Duration of Civilization and Democracy Education lesson should be increased.
- Research about pre-service education of teachers teaching Civilization and Democracy Education Program should be conducted.
- Other studies combing through implementation process of Civilization and Democracy Education Program should be done.

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Analysis of In-service Training Related Academic Studies in Turkey

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to analyze all articles and thesis in terms of different variables. This is also sought to be a meta analysis study consisting of full text 223 academic articles and graduate thesis surveyed in national and international indexes. The researchers firstly, produced a journal and thesis list within the field of in service training. Then, we produced categories such as year range, fields, type of the studies, purpose of the studies, the methodology of the studies (design, model, the population / sample, data collection tools, analysis techniques), results and the effect of the study in the results. The suggestions and implications, and used references (national-international resources; being recent or older). The results indicated that most of the studies within the field of in-service training were done between 2006-2010. Social sciences, special education and university level in service training studies were found to be the least searched fields. Almost one fourth of the studies were written on in-service training implementation; 34 (15.2%) of them were about an in- service training "needs analysis". Descriptive survey studies analyzed employing questionnaires established the majority.

Key words:In-service training, Content analysis, Academic studies

1 Introduction

Today changes in the technological, economic and social areas are increasing rapidly. Countries must keep up with these changes. This can be achieved only through education. Training that will be held for the members of the community must be an ongoing education which is benefited life-long (Taymaz, 1992). Basic element of education in social life is human factor. In addition people and communities can change and develop through education. Change, development and renewal of knowledge, skills and experience is necessary for education (Çevikbaş, 2002: 1).

Children who start their educational life at a certain age may be able to continue to primary, secondary and university levels of education. It is considered that pre-service training finishes when employment process begins just after graduation. However, from the moment their carrier begins, via the changes in the life of employed, a continuous training period will be needed, just like continuing school life; it continues life-long (Özyürek, 1981). For educating people of all age ranges, targeted training process should be of a particular discipline. According to Guskey (2000); professional development is an intentional, systematic and continuous process.

Service training as a requirement of life-long learning aims to make employees more successful, productive and happier in their profession through gaining knowledge, skills and attitudes (Gültekin ve Çubukçu, 2008: 186). From the day he begins to work until the day he disengages a person should keep up with developments related to his profession and this means having continuous education (Taymaz, 1992). There are a lot of in service traning purposes in order to increase the adequacy of staff such as improving the efficiency of production, keeping pace with developments and strengthening communication and coordination. Continuous improvement in the field of education leads to a constant increase in the number of new concepts, models, theories on knowledge base. Educational reforms or school improvement plans in the United States indicate the need for in-service training (Guskey, 2000).

In-service training is any kind of education which enables employees to get accostomed to their proffesions besides improving in the process and having a better carrier (Alkan,1973; Akt. Cüre, 2007:7) and it is considered as non-formal education (Aslangil, 2000; Akt Eren ve diğer, 2003:29) as it is applied during service.(Küçükahmet,2000; Akt. Eren ve diğer, 2003:29)

A large number of concepts or meanings are used very closely in in-service training organizational life. Some of them can be listed as follows: On-job training, staff development, human resource development, continuing education, professional development and organizational renewal (Özdemir, 2010).

- On-job training
- Staff development
- Human resource development
- Continuing education
- Professional development
- Organizational renewal

According to the definition of in-service training; besides defining this as refreshing knowledge, acquiring new information and developing external world knowledge, keeping up with the planning is a must.(Şimşek, 2002:20) In In-service training to meet the needs necessary to provide the conditions for learning (Joyse & Showers, 2002: 70):

1. The first purpose is an educational planning to allow people to bring the highest level of skills and practices needed to set out principles for program planning.
2. The second goal is looking for the educational methods providing easier and more efficient ways to learn and enhance the capabilities and the skills of teachers.

The principles of effective professional development are clear on the purpose of learning and learner, think big and start small, recognition of evolution is both individual and organizational process, to provide support work with team (Guskey, 2000). Life-long learning highlights the importance of in-service training since it provides developing professional success in terms of education. This study presents the situation in Turkey as well as applications according to in-service training and dominates researches and future in-service training programmes.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to analyze various academic studies which was written in the field of in-service training between the years of 2000-2012 according to the method section such as study field, type of the study, topic/subject, research design and model, participants, data analysis techniques and tools employed. Besides the results, suggestions and references aspects of the studies were analysed and included in this study.

2   Method

2.1   Research Model
This research is a descriptive study. Document analysis comprises analysis of written materials containing information on case/cases to be studied (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2008).

2.2   Sample
A total of 297 academic studies containing several articles and graduate theses attained by searching through te journals in Turkish ULAKBIM database and ASOS Index, and dissertation database in YÖK (Turkish Higher Education Council) between 2000-2012 were analyzed.

2.3   Data Collection Tool
Content analysis method was applied on each article by using "Article Classification Form". "Article Classification Form" was developed by Sözbilir and Kutu (2008). In this study, revised version of the form by Ozan and Köse (2012) was used. The form consists of 5 basic charters: article tag, research pattern/method, data collection tools, sample and data analysis method.

2.4. Data Analysis
Content analysis method was used to analyze the collected data. The procedure in content analysis is to put together the similar data within the framework of specific concepts and themes and to comment it in a way the reader can understand (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2004). The results of the analysis are expressed with the frequency and percent values.

3   Findings

3.1   The distribution of the studies over the years

Looking at the distribution of the studies by year; 181 (60,93%) studies were carried out between 2006 and 2010. According to the analysis compared to other years there was an increase. These findings show that the importance of in-service training activities is gaining importance. The number of studies conducted decreased between 2011 and 2012. The reason that the studies are on decrease may be in the process of publication.

Table 1. Distribution of the studies by year

Year	Full Text		Abstract/Summary		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
2000-2002	8	3,6	29	39,2	37	12,45
2003-2005	24	10,8	16	21,6	40	13,46
2006-2008	73	32,7	4	5,4	77	25,92
2009-2010	89	39,9	15	20,3	104	35,01
2011-2012	29	13,0	10	13,5	39	13,13
Total	223	100,0	74	100	297	100

3.2   The distribution of the studies in the subject areas

According to the analysis most of the studies conducted on teachers of science and math (32 [10,77%]), classroom teaching (20[6,73%]), information and communication technologies (19 [6,39%]), educators have come together from different backgrounds (59 [19,86%]). In-service activities focus on the common knowledge, skills and attitudes. Lack of researches on subject fields of the special education (2 [0,67%]), social sciences (3 [1,01%]) and pre-school education (6 [2,02%]) are among the most remarkable findings.

Table 2. The distribution of the studies based on subject areas

	Full Text		Abstract/Summary		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Mixed groups	49	22	10	13,5	59	19,86
Science and math	30	13,5	2	2,7	32	10,77
Literature	19	8,5	3	4,7	22	7,40
ICT	18	8,1	1	1,4	19	6,39
Health staff	16	7,2	2	2,7	18	6,06
Primary teaching	15	6,7	5	6,8	20	6,73
Foreign language	11	4,9	4	5,4	15	5,05
Security staff	11	4,9	7	9,5	18	6,06
Tourism	9	4	4	5,4	13	4,34
Pre-school education	6	2,7	1	1,4	7	2,35
Special skills training	4	1,8	2	2,7	6	2,02
Social sciences	3	1,3	-	-	3	1,01
Special education	2	0,9	-	-	2	0,67
Others	29	13	27	36,5	56	18,85
Unspecified	0	0	6	8	6	2,02
Total	223	100	74	100	297	100

3.3 The distribution of the studies in terms of publication type

Studies included in the sample consist of 114 (38,38%) journal article, 168 (56,56%) master's theses and 15 (5,05%) doctoral dissertations. Researches at the doctoral-level are insufficient. There is a significant gap in this area for researchers.

Table 3. The distribution of the studies according to the publication type

Publication type	Full Text		Abstract/Summary		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Journal article	106	47,5	8	10,8	114	38,38
Master thesis	103	46,2	65	87,8	168	56,56
Doctoral dissertation	14	6,3	1	1,4	15	5,05
Total	223	100,0	74	100	297	100

3.4 Purpose/Goal Of The Studies

According to the analysis, the majority of the studies were written on opinions and assessments of the effectiveness of an in-service training (128 [43,09%]), implementation of in-service training (57 [19,19%]) and analyses of the need for in-service training (49 [16,49%]). Authors have proposed a model in 11 (3,70%) studies.

Table 4. Purpose/Goal of the studies

Purpose/Goal	Full Text		Abstract/Summary		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Opinion/assessment	92	41,3	36	48,6	128	43,09
In-service training implementation	49	22	8	10,8	57	19,19
Needs analysis	34	15,2	15	20,3	49	16,49
Other	23	10,3	7	9,5	30	10,10
Literature	17	7,6	5	6,8	22	7,40
A model proposal	8	3,6	3	4,1	11	3,70
Total	223	100,0	74	100	297	100

3.5 The distribution of the studies in terms of research models

The results showed that in terms of the models of all studies, descriptive/survey studies were most common (214 [72,05%]). The number of theoretical studies were 24 (8,08%); experimental studies were 23 (7,74%); the number of case studies were 14 (4,71%); the number of described as "other" studies were 9 (3,03%), 2 (0,9%) of the studies, there were two meta analyses and only one action research (0,67%).

Table 5. The distribution of the studies according to the research models

Model	Full Text		Abstract/Summary		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Survey/descriptive	159	71,3	55	74,3	214	72,05
Document review	21	9,4	3	4,1	24	8,08
Experimental	19	8,5	4	5,4	23	7,74
Case study	14	6,3	0	0	14	4,71
Other	7	3,1	2	2,7	9	3,03
Meta analyses	2	0,9	0	0	2	0,67
Action research	1	0,4	1	1,4	2	0,67
Unspecified	0	0	9	12,2	9	3,03
Total	223	100,0	74	100	297	100

3.6 The distribution of the studies in terms of research design

The results showed that 170 (57,23%) studies were quantitative design ; 46 (15,48%) of the studies were mixed method; and 44 studies (14,81%) were qualitative design. And 24 (8,08%), of the theoretical studies; 13 (4,37%) of them were described as "unspecified".

Table 6. The distribution of the studies according to the research design

	Full Text		Abstract/Summary		Total	
Research Design	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Quantitative	121	54,3	49	66,2	170	57,23
Qualitative	40	17,9	4	5,4	44	14,81
Mixed method	41	18,4	5	6,8	46	15,48
Literature review	19	8,5	5	6,8	24	8,08
Unspecified	2	,9	11	4,9	13	4,37
Total	223	100,0	74	100	297	100

3.7 Sample/Participants of The Study

According to the analysis, the percentage of studies are respectively 26,26% (78) at primary level, 16,16% (48) at the level of secondary education, 5,05% (15) at the level of higher education 22,22% (66) within the scope of public sector and 14,14% (42) within the scope of private sector (table 7).

Table 7. The distribution of the studies in terms of the participants

	Full Text		Abstract/Summary		Total	
Sample/participants	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Primary education	71	31,8	7	9,5	78	26,26
Public sector	46	20,6	20	27	66	22,22
Secondary education	38	17	10	13,5	48	16,16
Private sector	26	11,7	16	21,6	42	14,14
Other	16	7,2	3	4,1	19	6,39
Mixed groups	15	6,7	8	10,8	23	7,74
Higher education	9	4	6	8,1	15	5,05
Unspecified	2	0,9	4	5,4	6	2,02
Total	223	100,0	74	100	297	100

3.8 The Results of Studies

The findings indicated that 123 (41,41%) studies were positive or effective . It means that the researchers show that after the implementation of in-service training programme, there was a positive effect on participants and their perceptions of in-service training were positive. 47 (15,82%) studies were described in "other" group. Needs analysis should be done in in-service training according to the participants (51; 17,17%). The results of 33 (11,11%) studies were ineffective or negative results and 31 (10,43%) studies had positive and also negative results.

Table 8. The results of studies

Results	Full Text		Abstract/Summary		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Effective-positive	98	43,9	25	33,8	123	41,41
Other	39	17,5	8	10,8	47	15,82
In-service training is needed	35	15,7	16	21,6	51	17,17
Ineffective-negative	28	12,6	5	6,8	33	11,11
Positive and negative	20	9	11	14,9	31	10,43
There is no need for the in-service training	2	0,9	0	0	2	0,67
Unspecified	1	,4	8	10,8	9	3,03
Total	223	100,0	74	100	297	100

3.9 Recommendation of the studies

According to the research findings, most of the studies has been proposed in-service training needs analysis should be done (81 [13,63%]), should increase the number of seminars and courses (77 [12,96%]) and participation (60 [10,10%]), practical courses and seminars (53 [8,92%]), revision of the content and methods (49 [8,24%]).

Table 9. Recommendations of the studies

Recommendations	Frequency	%
Need analysis	81	13,63
More in-service training	77	12,96
Participation	60	10,10
Practical courses should	53	8,92
Review of the content and methods	49	8,24
Other	46	7,74
Continuity and Systematicity	43	7,23
Lack of resources	41	6,90
Continued research	31	5,21
Expert trainers	30	5,05
Inter-institutional cooperation	29	4,88
Regulatory and restructuring	27	4,54
Planning	27	4,54
Total	594	100

3.10 Analysis techniques conducted in the studies

The statistical techniques applied in the studies were mostly descriptive statistics (frequency, percent, mean, standard deviation, etc.; 193 [42,32%]), qualitative analysis techniques (document analysis, meta analysis, thematic content analysis; 91 [19,95%]) and parametric analysis (t-test, ANOVA, Pearson etc.; 103 [22,58]). Regression analysis technique was the least (7 [1,53%]) applied by the researchers. The other analysis techniques applied were non-parametric statistical analysis (chi-square tests, spearman's correlation, etc.) and factor analysis (scale development).

Table 10. Analysis techniques used in the studies

Analysis techniques	Full Text		Abstract/Summary		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Descriptive statistics (frequency, percent, mean, standard deviation, etc.	158	41,14	35	48,61	193	42,32
Qualitative analysis techniques (document analysis, meta analysis, thematic content analysis)	87	22,65	4	5,55	91	19,95
Parametric analysis (t-test, ANOVA, Pearson etc.)	84	21,87	19	26,38	103	22,58
Non-parametric statistical analysis (chi-swuare tests, spearman's correlation, etc.)	36	9,37	11	15,27	47	10,30
Factor analysis (scale development).	14	3,64	1	1,38	15	3,28
Regression	5	1,30	2	2,77	7	1,53

3.11 The preference of data collection tools in the studies

According to the research findings, in most of the studies (189 [49,47]) surveys/questionnaires were applied as a data collection tool and respectively, interviews (68 [17,80%]), documents (44 [11,51%]), scales (37 [9,68%]), observation forms (26 [6,80%]), achievement tests (15 [3,92%]) and diaries (3 [0,78%]) were conducted as data collection tools in the studies.

Table 11. Data collection tools used in the studies

Data collection tools	Full Text		Abstract/Summary		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Questionnaire (survey)	142	46,55	47	61,03	189	49,47
Interviews	59	19,34	9	11,68	68	17,80
Documents	35	11,47	9	11,68	44	11,51
Scale	32	10,49	5	6,49	37	9,68
Observation form, video recording, checklist	22	7,21	4	5,19	26	6,80
Achievement test	12	3,93	3	3,89	15	3,92
Diary	3	0,98	0	0	3	0,78

3.12 The number of references in the studies

The number of the references is mentioned below:

- The minimum number of local references in studies is zero.
- The maximum number of local references in studies is 185.
- The minimum number of foreign references in studies is zero.
- The maximum number of foreign references in studies is 325.
- The minimum number of the last five years references in studies is zero.
- The maximum number of the last five years references in studies is 108.
- The minimum number of the total references in studies is two.
- The maximum number of the total references in studies is 345.
- The minimum percentage of references in studies in the last five years is zero.
- The maximum percentage of references in studies in the last five years is 96,30.

Table 12. Statistics on references used in the studies

Value	Local references	Foreign references	Last five years references	Total references	Last five years/Total
Minimum	0	0	0	2	0,00%
Maximum	185	325	108	345	96,30%

4 Conclusion

The results indicated that most of the studies within the field of in-service training were conducted between 2006-2010. Most of studies also show that the studies were mostly conducted between 2006-2010 (Kim, Jung & Lee, 2008; Jones & Tuscano, 2008; Atay et al., 2009; Önen et al., 2009; Önen et al., 2010; Yılmaz & Düğenci, 2010; Wasunna et al., 2010; Özaydın & Çolak, 2011; Altun & Cengiz, 2012). It can be said that the number of the studies go up year by year and the field of in-service training is getting more important. Another result of the research shows that the number of studies between 2011-2012 go down. It can be explained that studies in these years are still increasing.

The results showed that 59 studies (19,86%) were carried out with the mixed groups such as teachers and administrators. That result can be explained by interaction between the groups, common skills and attitudes are aimed in in-service training programs. It was found out that 32 studies (10,77%) were done with science and math teachers. It can be said that it is focused to in-service training programs for science and math teachers because of the importance of these fields in education. And also, the findings showed that social sciences, special education and university level in service training studies were found to be the least searched fields. It is suggested to carry out more studies in these fields and attach importance to them as other fields.

The results showed that most of the studies were composed of journal articles and master thesis. Doctoral dissertations were so less in the field of in-service training. Saban (2009) expressed that most of the studies he researched were master thesis and journal articles; and doctoral dissertation was the least one. It can be said that this result is parallel to the finding of this research. And also, other studies were journal articles and master thesis (Özaydın & Çolak, 2011; Camuzcu & Duruhan, 2011; Mıhladız & Doğan, 2012; Şahin, 2012). This finding of the research shows that the studies are inadequate in PhD level and more doctoral dissertations in the field of in-service training should be studied for.

The results indicated that the perceptions and evaluation of the effectiveness of an in service training program constitute majority 128 (43,09%) in the studies. It can be said that it should be addressed on other issues. Another finding in the research; 11 (3,7%) studies suggested an in-service training model. The studies of in-service training models can give an idea for more qualified and skilled in-service training in the fields. So it is suggested to do more research about it.

The results showed that considering the models of all studies, descriptive/survey studies established the majority 214 (72,05%) of them. The number of meta analysis is 2 (0,67%); and action research is 2 (0,67%) in all studies. The other studies in the field of in-service training show that most studies are survey studies (Bümen, 2005; Velipaşaoğlu, Kılıç & Aksakoğlu, 2005; Gültekin, Çubukçu & Dal, 2010; Mıhladız & Doğan, 2012). This result can be based on other models which can be regarded by researchers as a long and hard process. It is suggested that next studies to be organized as meta analysis study, action research, case study in the field of in-service training.

According to the results, 170 (57,23%) of studies were quantitative research design; 46 (15,48%) of the studies were studied through mixed method; and 44 (14,81%) were qualitative research design. Mixed methods research is becoming an increasingly popular approach (Bazeley, 2002; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Azorin & Cameron, 2010). It is suggested that next studies to be designed as mixed method.

The results also indicated that in the researches carried out survey/questionnaire (189; 49,47%) was mostly preferred; and respectively interviews (68; 17,80%) and document analysis (44; 11,51%). It is found out that most of data collection tools used are survey/questionnaire in the studies (Uşun & Cömert, 2003; Akar, 2007; Camuzcu & Duruhan, 2011). It can be said that researchers regard survey/questionnaire as an easy way to collect the data. It is suggested that researchers should enhance the diversity in the studies.

The studies conducted in elementary and high schools were almost half of all studies (126; 42.42%). The number of studies in in-service training in public sector were 66 (22.22%). It can be said that it is preferred because of easily accessible groups by the researchers. For next studies, it is suggested to study with mixed groups and make research in universities, also.

The findings indicated that the results of 123 (41,41%) of the studies were positive or effective . It means that the researchers concluded in their studies that the effect of their implementations created a positive effect in participants after an in-service training program or their perceptions about in-service training were positive. Another result from the research was that needs analysis toward in-service training were also indicated by the participants (51; 17,17%). This finding shows that more qualified and elaborated in-service training programs should be organized if it is desired to fulfill the required objectives.

The analysis of the data yielded some suggestions regarding some implications for the analyzed studies. The findings show that the researchers mostly suggest "needs analysis requirement" (81; 13,63%), "in-service training needs" (77; 12,96%); "need for promoting the in-service training" (60; 10,10%) and "need for practice-based training program" (53; 8,92%). Recommendations in the studies should be taken into account in the in-service training program design.

The findings showed that the number of minumum national references were "0"; maximum national references is 185. The number of minumum international references were 0; maximum international references were 325. It is suggested that the researchers should make use of more national and international resources, and especially current resources. In some of studies; target groups, research design, models, results, recommendations are not explained clearly. It is suggested that the researchers should be more careful about it and the studies should be done by considering the importance of the "method" parts.

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Teachers' Views Regarding the Values Covered in the Social Studies Curriculum

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Abstract

Societies constantly develop and change. In this regard, their expectations from education in terms of raising well-educated individuals increase day by day. Especially unfavorable events such as wars and violation of human rights have increased the importance of educated people's being equipped with values as much as knowledge and skills. Schools are the primary institutions that bear the responsibility of raising people equipped with values and they try to discharge this responsibility through curriculum. Social studies curriculum has an important role in helping individuals to gain these values. The main purpose of this study is to identify the views of teachers regarding the values in the social studies curriculum. In line with this general purpose, the level allocated to values in the objectives, content and teaching-learning processes and the level that should be allocated; the differences between the levels that the values are taught and the levels they should be taught; the suitability of school and family environment and generally social life for teaching the values; the order of importance for the values; and the problems encountered in the process of teaching the values in social studies course were investigated according to teachers' views. The study was conducted with 117 classroom and social studies teachers, working in 15 schools located in Adana, Turkey. The data were collected through the "Views regarding the Values covered in the Social Studies Curriculum" questionnaire developed by the researcher. In analyzing the data frequencies, percentages, arithmetic means and standard deviations were calculated and independent samples t-test was performed. Results show that there are significant differences between the level allocated to the 24 values and the level they should be allocated in the social studies curriculum. According to teachers, the values covered in the program are not taught adequately. Besides, teachers do not find the physical conditions of schools, and the family and social life of students adequate in teaching the values. The mostly regarded values by the teachers are being fair, respect for the flag and the national anthem, unity of family, patriotism, and toleration. The problems mostly encountered in the process of teaching the values are inadequate physical equipment at schools as well as inadequate time and family support.

Keywords: Social studies curriculum, values, curriculum evaluation.

1. Introduction

Schools are the institutions primarily responsible for the cognitive, psychomotor and emotional development of the children. Each course taught at school tries to contribute to individuals' development in these three main aspects within its own framework. However, while some of the courses in the curriculum contribute much more to the cognitive domain as a matter of their nature, some courses contribute much more to the psychomotor domain. Social studies course is among the significant courses which are supposed to contribute especially to the affective domain in addition to the cognitive domain. Since, social studies is a course playing a vital role in teaching foreseen knowledge, skills, values and attitudes and accordingly educating the citizen equipped with the required qualifications. Although civic competence is not the only responsibility of social studies nor is it exclusive to the field, it is more central to social studies than to any other subject area in schools. As Kara, Topkaya and Şimşek (2012) also stated, through the skills and values that covered in the Social studies curriculum, students will be able to get in a healthier socialization process.

Doğanay (2002, p.17) defines Social Studies, benefiting from the content and methods of other social sciences and humanities, as a field of study which handles human's interaction with his physical and social environment within the time dimension with an interdisciplinary approach and aiming to educate citizens equipped with fundamental democratic values about the life, able to think effectively, and skillful in a globalizing world. According to the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS, 1992), social studies is the integrated study of the social sciences and humanities to promote civic competence, and the primary purpose of this course is to help young people make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world. The social studies course offered in primary education is of major importance in enabling students to internalize basic social priorities, a citizenship consciousness, a worldview and social skills and behaviors, and in equipping students with the skills that will enable them to become good and useful citizens (Akınoğlu, 2008). Tay, Durmaz and Şanal (2013) stated that the main purpose of social studies is to help the young people make informed and rational decisions for the public good as the citizens of a culturally diverse and democratic society in an interconnected world. As for Kaya and Eroğlu (2013), a child starting primary school starts to learn democratic governance, processes, principles and values with social studies curriculum considered as the formal civic education program and in this respect social studies course can be accepted as the field of application of democracy education. As it can be seen in these explanations, social studies have a crucial role especially in educating (raising) citizens who are fully equipped with the required knowledge, skills and values for democracy. In short, since civic competence is the central aim of social studies, educating students who are committed to the ideas and values of democracy is the central goal of this course.

The formation of society consist of individuals who gain the values like honesty, diligence, responsibility, respect and helpfulness will contribute to the continuation of the society and to the welfare of people (Ersoy and Şahin, 2012). Since one of the most essential features of a good citizen is being equipped with some values, values education is closely related to citizenship education. In the national elementary curriculum, the concept of value is defined as the common thought, purpose, basic moral principles or beliefs which are accepted to be correct and necessary by the majority of the members of community or a social group to ensure its existence, unity, process, and continuity (Özgüven,1999; cited in MONE, 2005). According to Oluwagbohunmi (2013), the search for the means of instilling good traits, norms and attitude in the citizens through the formal school system led to the inclusion of social studies in the curriculum; and the subject therefore focuses on developing the right values, attitudes and skills that will help the child to become a responsible citizen, to interact effectively with others and perform civic and national duties.

Social studies is a subject that is value-laden (Adeyemi, 2012; Kan, 2010). The basic common values in the social studies curriculum for 4th-7th grades in Turkey are being fair, appreciation of family unity, independence, peace, being scientific, being hardworking, solidarity, sensibility, cleanliness and appreciation of being healthy, aesthetics, tolerance, hospitality, freedom, honesty, respect to others' feelings and opinions, respect to Turkish flag and national anthem, responsibility, patriotism, helpfulness, love, Repect for Turk ancestors, Sensitivity to the natural environment, academic honesty, and Sensitivity to cultural heritage (MONE, 2005). However, these values' taking place in the curriculum cannot ensure that they will be taught to the students at the desired level. Stating that the individuals not equipped with the values necessary for themselves and their social and physical environment can use their knowledge for the actions without benefit for the humanity and environment Doganay (2006, p.257) emphasizes that even though the values are an important area which should be developed and matured by education, they are neglected both in general education and in social studies education.

That the values are neglected in social studies appears not only in the curriculum but also in the researches carried out related to this course. Oruç and Ulusoy (2008) analyzed the master's theses related to teaching social studies in Turkey between 2000 and 2007 and indicated that only six of them focused on values and skills. Over last few years, even the number of studies conducted regarding to the values education within the framework of social studies course in Turkey has relatively increased (Balcı & Yanpar-Yelken, 2013; Berkant & Sürmeli, 2013; Çelikkaya & Öztürk-Demirbaş, 2013; Ersoy & Şahin, 2012; Gömleksiz & Cüro, 2011; Kan, 2010; Kurtdede Fidan, 2013; Tay, Durmaz, & Şanal, 2013; Yaşar & Çengelci, 2012), it is still difficult to say that the number of these studies is sufficient.

In order for social studies which has important roles in raising individuals to improve and transform the society with an active and participative spirit, the instructional program should be equipped with values as much as knowledge and skills. Besides, arrangement of the implementation process of the curriculum in schools in accordance with values education is also significant. To what extent does the social studies course fulfill this responsibility in helping individuals to gain values? Are the values that should be owned by active citizens covered in the present curriculum adequately and efficiently? What do teachers think about the values covered in the curriculum? Answers to be given to questions like these will contribute to help social studies course to fulfill the responsibility of raising active citizens in a much more qualified way. The main purpose of this study based on this notion is to identify the views of teachers regarding the values in the social studies curriculum. In line with this general purpose, the following questions guided the study:

1. According to teachers' views, are there differences between the level allocated to values in the goals, content and teaching-learning processes and the level that should be allocated?

2. According to teachers' views, are there any differences between the levels that the values are taught and the levels they should be taught?

3. According to teachers' views, to what extent is the level of school and family environment and generally social life suitable for teaching the values in the social studies course?

4. According to teachers' views, what is the order of importance for the values covered in the social studies course?

5. According to teachers' views, what are the problems experienced in the process of teaching the values covered in social studies course?

2. Method

2.1. Participants

The participants of the study were identified using cluster-sampling method among 4th and 5th grade classroom and social studies teachers working in schools located in Adana city center, Turkey. The study was conducted with 117 classroom and social studies teachers, 66 (56.4%) females and 51 (43.6%) males, working in 15 schools. Of the 117 teachers, 4 (3.4%) teachers had 0–5 years; 12 (10.3%) teachers had 6–10 years; 25 (21.4%) teachers had 11–15 years; 24 (20.5%) teachers had 16–20 years and 51 (43.6%) teachers had 21 and more years of seniority.

2.2. Data Collection Instrument

The data were collected through the "Views regarding the Values covered in the Social Studies Curriculum" questionnaire developed by the researcher. The first section of the questionnaire aimed to obtain information about the participants' personal features (gender, years of experience, etc.). The second part investigated how much the 24 values (independence, peace, being scientific and hardworking, etc.) covered in the goals of the curriculum and how much they should be covered and aimed to find out the views regarding to what extent these values could and should be taught. The questions were given on a 5-point Likert scale (1. Never-5.Always). The questionnaire also included questions that aimed to identify views regarding the appropriateness of the physical conditions in the school and family environment of the students and the social life in general in teaching the values, which values are given more importance, and the problems experienced in the process of teaching the values. Reliability and validity of the questionnaire was enhanced with the help of 14 experts (eight instructors, four classroom teachers, and two social studies teachers). The questionnaire was also piloted with 17 teachers and revised accordingly.

2.3. Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using frequencies, percentages, arithmetic means and standard deviations. The differences between teachers' views regarding the level allocated to values in the related categories and the level they should be allocated are compared using independent samples t-test.

3. Results

3.1. Teachers' Views About The Level Allocated To Values In The Curriculum And The Level That Should Be Allocated

One of the question sets in the questionnaire is intended for determining the teacher views regarding to what extent 24 values in the curriculum take place in the learning outcomes, content and activities and to what extent they should take place. Means and standard deviations about teachers' responses, and results of the t-test performed to investigate the differences between current and ideal situations of the values covered in the social studies curriculum are illustrated in Table 1 and Table 2.

Table 1. T-Test Results About The Level Allocated To Values In The Goals and Content And The Level That Should Be Allocated

Values	The Level Allocated To Values In The Goals					The Level Allocated To Values In The Content				
	Current Situation		Ideal Situation			Current Situation		Ideal Situation		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t
1. Being fair	3.52	.92	4.60	.52	-11.641*	3.33	.93	4.63	.61	-13.014*
2. Appreciation of family unity	3.86	.98	4.59	.61	-8.351*	3.72	.99	4.66	.57	-10.046*
3. Independence	3.71	.94	4.57	.57	-9.680*	3.61	.96	4.66	.52	-11.455*
4. Peace	3.79	1.01	4.68	.50	-9.752*	3.69	.97	4.67	.51	-10.838*
5. Being Scientific	3.79	.98	4.53	.63	-8.916*	3.72	.96	4.60	.64	-9.616*
6. Being hardworking	3.72	.97	4.52	.61	-9.529*	3.59	.95	4.61	.57	-11.731*
7. Solidarity	3.95	.95	4.60	.57	-8.038*	3.85	.90	4.69	.53	-9.767*
8. Sensibility	3.60	.97	4.58	.56	-10.448*	3.57	.90	4.63	.53	-11.562*
9. Cleanliness and appreciation of being healthy	3.75	.96	4.53	.65	-9.466*	3.72	.93	4.60	.67	-10.043*
10. Aesthetics	3.07	1.06	4.33	.72	-12.837*	3.22	.98	4.38	.77	-11.447*
11. Tolerance	3.69	1.04	4.68	.50	-9.576*	3.68	.96	4.66	.58	-10.148*
12. Hospitality	3.67	1.02	4.44	.70	-8.088*	3.68	.98	4.50	.69	-8.522*
13. Freedom	3.57	1.06	4.57	.57	-10.297*	3.55	.98	4.65	.56	-11.857*
14. Honesty	3.55	1.03	4.71	.49	-11.145*	3.57	1.00	4.76	.50	-11.651*
15. Respect to others' feelings and opinions	3.61	.97	4.69	.49	-11.672*	3.66	.94	4.73	.48	-11.113*
16. Respect to Turkish flag and national anthem	4.02	1.05	4.66	.60	-6.210*	3.95	1.03	4.72	,53	-7.418*
17. Responsibility	3.66	.98	4.62	.59	-9.862*	3.68	.90	4.63	.55	-10.363*
18. Patriotism	3.77	1.10	4.68	.56	-8.213*	3.81	1.00	4.74	.56	-8.978*
19. Helpfulness	3.68	.96	4.66	.50	-10.455*	3.72	.90	4.68	.50	-10.738*
20. Love	3.71	.95	4.67	.52	-9.815*	3.66	.93	4.71	.52	-11.598*
21. Respect for Turk ancestors	3.80	1.10	4.54	.67	-6.952*	3.73	1.04	4.65	.59	-8.643*
22. Sensitivity to the natural environment	3.70	.97	4.62	.52	-10.011*	3.70	.91	4.64	.54	-9.967*
23. Academic honesty	3.33	1.12	4.50	.63	-11.345*	3.32	1.10	4.54	.65	-11.614*
24. Sensitivity to cultural heritage	3.56	1.08	4.56	.67	-9.181*	3.55	1.08	4.63	.62	-10.004*

*P<.01

As it is seen in Table 1, the current situation means related to the level of 24 values in social studies curriculum taking place in the outcomes change between 3.07 and 4.02; while the means related to the ideal situation of the values change between 4.33 and 4.71. As a result of t-test, it was found that the differences between the current situation of the values and the importance means pointing the ideal level were significant for all values (p<.01).

Table 1 reveals that the means for current situation of the values in the content of the social studies curriculum are between 3.22 and 3.85; while the means of importance level of the values are between 4.38 and 4.76. T-test performed in

order to analyze the differences between the means of current and ideal situations of the values shows that the differences between the means were is statistically significant all the values (p<.01).

Results about the differences between the level allocated to values in the activities and the level that should be allocated, and the level that the values are already taught and the level they should be taught are illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2. T-Test Results About The Level Allocated To Values In The Learning Activities And The Level That Should Be Allocated And The Level That The Values Are Taught And The Level They Should Be Taught

Values	The Level Allocated To Values In The Learning Activities					The Level That the Values in the Curriculum Are Taught				
	Current Situation		Ideal Situation			Current Situation		Ideal Situation		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t
1. Being fair	3.43	.98	4.59	.57	-13.317*	3.38	.95	4.72	.48	-14.518*
2. Appreciation of family unity	3.62	.97	4.53	.65	-10.293*	3.60	.95	4.66	.56	-11.573*
3. Independence	3.62	.94	4.54	.63	-10.435*	3.54	.94	4.66	.56	-12.098*
4. Peace	3.53	1.03	4.54	.60	-11.829*	3.59	1.03	4.71	.51	-12.082*
5. Being Scientific	3.51	1.03	4.51	.70	-11.018*	3.42	1.01	4.64	.53	-13.131*
6. Being hardworking	3.58	.97	4.55	.66	-10.838*	3.51	.95	4.68	.56	-13.253*
7. Solidarity	3.70	.90	4.58	.59	-10.570*	3.64	.94	4.66	.52	-10.970*
8. Sensibility	3.54	.90	4.56	.59	-11.009*	3.50	.87	4.64	.50	-12.707*
9. Cleanliness and appreciation of being healthy	3.66	.87	4.58	.63	-11.386*	3.58	.98	4.70	.53	-11.535*
10. Aesthetics	3.19	.99	4.40	.75	-13.088*	3.31	1.02	4.55	.62	-12.284*
11. Tolerance	3.47	.98	4.58	.60	-11.115*	3.48	.91	4.68	.56	-13.226*
12. Hospitality	3.59	.98	4.46	.70	-9.686*	3.65	.89	4.57	.60	-10.755*
13. Freedom	3.48	1.00	4.59	.54	-11.939*	3.45	.99	4.69	.51	-13.042*
14. Honesty	3.49	.98	4.64	.56	-12.324*	3.59	.95	4.77	.49	-12.404*
15. Respect to others' feelings and opinions	3.57	.99	4.68	.55	-11.741*	3.51	.97	4.78	.43	-13.459*
16. Respect to Turkish flag and national anthem	3.88	1.05	4.66	.64	-7.390*	3.93	.95	4.73	.56	-8.758*
17. Responsibility	3.52	.87	4.60	.58	-12.830*	3.49	.90	4.75	.45	-14.145*
18. Patriotism	3.74	.98	4.58	.73	-8.388*	3.76	.96	4.75	.50	-9.994*
19. Helpfulness	3.64	.86	4.59	.59	-11.459*	3.69	.86	4.73	.53	-12.153*
20. Love	3.59	.93	4.58	.61	-11.493*	3.71	.82	4.66	.55	-11.757*
21. Respect for Turk ancestors	3.80	1.04	4.56	.73	-6.947*	3.76	1.01	4.66	.59	-8.841*
22. Sensitivity to the natural environment	3.61	.94	4.63	.58	-11.851*	3.60	.92	4.75	.45	-12.736*
23. Academic honesty	3.27	1.08	4.47	.68	-12.454*	3.37	1.10	4.62	.61	-12.494*
24. Sensitivity to cultural heritage	3.53	1.03	4.51	.73	-10.238*	3.62	1.04	4.66	.57	-10.368*

*P<.01

Table 2 in which the analysis results related to the level of values' taking place in the learning activities and the ideal level they should take place are illustrated reveals that, while the current situation means of the values are between 3.19 and 3.88; the means related to importance level of the values are between 4.40 and 4.68. Results of the t-test shows that, the differences between the level allocated to values in the activities and the level that should be allocated are statistically significant for all values (p<.01).

The second sub-question of the research was as "According to teachers' views, are there any differences between the levels that the values are taught and the levels they should be taught?" The current situation means regarding to what extent 24 values in social studies curriculum were taught are between 3.31 and 3.93 as it can be seen in Table 2; while the importance means regarding the ideal level they should be taught are between 4.55 and 4.78. The differences between the level that the values are already taught and the level they should be taught were found to be statistically significant at.05 level.

3.2. The Suitability Level Of School And Family Environment And Generally Social Life For Teaching The Values In The Social Studies Course

Another question set in the questionnaire is intended for determining the teachers' views regarding to what extent the physical conditions of schools (such as building, garden, classrooms, etc..), the culture of life in school, students' family environments and the life in the society are suitable for teaching the values in social studies course. Descriptive statistics of teachers' answers to this question are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics About Suitability level of School's physical conditions, Schools' Culture, Students' Family Environment and Social Life In General for teaching the values

Values	School's physical conditions		School's culture		Students' Family Environment		Social Life	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1. Being fair	3.28	1.04	3.37	1.11	2.94	1.08	3.23	1.08
2. Appreciation of family unity	3.56	1.04	3.64	.99	3.18	1.00	3.44	.99
3. Independence	3.57	.96	3.60	1.08	3.18	1.11	3.32	1.09
4. Peace	3.63	.99	3.64	1.02	3.24	1.05	3.38	1.06
5. Being Scientific	3.31	1.16	3.35	1.19	2.97	1.17	3.10	1.23
6. Being hardworking	3.64	.94	3.62	1.03	3.17	1.09	3.33	1.04
7. Solidarity	3.56	1.02	3.58	1.05	3.29	1.04	3.50	1.05
8. Sensibility	3.44	1.03	3.50	1.14	3.12	1.15	3.32	1.13
9. Cleanliness and appreciation of being healthy	3.57	1.12	3.61	1.12	3.29	1.20	3.42	1.17
10. Aesthetics	3.17	1.11	3.25	1.17	2.93	1.18	3.14	1.26
11. Tolerance	3.68	1.05	3.60	1.15	3.22	1.15	3.39	1.14
12. Hospitality	3.75	.92	3.83	.92	3.57	1.06	3.76	1.01
13. Freedom	3.61	1.07	3.58	1.13	3.26	1.21	3.42	1.20
14. Honesty	3.52	.92	3.54	1.03	3.26	1.01	3.42	1.07
15. Respect to others' feelings and opinions	3.49	1.02	3.56	1.05	3.12	1.12	3.30	1.15
16. Respect to Turkish flag and national anthem	4.12	.98	4.13	.95	3.58	1.15	3.80	1.05
17. Responsibility	3.56	1.06	3.59	1.050	3.25	1.07	3.37	1.08
18. Patriotism	3.93	.99	3.92	.99	3.53	1.11	3.60	1.15
19. Helpfulness	3.71	1.01	3.68	.99	3.42	1.04	3.49	1.03
20. Love	3.65	1.12	3.75	1.08	3.37	1.19	3.42	1.18
21. Respect for Turk ancestors	3.87	1.05	3.88	1.14	3.33	1.20	3.46	1.18
22. Sensitivity to the natural environment	3.56	1.12	3.60	1.13	3.11	1.18	3.18	1.18
23. Academic honesty	3.46	1.101	3.53	1.18	3.06	1.23	3.17	1.26
24. Sensitivity to cultural heritage	3.61	.99	3.68	1.05	3.07	1.17	3.31	1.15

*P<.01

As seen in Table 3, the arithmetic means regarding to the convenience of the physical conditions of the schools in terms of teaching the values in social studies curriculum are between 3.17 (aesthetics) and 4.12 (respect for the Turkish flag and the national anthem). When the teachers' opinions about the convenience of the culture of life in school are examined, it is seen that the first three values which the most positive opinions the teachers have about are respect for the flag and the national anthem (4.13), patriotism (3.92) and respect for Turkish ancestors (3.88); while the first three values which the most negative opinions the teachers have about are aesthetics (3.25), being scientific (3.35) and being fair (3.37). According to teachers, the values that the students' family environments are most suitable are respect for the flag and national anthem (3.58), hospitality (3.57) and patriotism (3.53); while the values that the students' family environments are most unsuitable are aesthetics (2.93), being fair (2.94) and being scientific (2.97). While the values that the teachers find the general life in the society most suitable in terms of teaching of the values are respect for the flag and national anthem (3.80), hospitality (3.76) and patriotism (3.60); the first three values receiving the most negative opinions are being scientific (3.10), aesthetics (3.14) and academic honesty (3.17). According to teachers' opinions, while the values

that the physical conditions of schools, the culture of life in school, students' family environments and the life in society in general are most convenient to teach are respect for the flag and the national anthem and patriotism; the features that these dimensions have are found inconvenient in terms of aesthetics and being scientific.

3.3. The Order of İmportance for the Values Covered In Social Studies Curriculum

Within the research, the teachers were asked to put the values they see as the most important and prioritized among the values covered in social studies course in order of importance. Table 4 shows the most prioritized values by the teachers.

Table 4. The most Prioritized Values by the Teachers

Order	The Most Prioritized Five Values As The First Choice	f	The Most Prioritized Five Values As The Second Choice	f	The Most Prioritized Five Values As The Third Choice	f
1	Being fair	24	Independence	12	Honesty	14
2	Respect to Turkish flag and national anthem	13	Appreciation of family unity	10	Tolerance	11
3	Appreciation of family unity	11	Tolerance	10	Respect to others' feelings and opinions	9
4	Patriotism	9	Patriotism	9	Being Scientific	9
5	Tolerance	8	Respect to Turkish flag and national anthem	8	Peace	6

As it can be seen in Table 4, among the values covered in the social studies curriculum, while the most prioritized five values as the first choice are being fair, respect to Turkish flag and national anthem, appreciation of family unity, Patriotism, and tolerance; the most prioritized five values as the second choice are independence, appreciation of family unity, tolerance, patriotism, and respect to Turkish flag and national anthem. The most prioritized five values as the third choice are honesty, tolerance, respect for others' feelings and opinions, being scientific, and peace.

3.4. The Problems Encountered In The Process Of Teaching the Values

Table 5 illustrated the teachers' views about the problems they encountered in the process of teaching the values covered in social studies course.

Tablo 5. Problems Encountered İn The Process Of Teaching The Values

	Never		Seldom		Sometimes		Frequently		Always		Mean	SD
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
1. Inadequacy of time	4	3.4	10	8.6	44	37.9	36	31.0	22	19.0	3.53	1.00
2. Inadequacy of equipment	2	1.7	11	9.5	36	31.0	46	39.7	21	18.1	3.62	.94
3. Insufficient physical conditions	7	6.0	19	16.4	28	24.1	41	35.3	21	18.1	3.43	1.14
4. Teachers' insufficient knowledge and skills in teaching values	48	42.9	37	33.0	16	14.3	8	7.1	3	2.7	1.93	1.05
5. Teachers' believing the necessity of acquisition of some values	56	49.6	30	26.5	19	16.8	4	3.5	4	3.5	1.84	1.05
6. Teachers' not being a sufficient model for students in terms of the values	70	60.9	27	23.5	11	9.6	4	3.5	3	2.6	1.63	0.97
7. Inadequacy of the students' readiness level	6	5.2	23	20.0	37	32.2	38	33.0	11	9.6	3.21	1.04
8. Negative effects of social environment	7	6.1	21	18.4	34	29.8	33	28.9	19	16.7	3.31	1.13
9. School's not providing a good environment in which the values are live and lived	13	11.2	29	25.0	38	32.8	24	20.7	12	10.3	2.93	1.15
10. Trying to teach the values not keeping them alive but only telling them	10	8.6	22	19.0	39	33.6	30	25.9	15	12.9	3.15	1.13
11. The values' gained at school not being cared by the families	8	6.9	14	12.1	32	27.6	44	37.9	18	15.5	3.43	1.10
12. The values' gained at school not being valid for the real social life	21	18.8	21	18.8	25	22.3	30	26.8	15	13.4	2.97	1.32

As seen in Table 5, in teaching process of the values covered in social studies course, the most common problems teachers indicate that they face with are lack of material, inadequacy of time, lack of physical facilities and the values' taught at school not being cared by the families; while the least encountered problems are the items implying for the professional and personal characteristic competency of the teacher such as "not being a model for my students enough about these values", " not believing that some values should be gained" and "not having the necessary knowledge and skill about values education".

4. Discussion

The first question of the research was about the differences between the level allocated to the 24 values and the level they should be allocated in the dimensions (objectives, content, teaching-learning process) of social studies curriculum. At the end of the analysis, that the means obtained from a 5-point rating scale were generally between 3 and 4 and according to this the values take place in the outcomes, content and activities at a level above average. Also in the research that Gömleksiz and Cüro carried out (2011), it was found that the social studies course made important contributions to development of values such as patriotism, caring for cultural and national values, respect, protecting the nature and responsibility in students. Although not with a high rate also in Akengin, Saglam and Dilek's study (2002) it was stated that the 64.6 percent of the students found social studies course effective in teaching the responsibilities. Teachers particapated to Deveci and Dal's (2008) study also found the curriculum inclusive of all necessary values, and a majority of them stated that the curriculum was efficient in terms of involving outcomes, activities and explanations concerning values.

On the hand, The teachers pointed out that the values should take place much more in the dimensions of the curriculum's outcome, content and teaching-learning processes. In the analysis, it was found that the differences between the values' current situation and importance means were significant for all values (p<.01). In parallel with this, the differences between the level of teaching the values in the curriculum and the ideal level they should be taught were also found significant (p<.01). The teachers emphasized that the values should be taught at a higher level than the current situation. Uçar (2009) having similar findings also put forward that the teachers believe that the values take place in curriculum at a moderate level; however, there should be given more place to these in the curriculum. Also in the study of Kurtdede and Fidan (2013), teachers stating that the curriculum had deficiencies in terms of values education mentioned the deficiencies of the activities in social studies curriculum, content's being much intensive and not being well organized and insufficiency of the given time for the outcomes. Whereas as emphasized by Ersoy and Şahin (2012), in a country like Turkey where people of different ethnic, faith and beliefs live, training of common values is very important to ensure the peace, welfare and continuity.

According to teacher's views, while the physical conditions of schools, the culture of life in school, the family environments of students and the life in society in general were found relatively more favorable for respect for the flag and national anthem and patriotism values, the means of these conditions related to the eligibility level in terms of teaching value were found under 4 out of a 5-point rating in general. These findings are similar to results of Baydar's (2009) study. Also in the study of Balcı and Yanpar-Yelken (2013), teachers stated the social, cultural and economic characteristics of the family; the lack of a rich environment for social activities at school; mass media; the deficiencies of the physical infrastructure of school and equipment; values' not being applied to daily life; crowded classrooms; the characteristics of schools' close environment and the weakness of school-family relations as sources of problems encountered in values education. However, teaching values is possible with setting all factors in school and out of school in coordination in a direction that will serve the same purpose. It is obvious that the desired objectives can never be reached with the developments on the curriculum only as a printed material. As emphasized by Tay and Yıldırım (2009), disruptions may occur in the educational process of a child as a result of various factors concerning family, school, or environment, and these problems can be solved through cooperation between family and school. Teaching of values starts within the family and continue within the school; but, also the school -with its formal and informal aspects- with the family and social environment are the dimensions having constantly significant impact on teaching the desired values. None of these can be charged for teaching values or not being able to teach values adequately on their own. As emphasized by the teachers participated to Deveci and Dal's (2008) study, values can be taught only if support from families and student's immediate environment is guaranteed. Consistency between the values presented at school and the ones adopted by the families is very important for the children to internalize the values presented within instructional settings and to reflect them on their own behaviors (Deveci & Dal, 2008).

Within the research, teachers were asked to put the values they see as the most important among the values covered in social studies course in order of importance. Findings show that, teachers mostly prioritize the values of respect to Turkish flag and national anthem, patriotism, unity of family and toleration. Similar to this findings, in studies carried out by Yıldırım (2009), Tay (2009) Çelikkaya and Öztürk-Demirbaş (2013) it is found that "patriotism" is one of the most emphasized values that needed to be taught. Tay and Yıldırım (2009) and Yiğittir (2010) also indicated that parents ranked some national, traditional and moral values such as "patriotism," "honesty," "caring for family unity", "responsibility," and "being hardworking" as the most important values that children should be taught. Paralely Gömleksiz and Cüro's (2011) findings, show that elementary school students have positive attitudes towards the values named patriotism, cultural values, respect, environment and nature, responsibility and scientific attitude. Also in the study of Yaşar and Çengelci (2012), teachers wanted the outcomes regarding the national values in social studies curriculum to be increased. All these findings point that both the teachers and parents and students care generally much more for national and traditional values in Turkish National Educational System.

According to the findings, the most common problems the teachers stated that they faced with teaching the values covered in social studies course are the lack of material, inadequacy of time, lack of physical facilities and the values' gained at school not being cared by the families. In the study that Berkant and Sürmeli (2013) carried out, it was concluded that teachers have difficulties in teaching various values in social studies course with regard to different levels and variables. When the research findings related to social studies are analyzed, it is seen that the insufficient support from the family and social environment for the values tried to be taught at school is at the top of the factors making it difficult to teach the values (Baydar, 2009; Deveci & Dal, 2008; Kurtdede-Fidan, 2013; Yaşar & Çengelci, 2012; Yıldırım, 2009). For instance, in the study Yıldırım (2009) conducted teachers pointed out that they encountered a lot of problems resulting especially from the inadequacy of the family and environment in the process of values education. As for the study of Baydar (2009), teachers seeing the family as the most significant factor in values education, emphasized the adverse effect of the environment out of school and the classroom's being crowded as problems. Similarly, teachers participated to Deveci and Dal's (2008) study mentioned the conflict between the values taught at school and the ones praised and practiced at home as well as the limited amount of time allocated for social studies for an effective value education.

According to the findings, the least encountered problems teachers' faced in teaching the values covered in social studies course are the items implying for the professional and characteristic competency of the teacher such as "not being a good model for my students about these values", "not believing that some values should be gained" and "not having the necessary knowledge and skill about values education". In this instance, it can be said that the teachers see themselves quite competent in terms of values education. Teachers participated in the research of Balcı and Yanpar-Yelken (2013) and pointed out many problems can be resulted from the school, family and close environment, stated that the deficiencies can be derived from themselves were relatively less encountered. Despite of this, they also suggest giving in-service training in terms of values education to the teachers. However in Temli, Şen and Akar's (2011) study, teachers thought that they were not sufficiently equipped to deal with moral education as moral education was little emphasized during their pre/in-service education. These findings obtained from the research bring to mind that the teachers could be subjective in assessing themselves.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

In sum, according to the results of the study, teachers think that the values are covered in the social studies curriulum in a reasonable level but; those values cannot be taught adequately and the level that allocated to the values in the curriculum should be enhanced. Besides, teachers do not find the physical conditions of schools, and the family and social life of students adequate in teaching the values. National and traditional values such as being fair, respect for the flag and the national anthem, unity of family, and patriotism are the most regarded values by the teachers. The problems mostly encountered in the process of teaching the values are inadequate physical equipment at schools as well as inadequate time and family support. In this regard, following are the suggestions about teaching the values more efficiently in social studies course set forth in accordance with the findings of this research:

- The number of values should be enhanced in the goals, content and teaching-learning process of the social studies curriculum. It is also important to place the values at the centre of school policy and classroom practices.

- Schools, families, teacher educators and the society should cooperate and be in a consensus about which values should be taught and how values education could be carried out. To this end, members of these groups should be trained through well-organized, systematic educational activities (courses, seminars, conferences, TV programs, etc.) in terms of teaching values and creating family/school/society culture on the base of common national, universal and democratic values.

- The amount of time allocated to teach the values in the social studies course should be enhanced.

- Population of classes should be lessened and physical conditions and facilities of the schools should be improved.

- It is vital to increase the number of the studies conducted using both qualitative and quantitative methods on values education in Turkey. It is also important to highlight that since the findings of this study are limited to responses provided on a survey questionnaire, further research should be done through qualitative methods to collect more detailed data, and to deal in-depth with the issue.

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THEME 6

CURRICULUM - IN BETWEEN THE SOCIAL AND THE PERSONAL

Scientific Literacy for Social Reproduction

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Abstract

Developing scientific literacy among future citizens is a significant goal of science education in a number of school science curriculum and policy documents worldwide. In this paper I borrow from Rüdiger Laugksch's micro - macro distinction of scientific literacy to show that the notion of scientific literacy has gained significance in various curriculum and policy documents from both the personal and the social perspectives. I elucidate the ideological underpinnings behind a number of the clauses within those documents that have defined the trajectory of scientific literacy and have shaped the boundaries of its personal and social benefits. I discuss how democratic decision making, one macro-level benefit of scientific literacy and a focal point in curriculum and policy documents, can have the potential for creating sustainable effects and thus outweigh several other micro and macro benefits. In particular, I situate the preparation of scientifically literate citizens within Amy Gutmann's framework of democratic education and view sustainability in terms of preserving the foundations of democracy itself. I argue that if scientific literacy would serve for democratic decision making, then it is imperative that future citizens are given opportunities where they can practice exploring critically both (1) science-based social issues and (2) the broader political, social and economic systems in which particular science-based social issues have come to exist and/ or evolve. Such a position empowers the future citizens to engage in rational deliberation on science-based social issues without taking the underlying status quo for granted. This is one way through which scientific literacy in the school curriculum can serve for developing citizens who can contribute to conscious social reproduction, in Gutmann's words. I end up the paper discussing conditions in which scientific literacy for democratic decision making can contribute to conscious social reproduction.

Keywords: science curriculum; science education; scientific literacy; social reproduction; democratic education.

1   Introduction

Many science education scholars and policy documents consider scientific literacy to be a major goal of science education (e.g., Council of Ministers of Education Canada [CMEC], 1997; Kolstø, 2001; Laugksch, 2000). Even the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) of the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), in the last decade, assessed students' scientific literacy rather than their understanding of science content (e.g., OECD, 2006). Scientific literacy is an ill-defined and controversial phrase (Laugksch, 2000) which entails what the general public ought to know about science (Durant, 1993). Laugksch (2000) differentiates between the micro and the macro views of scientific literacy. While the micro view is related to the direct benefits to the individual, the macro view is related to the benefits that scientific literacy has to the society. One macro-level view that Laugksch finds highlighted in the literature is that a scientifically literate society can contribute to democratic decision making. A number of science educators (e.g., Bell & Lederman, 2003; Kolstø, 2001) have argued that scientifically literate citizens must be able to engage in decision making on science-based social issues. Yacoubian (2012) has considered *critical thinking* a foundational pillar in guiding future citizens develop a mindset for making decisions on science-based social issues.

Nonetheless, many science-based social issues that are prevalent today came to exist and/ or evolved under the broader political, social and economic systems that we live in. A number of these issues can be situated within the broader neoliberal and neoconservative ideologies (Bencze, 2010), often associated with market logic, privatization and deregulation. I argue that if scientific literacy would serve for democratic decision making, then it is imperative that future citizens are given opportunities where they can practice exploring *critically both* (1) science-based social issues and (2) the broader political, social and economic systems in which particular science-based social issues get shaped. I explore how this position creates a potential for sustainability after situating the preparation of scientifically literate citizens within Gutmann's (1987, 1993) framework of democratic education.

2   Scientific Literacy in Curriculum and Policy Documents

In this section, I borrow from Laugksch's (2000) micro - macro distinction to show that the notion of scientific literacy has gained significance in various science education curriculum and policy documents from both the personal and the social perspectives. I use three examples to illustrate how scientific literacy has been back and forth along the personal - social continuum.

Laugksch (2000) highlights three micro-level arguments that exist in the literature and that are related to the benefits of scientific literacy to the individual. Accordingly, a scientifically literate individual will (1) feel more confident and competent to deal with everyday science- and technology- related matters; (2) be in a favourable position to exploit new job opportunities; and (3) enjoy the aesthetic, intellectual and moral benefits that scientific literacy brings. On the other hand, Laugksch highlights five macro-level arguments in the literature related to the advantages of having a scientifically literate society. Thus, a scientifically literate public could (1) contribute to the economic well being of a nation, (2) provide greater support for science, (3) have more realistic expectations from science, (4) contribute to democratic decision making, and (5) provide benefits to the society at large because of the relationship that exists between science and culture.

As a first example, in the United States, the *Next Generation Science Standards* (NGSS, 2013) were recently developed and publicized. A main reason behind developing those new standards was the need for fostering a scientifically and technologically literate society (NGSS, 2013). In addition to satisfying the needs of the modern workforce and ensuring a competitive economy, it was hoped that some level of scientific literacy will help the American citizens to make personal decisions. We read:

> Americans are being forced to increasingly make decisions—including on health care and retirement planning—where literacy in science and mathematics is a real advantage... (NGSS, 2013)

The argument that American citizens need to make personal decisions regarding healthcare and retirement demonstrates a micro-level benefit of scientific literacy in Laugksch's (2000) terms. Citizens will need to be more competent and confident in dealing with everyday issues, such as healthcare, that demands some understanding of science and its processes. Nonetheless, scientific literacy in the *Next Generation Science Standards* is not restricted to micro-level benefits. Satisfying the needs of the modern workplace, a claim made explicit in this document, is one aspect that is regarded having the potential to contribute to the economic well being of the nation. Such a position illustrates a macro-level benefit of scientific literacy in Laugksch's terms.

Another example comes from Canada. The need for developing scientific literacy among the general public emanates from the awareness of "increasing global interdependence and the need for a sustainable environment, economy, and society" (CMEC, 1997, section 3). Hence, the line of reasoning continues, science education should serve for "prepar[ing] students to critically address science-related societal, economic, ethical, and environmental issues" (CMEC, 1997, section 3). The latter supports the argument that the future citizens should be prepared for democratic decision making – a macro-level benefit of scientific literacy to use Laugksch's terms.

On the other hand, the document also places emphasis on the benefits of scientific literacy at the micro level where students would need to develop relevant knowledge, skills and attitudes in order to become lifelong learners. We read:

> Scientific literacy is an evolving combination of the science-related attitudes, skills, and knowledge students need to develop inquiry, problem-solving, and decision-making abilities, to become lifelong learners, and to maintain a sense of wonder about the world around them. (CMEC, 1997, section 2)

The final example is derived from the European context. The concern for preparing citizens who can contribute to democratic decision making by taking informed choices is a highlight of the *White Paper on Education and Training* (European Commission, 1995). The document sets forth a macro-level argument, upon emphasizing on the need for citizens to possess certain "scientific awareness" (p. 10) that will enable them to make informed choices on environmental and ethical issues and thus "ensure that democracy can function properly" (p. 10).

Nevertheless, the argument does not stop at the macro-level. *Scientific awareness* has also micro-level benefits as it will provide the citizens with the necessary confidence to deal with everyday science and technology based issues to become good consumers. We read in the document that scientific literacy enables the citizens to "understand in broad terms the social implications of debates between experts" (p. 11). This will "make everyone capable of making considered decisions as consumers" (p. 11).

3   Ideological Underpinnings behind the Micro and the Macro

In the previous section, the three examples of curriculum and policy documents highlight both micro- and macro-level benefits of scientific literacy. Arguments at both levels are present even if the dosage of each might differ from one document to the other. Back and forth along the micro - macro continuum, scientific literacy is considered to bring important, and assumingly good, benefits at both the personal and the social levels. But behind the explicit agendas of the micro and the macro benefits, there is an implicit neoliberal agenda that draws the trajectories for how the micro and the macro benefits of scientific literacy to be defined.

McLaren (2005) has argued that neoliberalism has favoured the market to be the patron of educational reforms, with education serving the needs of the market for more capital accumulation. Many of the micro- and the macro-level arguments of scientific literacy present in curriculum and policy documents tend to create a partnership between education and economy through aiming at the production of future generations who in the name of scientifically literate citizens can contribute to economic growth, competition in the global marketplace, and further accumulation of capital. One implicit rationale for science education in this particular era is the need to meet today's market requirements which demand people to have some level of scientific literacy so that they can participate effectively in today's life by becoming better consumers at the personal or micro level as well as contributors to the economy at the social or macro level.

Let's go back to our three examples. The argument that scientifically literate American citizens are essential for satisfying the needs of the modern workplace (NGSS, 2013) adopts a human capital resource model for education, in Smith's (2003) words, whereby curriculum aims at producing workers for the new globalizing market system. That scientific literacy is needed for students to become lifelong learners (CMEC, 1997) invokes to the language of companies (Smith, 2003). Today's companies aim for continuous restructuring with the purpose of remaining globally competitive. Hence, a scientifically literate individual would need to learn to be flexible and reskill herself, if she wants to stay in her job and be competitive in the market (Smith, 2003). Last but not least the argument that citizens need to make informed decisions as consumers (European Commission, 1995) equates good citizens with good consumers. Schools are seen to serve the economy by having the responsibility to prepare students to make proper assessment and evaluation of scientific products and services in today's highly scientific and technological era.

4   Scientific Literacy and Democratic Decision Making

Both the Pan-Canadian Science Education Framework (CMEC, 1997) and the White Paper on Education and Training (European Commission, 1995) highlight the importance of scientific literacy for democratic decision making. This macro-level benefit can be achieved through "prepar[ing] students to critically address science-related societal, economic, ethical, and environmental issues" (CMEC, 1997, section 3) and through raising scientific awareness that will enable citizens to make informed choices on environmental and ethical issues (European Commission, 1995, p. 10). I discuss how democratic decision making can have the potential for creating sustainable effects and thus outweigh several other micro and macro benefits of scientific literacy.

Many science-based social issues that are prevalent today came to exist and/ or evolved under the broader political, social and economic systems that we live in. A number of these issues (e.g., deforestation for increased meat production) can be situated within a broader ideological agenda. In general, science educators have different positions regarding how to guide future generations in addressing those issues. Hodson (2003), for instance, goes all the way to suggest preparing citizens for sociopolitical action. It is my contention that critical exploration of science-based social issues should not be self-enclosed. In other words, it is not enough to engage students in exploring the explicit causes and implications of these issues (e.g., what are the consequences of increased meat production on deforestation?). Critical exploration of science-based social issues must gradually lead into exploring the issue in question within the broader social, political and economic system (e.g., why are humans exerting excessive pressure on the environment; overly extracting resources; engaging in massive production, distribution and consumption of meat?). Finally, science-based social issues must open windows through which critical exploration of the broader political, social and economic systems can take place (e.g., to what extent does the underlying ideology foster environmental sustainability?). Educationally speaking, this entails guiding learners, in developmentally appropriate ways, to develop a mindset to go beyond the explicit, to learn to dig beneath the surface to examine what's under that surface, and to evaluate the impact of the explicit on the implicit and the implicit on the explicit. Of course, all this needs to be taught critically, making sure that future citizens develop critical thinking-related knowledge, skills and dispositions and learn how to

use them as they make decisions. The benefits can be numerous. Future citizens can develop both critical thinking and issue understanding. In addition, this is one way through which scientific literacy can contribute towards promoting sustainability (Mayer, 1997) and social justice (Reiss, 2003).

More importantly, guiding learners to explore critically the broader social, political and economic systems of science-based social issues can contribute to a more effective democratic education. The result of democratic education, according to Gutmann (1993), is not an increase in political knowledge or trust, rather "an increase in the willingness and ability of the students to reason and argue about politics, collectively and critically, respectful of their reasonable differences, a willingness and ability that is distinctively democratic" (1993, p. 6). Such a position embeds in itself an inherent promise to "reject inculcating blind allegiance to any political system and to any conception of the good life" (1993, p. 1). It leads into questioning the ideological system that underlies many science-based social issues rather than taking it for granted. When viewed from such a perspective, scientific literacy for democratic decision making can have a potential for creating sustainable benefits in absolute terms as well as relative to the other micro and macro-level benefits of scientific literacy because, as Gutmann points out, it involves the adoption of both democratic means and democratic ends – It aims at producing democratic citizens democratically, a requisite to preserve the foundations of democracy itself.

5   Scientific Literacy for Social Reproduction

So far I discussed how democratic decision making, one macro-level benefit of scientific literacy and a focal point in curriculum and policy documents, can have the potential for creating sustainable effects. If scientific literacy would serve for democratic decision making, then the preparation of scientifically literate citizens should be based on a curriculum that well reflects the principles of democratic education. After all democratic education lies at the core of a commitment to democracy (Gutmann, 1993). Scientific literacy for democratic decision making can have a potential for creating sustainable benefits when it aims for developing values among future citizens that can contribute towards conscious social reproduction, in Gutmann's words. I end this paper by discussing conditions necessary for fostering conscious social reproduction.

We may want the future citizens to be free in making their decisions on science-based social issues but at the same time we may value good decisions which supposedly do not harm the society. It may sometimes feel hard to agree on whether individual freedom or civic virtue must constitute the basis of a curriculum of scientific literacy for democratic decision making. I concur with Gutmann that the dichotomy between the personal and the social must be rejected and that the conflict needs to be resolved through democratic ideal of conscious social reproduction. Gutmann writes:

> Education should prepare citizens for consciously *reproducing* (not replicating) their society. We should therefore support a set of educational practices to which citizens, acting collectively, have consciously agreed, provided that those practices also prepare future citizens for participating intelligently in the political processes that shape their society. (Gutmann, 1993, p. 3)

Scientific literacy for democratic decision making can contribute to conscious social reproduction upon fulfilling at least two conditions. The first condition is based on satisfying Gutmann's principle of "nonrepression" (1993, p. 4). Nonrepression is a key ingredient in conscious social reproduction. It leads into the cultivation of character and intellect, to use her words, needed in choosing rationally and ensuring that rational consideration of various ways of life does not get restricted. As previously argued, the preparation of scientifically literate future citizens can be nonrepressive when the critical exploration of science-based social issues does not remain self enclosed, instead it becomes the window through which the future citizens engage in critical exploration of the broader political, social and economic systems that shape and characterize many of those issues.

The second condition is based on ensuring that future citizens critically develop "democratic virtues" (Gutmann, 1993, p. 8) through a curriculum that aims for scientific literacy. The preparation of scientifically literate citizens need to involve cultivating virtues such as self-discipline, toleration and non-violence, necessary to foster personal and political autonomy. As Gutmann points out, future citizens need to freely "shape their personal and political lives in a plurality of images that they can legitimately identify with their informed, moral choices" (1993, p. 8).

Scientific literacy in the school curriculum needs to serve for developing citizens who can contribute to conscious social reproduction. The latter ensures sustainability through making sure that the foundations of democracy are kept intact, even if understandings of democracy change over time. A curriculum for scientific literacy needs to foster sustainability through making sure that it rejects indoctrination and that it empowers the future citizens to engage in

rational deliberation on science-based social issues without taking the underlying status quo for granted. It is in this way that democratic decision making can be a true macro-level benefit of scientific literacy and can outweigh several other micro and macro benefits.

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Using "A New Key" to Address the Problem of Scapegoated "Gypsy" Students in Schools

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A Narrative of a Stranger

"Strangers, gods and monsters," writes Richard Kearney (2003) "represent experiences of extremity which bring us to the edge. They subvert our established categories and challenge us to think again" (p. 3). Here I extend Kearney's interpretation of "stranger" to "scapegoat," to consider the European Roma as a people who challenge the dominant narrative, particularly in the context of education. I offer a psychological reading of a group who has been identified with the role of the scapegoat thereby suffers through negative inflation, exile, and splitting. In tracing the roots of scapegoating, I address a split in the human psyche between the conscious and unconscious, familiar and unfamiliar, self and shadow. As Kearney reminds us, we have a choice in this dynamic: "to try to understand and accommodate our experience of strangeness or to repudiate it by projecting it exclusively onto outsiders" (p. 4).

This reading of a collective Romani narrative is historically located, extending temporally through culture to its most destructive manifestations in education. It is framed by three lines of movement: a brief framing of the ancient practice of scapegoating – a psychological perspective; interpreting encounters of European Roma in terms of a scapegoat complex and the collective unconscious – a historical perspective; and, extending this cultural position to education to offer insights from curriculum theory to redress current teaching-learning practices – a pedagogical perspective. The hope of this re-storying is not only to decentre the modern-laden landscape so to revitalize the discussion of difference in education but also to elicit an ethical response toward a people who have been continually denied rights, persecuted, and discriminated.

Scapegoating – A Psychological Perspective

The term scapegoat signifies individuals and groups who are accused of causing misfortune. This usage serves to relieve others, the scapegoaters, of their own responsibilities and to strengthen their sense of power and righteousness. In this way, a search for the scapegoat relieves us also of our relationship to the other and to the transpersonal dimension of life; ignoring the workings of the gods and shifting blame to the scapegoat and devil for life's evils. Thereby, we remain good.

The concept of unity is consistent in all scapegoating activity in both Biblical and political science references (Kearney, 2003). The scapegoat represents the group's urge toward its own wholeness by excluding its disparate elements. Thus, scapegoating can exist anywhere there is a transfer of negative attribution from one part of a system to another, or to a part outside of itself to another system in order to meet what is perceived to be a unifying survival function for the system as a whole (Colman, 1995). Within any given society the scapegoat is created by projecting the unacceptable side of group life elsewhere. For the individual, these elements are said to belong to one's shadow and while not accepted as one's own become projected onto others. For the group, common negative ground is a collective creation, a "symbolic compromise for many individuals' negative

projections" (p. 7). So the scapegoat while not identical to the shadow of the individual is similar in that it is 'humanity's societal vessel for the shadow" (p. 7).

There exists a critical connection between the growth process of individuals and that of groups, for scapegoats not only hinder group development but also hamper integration of shadow projections, a necessary step in the individuation process. As long as there are unintegrated shadow figures for the group, integration of the shadow within the individual is an illusion. That is, the process of psychological development for the individual will always be held hostage to the presence of the scapegoat in the larger community. Conversely, group consciousness will also be kidnapped from its own authority and agency if the group is not awakened to its own separating tendencies. The challenge then is to acknowledge a difference between self and other without separating them so schismatically that *no* relation at all is possible, a relation that is ever-present in the meta-mix of greater forces. Individuation requires acceptance of our responsibility for the suffering and scapegoating in the collective and a commitment to alleviate both, knowing that the consciousness of each is always interrelated and interdependent.

Of great importance in the scapegoat dynamic is the unconscious bonding that exists between the two groups, a mark of *participation mystique*. Within this field of psychic contagion each accepts the given identification of self and other. For example, while the European Roma have been scapegoated, within the Romani language the word *Roma* means people in the plural masculine gender, with a connotation of "us" versus "them." Outsiders are referred to by the general term *Gadje (Gaje),* a disparaging term given to one who is not a "Gypsy," which Dimitrina Petrova (2003) claims is a "strikingly frequent conversational practice when Roma speak with Roma" (p. 112). In other words, within their language, Roma unconsciously accept this ostracized position and project it back upon the other. The two groups are caught within dichotomies of the self-other relation and unconscious projective identification. Each narrative illustrates that the one (group or nation) is never secure in itself.

Arthur Colman (1995) in *Up from Scapegoating* offers the scapegoat as a point of convergence between the individual and the group, a "critical intersection" through which both the person and the collective may mature (p. 2). He suggests that individuation separate from the collective is flawed because it leaves the shadow out of the process. The personal shadow once projected onto the collective scapegoat, permits the individual to turn one's back on the scapegoat and call it a product of mass consciousness, hinting at its lower level. The resistance to exploring the unconscious process of the collective is extremely powerful in schools, organizations, and governments. Nations and groups do not want to look deeply into their origins, myths, or their complexes – the way the collective unconscious manifests in their structures and processes. They will create scapegoats rather than accommodate diversity within its own membership.

A Scapegoat Archetype Enacted – A Historical Perspective

Identity through Negative Inflation

Any people identified with a scapegoat archetype experience negative inflation, exile and splitting. As positioned, the Roma are unconsciously cut off from an adequate relation to the outer world and to their own inner depths. Even if they were to disidentify from the burden of the scapegoat complex, their relation to the archetype continues because their identity was constructed within its historical and cultural pattern. Thus, "[t]he complex becomes a focus of life" (Jung 1953/79 par. 456).

Hancock's (2005) *We are the Romani people* allocates the dark side of Romani history in centuries of slavery and enforced labour in Europe and elsewhere, their attempted genocide under the Nazis, and causes of antigypsyism, in particular the role of stereotypical images of 'The Gypsies' – conditions that continue to affect the lives of Romanies today. Romani identification with negative inflation, an unconscious identification with the negative side of the shadow creating an unrealistically low view of oneself via the eyes of the scapegoater, begins with a long history of slavery. The Ottoman court in 1818 incorporated new edicts into the penal code, among

them: "Gypsies are born slaves"; and "Any Gypsy without an owner is the property of the Prince" (p. 21). In England, during the sixteenth century, King Edward VI passed a law stating that Romanies be "branded with a *V* on their breast, and then enslaved for two years," if they escaped and were recaptured, they were then to be branded with an *S* and made slaves for life (p. 27). Spain shipped Romanies to the Americas; Portugal shipped to its colonies even India – the Romanies' country of origin. Soon other countries followed suit (Hancock, 2005).

When the Nazis came to power in 1933, German laws against Romanies had already been in place for hundreds of years. By the nineteenth century, scholars in Germany and elsewhere in Europe were writing about Romanies and Jews as being inferior beings and the "excrement of humanity" (p. 35). The Roma came to be identified with "unworthy of life" and "incurably mentally ill"; and only a few months after Hitler became Chancellor to the Third Reich, a law to enact the phrase "lives undeserving of life" was put into effect (p. 36).

Identity through Exile

Scapegoated or exiled groups such as the Roma, which appear to devalue space and transgress or disturb the meaning of place, are, yet again, reviled and rejected. Because of the expulsion laws, which began to be passed in the sixteenth-century Europe, Roma's means of livelihood had to be portable (Fraser, 1992). One such means was fortune telling, a highly regarded profession in India, but not in Europe; begging is similarly viewed very differently in Hindu and Islamic societies, where giving alms to beggars is a religious obligation yet has no such status in the West today. Fortune telling only helped reinforce the image of mystery and exoticism that was growing in the European mind.

The Roma are not only without a nation state, but also do not lay claim to one, thereby, challenging the notion of the European Union (EU) and dominant discourse with their boundaries and rights that accompany groups' identities or ethnicities. Ironically, nostalgia, an ever-present theme in Roma songs, is not understood as nostalgia for home; it is, instead, a "yearning for a past that Gypsies never had" (McLaughlin, 1999, p. 41). History suggests that the Roma have no home even though "nostalgia is the essence of Gypsy song, and seems always to have been" (Fonseca, 1996, p. 5). Perhaps uniquely among peoples, they have no dream of a homeland. As Isabel Fonseca (1996) pointed out, the yearning itself, which is celebrated, is a yearning for a past that never was. Such yearning may be an impetus to travel.[1]

"Travelling," writes Hancock, "is part of our history. Our ancestors trekked for thousands of miles from India to Europe and out into the world, so there is certainly some truth to the stereotype of the "travelling gypsy"' (p. 101). A distinction, however, must be made between travelling on a journey with a purpose and travelling because local laws in an area forbid one to stop and therefore leave no choice.

Exile is an archetypal image of the painful stimulus that forces individuals and groups to seek for return and atonement with the transpersonal. It marks the rupture of the initial bond and harmony that is analogous to a loss of paradise and birth into earth's difficult separations and struggles, as is basic to the myth of Western Christianity. The exiled are cast out to wander in the wilderness, a place beyond accepted cultural forms, filled with "the potency of disorder . . . in contact with danger . . . at the source of power" (Douglas, 1966, p. 117). In the wilderness, the scapegoated confronts the unknown. The wilderness is an image expressing their existential experience of profound alienation and exile. It is the world of their own perceived reality that encompasses them for they feel anomalous, outside the collective borders, beyond acceptance. In addition, through the exile's alienation from the collective, the scapegoat serves the group in a medial capacity, helping to connect the world of consciousness to that of the objective psyche. Psychologically, the wilderness "mirrors the pain of never-belonging, of homelessness, or living in hiding" within a larger context (Perera, 1986, p. 26).

Identity through Splitting

In 2009, Bernard Rorke reports for the UN Development and Transition that a survey on EU minorities and discrimination found that "on average, across nine areas of everyday life, Roma were discriminated against

because of their ethnic background more than all other groups surveyed, including Sub-Saharan Africans and North Africans."

Sevasti Trubeta (2003) explains:

> The common denominator of the diverse (historical) forms of the collective Gypsy imaginary is their alleged "strangeness," which seemed to be expressed mainly in that "deviant way of life" taken up by those *incapable* of social conformity. Furthermore, this assertion joins diachronic stereotypes of primitivism, presenting Gypsies as "parasites" or as "noble savages" and additionally as "born wanderers." (p. 503 emphasis hers)

We see continued evidence of the alienated persona-ego or victim-ego where the accuser denies its own shadow and projects evil upon the accused. Such action leaves the remaining members of the community with a feeling of guiltlessness, atoned with the collective standards of behaviour. In other words, the unconsciously targeted scapegoats – Roma – tend to represent denied polarities within the scapegoaters – settled people of the EU for example – that are being split and projected. The Roma who have been covertly assigned the role simply tend to be more transparent in revealing this denied polarity, thereby creating a 'bipolar projection.' As an 'othered' group, they represent the intrapsychic conflicts of group members and are unconsciously used to act out a shared collective problem. Repressed urges of other people, such as anger projected onto the scapegoat, disassociates these urges from their own anger and enables vicarious satisfaction as some of the repressed urges are acted out by the scapegoat. In a sense, the scapegoat expresses and contains the denied group emotions and attributes underlying a particular group concern and then becomes the target for the projections of other groups/members with respect to that concern. So scapegoating both allocates blame and serves to "inoculate against future misery and failure" by evicting the presumed cause of misfortune (Kagan cited in Perera, 1986, p. 8). Subsequently, the scapegoat not only has to confront his emotions but also the repressed emotions of the other group.

The psychology of individuals or groups identified with the scapegoat complex is understood as a manifestation of a distortion of the archetypal structure as signified by the scapegoat ritual which was used "to enrich meaning or call attention to other levels of existence" (Douglas, 1966, p. 53). The scapegoat ritual is no longer dedicated to and identified with the god. This change accounts for the split between the originally united parts (of good and evil) within the archetypal pattern. In groups identified with the scapegoat complex this accuser is constellated by the rejecting behaviours of the dominant group. It derives from the moralistic judgements of the mother or father, or in the case of a nation, its leaders, media, and institutions, which relate, in terms of how things *should be* rather than things as *they are*. In schools such judgements are equally widespread within curriculum, evaluation, streaming, and the unconscious attitudes of teachers, counselors, and administrators.

Scapegoated in Schools – A Pedagogical Perspective

This narrative of Romani as a scapegoated people within the EU can readily be extended to the school systems as institutions emulate the culture and consciousness of its larger ecosystem. Romani children and youth experience the same intrapsychic and interpersonal dynamics associated with negative inflation, exile, and splitting by schooling policies and practices that are marked by segregation, discrimination, inequality, and an intolerance to difference. The distinctions between individual and group complexes are only technical aids in understanding multilayered human processes; the experience and effects are the same.

Segregating Roma students to special schools and programs, labeling them with mental disabilities, tolerating discriminatory attitudes among teachers and administration, utilizing teaching materials that support and promote the dominant narrative, denying multiple perspectives by way of culture and history, supporting exclusionary requests of non-Roma parents, offering a restricted curriculum that limits advancement to higher grades, disproportionately designating Roma students with learning difficulties, failing to be culturally, socially or economically sensitive in testing, failing to respect and support diverse values of the student population, and teachers lacking awareness of cultural diversity (Romani groups) only just begins a list of the ways EU systems of education continue to scapegoat Romani students (families and cultures). By failing to hear the real issues of

Romani students and by refusing to address them through integrative and intercultural practices and attitudes, curricular and pedagogical changes, they will remain exiled within and from the very structures and opportunities that would benefit both populations (Roma and non-Roma).

Many valuable recommendations have been made including the significance of mother-tongue teaching by the Hague Recommendations on the education rights of national minorities (O'Nions, 2010), the recognition of the Council of Europe on the urgent need for more Roma teachers, classroom assistants and mentors (Council of Europe 2000), the call to improve social initiatives that fail to appreciate the constitutive elements of collective identity, and the promotion of a climate of intercultural respect. In addition to seeking change through Commissions and education policy, I offer thoughts drawn from the curriculum theory of Canadian educational scholar, Ted T. Aoki, as a way to work with pre-service and current teachers in coming to understand teaching and learning in new ways. I am not suggesting an either or approach rather one of complementarity where each teacher is called upon, in addition to teacher education programs, to make curricular changes alongside reform by international commissions and human rights organizations.

For Aoki the quality of education is to be found in the quality of curriculum-as-lived-experience; thus, curriculum planners must take as their central concern making a contribution "to the aliveness of school life as lived by teachers and students" (1986/1991, p. 162). Rather than technical expertise, the authority of curriculum developers derives from

> a deeply conscious sensitivity to what it means to have a developer's touch, a developer's tact, a developer's attunement that acknowledges in some deep sense the uniqueness of every teaching situation. Such a sensitivity calls for humility without which they will not be able to minister to the calling of teachers who are themselves dedicated to searching out a deep sense of what it means to educate and to be educated. (p. 165)

I use Aoki's work exclusively to make a case for another way to proceed when confronted in education by the ills of scapegoating. To address this ancient dynamic, one cannot do so with top-down, generalized policies whereby the individuals within schools and communities are not invited into conversation. Change must occur within the individual and group consciousness of both the scapegoated and scapegoaters. I call upon Aoki because as a child, he was one of many Japanese students taken from class, along with adults and families into detainment. Labeled "enemy aliens" deported and imprisoned by the Canadian government, Japanese families, even their "Canadian-born" children became dispossessed and homeless, many losing their sense of self-esteem and pride in their culture. In the early 1900s racism was a widely accepted response to the unfamiliar, which "justified the relegation of minorities to a lower status based on a purported moral inferiority" (Internment and Redress, p. 19). The prejudice was further institutionalized into law: Asians were denied the vote, were excluded from most professions, the civil service and teaching, and those who did find employment were paid much less than their white counterparts. In 1949 all restrictions were lifted and Japanese Canadians were given full citizenship rights, including the right to vote and the right to return to the West Coast (former area of removal); however, there was no home to return to and the Japanese community in British Colombia was virtually destroyed. This experience underlies all of Aoki's work and deeply affects the theory offered here as a necessary element in conceptualizing curriculum anew within the EU, not only for Roma children but for all.

As indicated in the psychological perspective on scapegoating, the scapegoat and scapegoating process often hold the unconscious problem of the organization or nation that must sooner or later be confronted and reintegrated if change is to occur. As Aoki (2005) writes it:

> the oblivion of Being [being attracted to objective meanings hide lived meanings] applies not only to the people objectified but also to the subject that objectifies. Usually unconsciously, the subject diminishes itself to a half-life. An oppressor becomes oppressed by the half-lives he or she produces. (p. 381)

In other words, there is a different sort of reductionism that arises among those belonging to the dominant culture for they closet themselves into solitudes of ethnic or cultural identities, perceiving them to be static and stable and thereby "promote ethno-narcissism" by regarding others strictly as "them" (p. 381). For those who belong to the other side (the oppressed or scapegoated), in becoming conscious of this dynamic and electing to become critically literate, they gain agency by inviting the dominant group into dialogue with them; they are able to shape the educational context and experience through their participation. Those in classrooms (teachers, assistants,

curriculum developers) must shift their attention away from knowledge claims and authority, from outcomes and implementation to an understanding of teaching – to the live and complex world of the classroom. Assuming that what counts are effects and results screams of behaviouristic conceptions of motivation and retention whereby teaching is reduced to "doing." Thus any students (their culture, language, values, needs) who do not easily and readily fit into the "mainstream," where the same doings can be maintained, become troublesome and need to be relocated. Often too labeling the relocated keeps them tied to predetermined registers, forbidding any switching of programs even when the required knowledge, skills, and attitudes have been achieved. Here scientific and technical understandings of teaching derive from manipulation and control. The seductive appeal of simplicity rules.

What is needed, advises Aoki is "to break away from the attitude of grasping, and seek to be more properly oriented to what teaching is, so that we can attune ourselves to the call of what teaching is" (cited in Pinar, 2005, p. 17). This is no simple thing; it requires "breaking out of the seductive hold of an orientation to which we are beholden" (p. 17). To be more "properly oriented," "to be in the presence of the beingness of teaching" (p. 18) is about who one *is* as a teacher. To elucidate, Aoki writes of being reunited 44 years later with his elementary teacher Mr. McNab who watched his Japanese Canadian students being taken away. Aoki tells the retired teacher that in the interim, "I often recalled the image of his watchfulness clothed in care that lived in vividly within me" (p. 18). "Teaching as watchfulness and teaching as thoughtfulness" are essential features of teaching (p. 19). Watchfulness in this context is not a panoptic metaphor; rather, it suggests vigilance with soft eyes and is gendered feminine such as the watchfulness of mother with child – teacher with student. Formulating what has been deemed a "phenomenological ethics" (p. 19), Aoki continues: "Authentic teaching is watchfulness, a mindful watching overflowing from the good in the situation that the good teacher sees. In this sense, teachers are more than they do; they are the teaching" (cited in Pinar, 2005, p. 19).

When teaching is thoughtfulness, it becomes for Aoki "an embodied doing and being, thought and soul in oneness of the lived moment" (p. 19). The "lived moment" Aoki articulates involves the same Mr. McNab who had encouraged the Japanese Canadian children in his class to be proud of their culture. In his narrative recounting this experience, Aoki invites us close to the lived moment when Mr. McNab was forced to witness the departure of the Japanese Canadian students relocated from the West Coast to Alberta during World War II. Although scapegoated in this moment, Aoki does not speak from this position. He imagines what the position might have been for his teacher; he suspects that even though Mr. McNab

> had become attuned to the annual departure of his students at the end of [the] school year, somehow the departure of these students in mid-year must have been for him a different experience. And, as a teacher . . . he was caught in this living difference, experiencing the solitude, left alone to make sense of the breakup that happened in his classroom beyond his willing. (cited in Pinar, 2005, p. 19)

Craftfully, Aoki presents the reader with an unbearable moment in a psychologically manageable way. Here readers who identify with the dominant group are enabled to face what white Canadians (of British and European descent) did to Japanese Canadians by identifying with a teacher who was caught in a situation "beyond his willing" (Pinar, p. 2005). In doing so the boundaries between "us" and "them grow porous and one is able to step into the shoes of the other.

Note that what is taught through this lived moment is the timeliness of understanding what teaching truly is. Explication of this lived moment is both a historical and phenomenological moment, one that is crucial to this discussion of Romani students scapegoated in schools. Calling Aoki to elucidate further on what teaching is, he speaks again from personal memory and lived experience:

> I have suggested that what seems urgent for us at this time is understanding what teaching truly is, to undertake to reattune ourselves such that we can begin to see and hear our doings as teachers harboured within the pedagogical presence of our beings, that is, of who we *are* as teachers. (cited in Pinar, 2005, p. 20)

He asks and I invite you to do the same:

> think of a really good teacher you experienced in your own time. Allow him or her to be present now before you. I feel sure that the truth of this good teacher of yours is in the measure of the immeasurable.

And now, say to him or her: he is the teaching; she is the teaching. After having said these words, in the silence allow the unsaid to shine through the said. Savour now the elusively true, the mystery of what teaching essentially is. (p. 20)

Simply, we must become personally engaged. Pedagogy, from the Greek *paidagogia*, once referred to the work of leading children to school, but today it takes on a much wider signification, including both the formal practices and professions of teaching and the complex network of activities that surround general care for the young (Smith 1999). Today pedagogy exists as a fluid dynamic whereby a tensionality emerges from "indwelling in a zone between two curriculum worlds" – the worlds of "planned" and "lived" curriculum experiences (Aoki 1986/1991/2005). Stated otherwise, pedagogy exists in the overlap between an ontological position (a way of being) and epistemological practices (ways of knowing and doing). As Aoki aptly explains, "the quality of life lived within the tensionality depends much on the *quality* of the *pedagogic being*" that the teacher *is* (p. 161, emphasis mine). Every teacher is confronted by this tension – as is every member of the community. What she chooses to do with this tension, tells much about who she is and how she sees and so lives with her student and neighbour. Understood in this way shifts how one conceives of the changes that are needed within schools regarding discrimination, segregation, and inequality.

Who we are, Aoki suggests, is not some essential being; rather, who we are is created by the effects of our movements among layers of difference. This difference is characterized as a landscape embodying curriculum-as-plan (statements of official and recommended resources for teachers and students, curricular goals, objectives and statements of evaluation, etc.) and curriculum-as-lived (the particulars of each student, the story of each life), an open terrain of multiplicity. To include such reconceptualization is not to reject but to decentre the modernist-laden curricular landscape of EU schools and to replace it with a "planned" *and* "lived" landscape wherein, for example, students and teachers alike are called to experience the tension between the master narrative and the many daily narratives of others. In living such tension, teachers learn how to proceed *in* the middle, reaching in all directions, bridging multiple worlds.

Unity with Difference – Concluding Remarks

Any discussion about educational "future directions" without consideration of curriculum theory and psychodynamics – complexes, projections, and the unconscious (personal and collective) – will fall short in cultivating deep and meaningful change. In the case of the Roma, and other ethnic and cultural minorities, using a depth psychological perspective to distinguish cultural complexes and to recognize their effects on individuals and groups enables a deeper understanding of group psychic life. Doing so provides a key to address destructive aspects of the collective psyche. The analysis of cultural complexes, if applied seriously, could contribute significantly to integration strategies in Roma education. Erich Neumann (1969/1990) aptly wrote: the "fight against heretics, [minorities], political opponents and national enemies is actually the fight against our own religious doubts, the insecurity of our own political position, and the one-sidedness of our own national viewpoint" (p. 52). The collective will continue to attempt to liberate itself by exploiting the psychology of the scapegoat as long as there are unconscious feelings of guilt which arise through the splitting phenomenon in the formation of the shadow.

Teaching must seek the lived space of between – in the midst of many cultures, including the perceived strange and the frightful scapegoated. This between is a place alive with tension – where differences strength a nation through complexity and diversity. For such change to happen, it must start with an actual teacher and child and the pedagogic moment of them reaching to meet.

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THE SPACE BETWEEN NARRATIVE AND NARRATION: CURRICULLUM IN THE MARGINS

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Being Called by the Margins:
The Site between Narrative and Narration

> Writing is always on the margins. We keep having second thoughts that expand into great complexities. (Krall, 1994, p. 1)

> The concept of *currere*—the Latin infinitive of curriculum— [denotes] the running (or lived experience) of the course…This autobiographical method asks us to slow down, to remember even re-enter the past, and to meditatively imagine the future. (Pinar, 2004, pp. 3 and 4)

In my years of teaching over the past 30 years, I have developed a pedagogy of "Writing in the Margins" on student papers to carry on a hermeneutic conversation with them. Through this dialogic process of constructing a text together, we each learn what we are capable of saying, and we make known what we know in a new and more intimate manner. We cultivate sensitivity to the undertone of language that hermeneutic questioning as a communicate event makes possible.

I draw upon Gadamer's (1997) "real conversation" through the dialectic of question and answer. Experience of meaning, then, takes shape in the language of speech, a living language that is grounded in one's lived experience. In this context it can be said that philosophic hermeneutics is a hermeneutics of voice, bringing to speech the voice of the "other." What is at stake in understanding is the otherness of the text and its ability to assert its truth against one's own pre-understandings. As hermeneutic phenomenologists, then, which I and my students are, we look upon our biographic situations to enter the life worlds of others, and in the process we become more aware of our own and the pre-understandings that we bring to the meanings we construct together. And as Greene (1973) observes, we suspend our perceptions in order to pose new questions to understand and be "shocked" into new awareness.

In this phenomenological process of unfolding meaning from lived experience (van Manen, 1997) through narration and narrative, I am mindful of Aoki's (2005) cautioning question: If we understand ourselves as spaces of "center-less narration" who rush to fill the voice of narration with narrative, what then? Writing as dwelling together ("lingering" as Aoki described it) with students in the spaces of their

narration as well as my own, is a third space between the center-less space of narration in postmodernism and the deterministic space of objective determinism.

This paper will provide an illustration of "curriculum in the margins" in the space created between narrative and narration with a former student, Debra Scardaville, whose background is Nurse Education, meeting me in the context of her doctoral program in Curriculum Studies and Phenomenology with me. We were both narrators engaged in the process of narration through a hermeneutical conversational process, wherein the texts constituted in our work together grew from this in-between space. In this space questions are beckoned into presence, simultaneously bringing about a deeper sense of the interplay between questions and answers (Berman et al., 1991). Attunement to the call of the questions guides the search for understanding.

The curricular questions as grounded in pedagogical callings, the space that animates and inspires us (van Manen, 1991), that arise from our "conversations in the margins," include: What do we do as teachers to help bring the subject of our teaching out of hiding? When do we remain silent, and when do we venture forth with our saying, our naming, and most of all our questioning? What does it mean to narrate in this center-less space—and how does our narration continue without foreclosing on meaning? These questions call for a lingering that brings us to dwelling in a place, an idea, with each other. Such lingering cannot be driven by abstract theory or methodology, but rather by lived relations with each other as we teach and are taught. If there is anything resembling a method, it might be found in the ability to originate in others what we hope to originate in ourselves. It is that origination that will be brought forward in our writing.

The Process of *Currere*

Through the process of *currere* that Pinar (2004) has conceptualized as a way to understand curriculum and our place in it, four component parts are central to drawing out and weaving meaning into the autobiographical process in a search for meaning.

> **Regressive:** One returns to the past, to capture it as it once was, and as it hovers over the present. (Pinar, 1994, p.21)
> **Progressive:** Progressive derives from *pro* meaning "before" and *gradi* meaning "to step, go....the future is present in the same sense that the past is present. It influences, in complicated ways, the present; it forms the present. (Pinar, 1994, p. 24)
> **Analytic:** *Ana*—up, throughout. *Lysis*—a loosening....Bracketing what is, what was, what can be, one is loosened from it, potentially more free of it, hence more free to freely choose the present, and future... What fundamental biographic theme(s) do they express? (Pinar, 1994, p. 26)
> **Synthetical:** *Syn* means "together" and *tithenai* means "to place." ...Attention [is on] the biological concreteness of being....What is the contribution of my scholarly and professional work to my present? (Pinar, 1994, pp. 26-27)

The Intertwining of Regressive and Progressive Movements

Francine's Voice:

As I begin any course that draws upon an invitation to students to situate themselves autobiographically, I start from a similar point of reference. One such example that I use to establish my personal/intellectual biography as a foundation for how I have been marked as a teacher and mentor, is a biographical foray into the introduction of myself in *Toward Curriculum for Being: Voices of Educators—In Conversation with Ted T. Aoki* (Berman, Hultgren, Lee, Rivkin & Roderick, 1991, pp. 15-16):

In what manner can I bring myself forward as I attempt to be present through an announcement of my identity with you? For me the way is through biography.

I am one of them—the first group to be known as baby boomers! Born in northwestern Minnesota to second-generation Norwegians who both worked as general store proprietors. . . Father—8th grade education . . .Mother—one year college and teaching certificate. . .Brother—age six. Life was good. Family was stable.

I loved school—that wonderful two-room school! In the "Little Room" (grades 1-3) I learned competition well as the others observed us perform and I excelled. I was also cared for by a loving teacher. . .I wanted to be like her. Brother two arrived on the scene while I was in the "Little Room"—a good show and tell!

The "Big Room" (grades 4-6). . .less memories here. . .Stop. . .Our family now became four. . .Father died. I lost a portion of my childhood abruptly. . .Mother gave up her hopes of being a teacher again. . .Older brother left for college. . .Younger brother never knew father. . .Our family was uprooted. . .And I became a pedagogue before my time.

High school. . .More competition. . .Some academic but more extra-curricular: Music—Band—Choir—Cheerleading—and 4-H events (I still have the purple ribbons). Doing and Making. . .Where was being? A special home economics teacher. . .A major chosen. . .call to being through making and doing and yes knowing.

The University of Minnesota. . .A turning. . .Inward. . .Quiet reflectivity. . .Student teaching—a painful time. Being submerged in doing. . .New beginnings. . .Marriage and first year of teaching— stretching to seven.

North Dakota State University. . .Beginning a turning. . .Models of teaching and process approaches to learning. . .My start at curriculum. . .Questioning. . .Master's degree and a mentor nudging toward further graduate study.

University of Wisconsin and graduate studies: my introduction to critical social theory. Home economics at a turning point. . .The reconceptualization of the field from a critical science perspective: a time of self-examination, curriculum change—opportunity facing resistance.

The Pennsylvania State University and a Ph.D. program—another special mentor. . .Still searching for being and a person dimension to inquiry. Hermeneutics and phenomenology discovered, and a centering for my dissertation inquiry. More curriculum projects and more turning—bringing together knowing and being.

The University of Maryland—a place to be what I had been becoming. A group to share my inquiry interests—teaching opportunity for curriculum change and research opportunity with my call to student teachers—a returning to my own turning begun in student teaching.

To know as we are known—the past in our present—to be as we become—questioning schooling—to celebrate as we are celebrated. . .These are some of he themes significant for me in my teaching and in my personal and professional journey. They are existential themes that open to the human condition. My knowing has been revealed in my power to be.

(Writing on/in this Textual Margin)

As I reveal my"Self " in this way, who I am as a teacher gets decentered through this backward glance into the formative years of my childhood that seemed to mark my "becoming" a teacher, and as my students got a glimpse of this "me" of my past. The naming of this realization, becoming a "pedagogue

before my time," also marks both a remembrance and a forgetting of childhood loss as a basis for becoming in a way not chosen, but lived into.

> To be conveyed into [the] past is to be able to forget,
> however briefly the anxieties of the present. Here
> forgetting and remembering work hand-in-hand, each
> helping the other to realize an optimal form.
> (Casey, 1987, p. 12)

And in such lived caring for an"Other" (my younger brother) I came to see my"Self" in the midst of my forgetting and longing to become what I could not yet name.

As van Manen (1991) says: "The child's becoming is a coming to be…We learn to know who we 'really' are when we become who we really are" (p. 33). As I grew into this pedagogical presence, I lived the fundamental conditions of pedagogy that van Manen identifies (albeit before my time): love and care, hope and trust, and responsibility, first as my mother trusted me to become, and then as I trusted myself to become.

The center-less space that I live-in with my students (not mine—not theirs—but ours) as we name and question what formative influences call us to be who we "really" are, signifies a calling that calls rather than answers. How do we accept a call without "answering?" Perhaps our response is rather an echo that attunes us to listen to ourselves and to each other more deeply. As Parker Palmer contends:

> …There is a great gulf between the way my ego wants to identify me,
> with its protective masks and self serving fictions, and my true self.
> It takes time and hard experience to sense the difference between
> the two—to sense that running beneath the surface of the experience
>
> I call my life, there is a deeper and truer life waiting to be acknowledged.
> (p. 5)

As I share my biographical sketch, and my students share theirs, I recognize the power of collective biographical engagement with my students and myself as we meet each other in existential recovery of our presence as we wander through our namings and are put in question by the question. As Darroch and Silvers (1982) suggest:

> It is by recovering and making explicit the sources of our knowledge
> in our biographies and through discourse with others that the tacit
> biographical nature of our bond to the lives and histories of others and
> to the memories of ourselves may be put forward, recognizable as
> knowledge. (p. 17)

Debra's remembering through her biographical engagement brings forward her longing to belong through the metaphorical connection with the path of a pilgrim—or pilgrimage through the call of the wild in nature. Her bond with the personification of a Constellation of Stars is revelatory of becoming in her exploration of the terrains of her"Self" in relation with others.

Debra's Voice:

"The sight of the stars makes me dream." –van Gogh

"I am like a falling star who has finally found her place next to another in a lovely constellation, where we will sparkle in the heavens forever." –Amy Tan

Throughout our stories of self-discovery, the pilgrim has looked to the stars and the heavens for direction. The stars bear witness to the way of the pilgrim. It is in the stars that the timelessness of the path of the pilgrim is recorded. Stars are constant and never changing in position, thus offering a sense of constancy and stability. When lost, the stars offer a sense of being found, allowing the pilgrim to reconnect with the path of the pilgrimage once more.

A pilgrim etymologically derives from the meaning of crossing borders (Ayto, 1990). The pilgrim's path can easily be named the way of the soul. Soul is revealed by Moore (1992) as "a quality or dimension of experience of life and ourselves, encompassing the sense of depth, value, relatedness and personal sustenance" (p. 5). It is a point of intersection between the dimensions of the holy and sacred found within beauty, truth and meaning (Kowalski, 1999): "a profound connection" (Moore, 1994); an "awakened awareness" (Ingram, 2003, p. xv) or call to adventure where new experiences are sought. "A deep-in-the-bones knowledge of mutuality" occurs when two souls meet (Bolen, 2003, p. 32). It is the experience of a deep knowing that awakens the soul to embrace a new way of being in the world. It is in this very spirit of discovery that I muse upon my first meeting with Francine.

As I look back to my path leading to Francine, I cannot help but embody the identity of a pilgrim, as I look to the heavens for a place and space to belong. As a child, my way of passage was determined by nature. As I reflect upon the way of pilgrimage leading to Francine, I cannot help but to envision this path as serendipitous, synchronistic, and mystical. I linger in the light of now what I have come to call, the Constellation of Francine! This constellation comprised of three stars, connect me to the path of the pilgrim, the crossing over of borders of self and Other. As with the journey of the pilgrimage, one cannot remain unchanged in some fashion. So it is to **be-with** Francine along the path to discovery.

The constellation of Francine burns in the pedagogy of place. The first of three stars has its story in a classroom where for the first time in nurse education, I was allowed to "be" in every sense of the word in the paradigm of phenomenology with Maggie (a nurse educator in my earlier graduate work). I gave birth to my question of the meaning of animals in my pedagogy and very core of being. Maggie guided me to the second star of Kathy, a nurse faculty whom I joined together with in the wild place of the South Dakota Native American Reservation. This wish to transverse a reservation had long been nurtured in my soul. As I grew to know this place of wildness, a new understanding of animals and a broader view of animals in everyday life quickly replaced the romanticism of childhood. The midnight conversations with Kathy helped me to turn around and view the very essence of my soul, my animal companions. With Francine, the third star, I have experienced the wildness of place as well, the exploration of the deepest terrains of the self that can be discovered. With Francine, I could open the doors to the uncharted parts of the Self and the place of animal companions in my life story. With Francine, I was allowed to embrace my larger life story of myth as I embodied Artemis, the goddess and protector of animals.

As I continued to dwell in the "light of the three stars," I sought to further embrace the meanings potentially found. Upon some searching, I found the constellation to actually possess a name, Orion's Belt. Orion's Belt is a series of three bright stars, reflective of the constellation, Orion, the night hunter. Orion, according to myth, was placed in the night sky by Artemis, the goddess of wild beings and animals. The night hunter stands poised to hunt the celestial rabbit, Lepus, an animal being destined to become a turning experience on my way of pilgrimage towards the meanings of animals in my life's story. Orion also hunts the bull, Taurus, my astrological sign. Most significantly, it is by no sheer coincidence that Orion is accompanied by his faithful dogs, Canis Major and Canis Minor. Indeed, the third star in Orion's Belt points the way to a bright fixture on the horizon, Sirius. Sirius, named the Dog Star, is one of the brightest in the sky. The Dog Star has a companion star, the Pup Star. Sirius and the Pup Star share a binary system, a "two-by-two" positioning, circling ad traveling together. For me, Francine has emerged like a binary or

companion star. With her, I dwell within this companionship pedagogy of the Dog Star and the Pup Star. Her light has allowed my light to be seen.

Like the stars on the path of the pilgrim, a companion etymologically breaks bread with the Other in the spirit of nurturance while at the same time, creating safe spaces of trial and tribulation as they bear witness to the metaphorical birth of the Other. A companion be-comes the pathic healer. Van Manen (1999) notes that the term, pathic derives from *pathos*, a suffering and passion, a quality that arouses pity or sorrow. Thus, the pathically tuned body is closely aligned with the lived body. The pathic experience dwells within the temporality of the present; it is a means of making the human being whole, in that the body and the Self are re-united. The pathic experience of healing, therefore, is closely aligned with the process of attunement. The pathic healer guides the person to himself or herself, as the healer responds to vulnerability. The pathic relationship is one of individuality and uniqueness as "the senses intercommunicate by opening up the structure of a thing" (Merleau-Ponty, 1962, p. 229). The pathic healer emerges akin to a mother who bears witness to the birth of a child, offering self as a vessel of safe passage. This metaphorical mother opens "a body poetic," a vessel for completeness of Self by the joining together of body, mind and soul.

The pathic healer opens spaces for growth and change. These spaces become places rich in meaning and experience. As these experiences are named, the spaces take on new identities of what I term the in-between places. The soul is the dweller of the "in-between" as noted by O'Donohue (1997), "the middle ground between the separation of the air and the belonging of the earth" (p. 97). As a homesteader within this middle ground, the soul shelters, seeking connection. Francine, like the stars, has borne witness to my pilgrimage and crossing of boundaries and borders. She has been that constant connecting guide on the horizon, ever present, offering a light to a different way of homecoming. The in-between places are the realm of the wild for it is the nature of the soul to be wild. With Francine, I become alive, attuned to the call of the wild. This heeding of the call to the wildness is eloquently described in the words of London (2001), "And not only did he learn by experience, but instincts long dead became alive again…the ancient song surged through him and he came into his own again" (pp. 21-21). When the ear is tuned to the ancient song of the wild soul, we, too, "come into our own again," discovering our true essences of soul through the bodily attunements of the senses, place, and the Self.

Even within these wild places of Self, the soul seeks to nurture and care. Our companionship has taken us to the very places of wilderness and wildness: Australia, England, Italy, Norway, and France. In these places, I attune to the places of the in-between as I stand poised at the points of borders of water and land, those life-sustaining places of nurturance. At the shores, the water gives way to the land, so has Francine helped me to give way to myself, to dwell on the ecotones of water and land. Within nature, "Ecotones are those places where edges fuse together, creating the soil for difference to be nurtured and change is immanent" (Krall, 1994, p. 4). These ecotones have created fertile places for my own growth and a true returning to home. The stars guide me home, beckoning me to explore those in-between places…

(Writing on/in this Textual Margin)

Hearing one's echo out among the lonely mountains [or other
realms of nature] seems to suggest that one is not alone.
Landscapes and nature know us, and the returning echoes
seem to confirm we belong here. (O'Donohue, 1999, p. xxi)

As Debra writes about her Pilgrim's Journey being called by nature, she looks to companions (humans and animals as teachers and healers). What does it mean to be a teacher who connects in this soul-full way with students—one who is seen to heal and "bear witness" for safe passage in the student's journey to self? Can a teacher be a soul-friend (*Anam Cara*) as O'Donohue (1197) suggests?

While this is a weighty responsibility, is this not what it means to be a pedagogue after all—we help our students make sense of their journeys, just as they help us make sense of ours? I am humbled by the idea that I am seen as one who is a soul-friend. This attribution helps me to see myself in and with my students in our relating; we meet each other in the intimate spaces called forward, in a world that suffers from a deep sense of isolation. This is the basics of teaching and learning in a curricular context that calls forth a different language and way of being— that help students and teachers take up the on-going conversation that each life is already a part (Jardine, Clifford, & Friesen, 2003).

Rendering of Thematic Connections through the Analytic and Synthetical Movements

The Self is available to itself in physical form. The intellect, residing
in physical form is part of the Self. The Self is not a concept the intellect
has of itself. The intellectual is an appendage of the Self, a medium, like
the body, through which the Self and the world are accessible to them-
Selves.
Mind in its place, I conceptualize the present situation.
I am placed together.
Synthesis. (Pinar, 1994, p. 27)

To get to the Synthetical, we begin with the Analytic and work into the Synthetical. Debra has chosen the metaphor of "Pilgrim" to situate her biography, an apt naming of what we seek to do here in this paper, in what it suggests for bringing different fields of study together (home economics, curriculum and nursing) through the *currere* process. Pilgrimages are "movements of people that loosen the hold of institutional, structural descriptions in the creation of liminal spaces" (Turner, as cited in Lugones, 2003, p. 8).

"Ecotone" is another grounding for the co-mingling of biographies as we name the power of place to mark who we are and what we share. In a book called *Ecotone,* by Florence Krall (1994) that Debra draws from, Krall chose this term to represent that place of meeting and tension between diverse and sometimes conflicting aspects of our lives:

Ecotone, that place of crossing over, provides sanctuary, solitude
and peace, growth and transformation, as well as isolation and inner
or outer present limitations and moves to new possibilities. (p. 6)

And as we bring phenomenology and curriculum into home economics nursing, the idea of ecotone is significant, where "the boundary between two natural communities" is where elements of both as well as transitional species intermingle in heightened richness. This heightened richness brings forth a deep attunement to the Self, opening the Self to a holistic authenticity, a true calling home. Authenticity is directly related to the experience of caring as Noddings (1984) writes: "The one-caring sees the best self in the cared-for and works with him to actualize that self" (p. 64). It is within this notion of home that we are called to turn and face the Other, the hidden parts of ourselves. This calling is akin to what Levin (1989) describes as the echo as "a hermeneutical metaphor that carries us back from the ontic world into an ontological field, teaching our hearing the presence of absence and the absence of presence" (pp. 237-238). The echoes reverberate in the unspoken parts of the narrative offered in the margins as we embrace those missing parts of ourselves and dwell within their duality of absence and presence—an in-between place of remembrance and forgetting.

The Between-ness of Interdisciplinary Space

> Interdisciplinary work, so much discussed these days, is not about
> confronting already constituted disciplines (none which, in fact, is
> willing to let itself go). To do something interdisciplinary, it's not
> enough to choose a subject or a theme and gather around it two or
> three sciences. Interdisciplinary consists in creating a new object
> that belongs to no-one. (Barthes, as cited in Aoki, 2005, p. 404)

As we consider the fields, then, of curriculum, home economics and nursing, where is the creation of newness possible—the border-crossings and co-mingling of each, that bring into being the center-less space that each can see and experience anew? In what manner does curriculum emerge as lived, unplanned with a sense of unfolding? I turn, first, to a conversation that Ted Aoki had with me about home economics:

> Fittingly, you interpreted your call of the [pedagogical] question as follows:
> *How has my being-in-the world which has been technologically determined,*
> *allowed for deeper revealing of my being, as a turning to hermeneutic*
> *phenomenology has been by my mediation of new meaning through*
> *language, particularly poetic or narrative language?*
> In and through this question, you entered an opening that the
> question has allowed.. . .My reading of the text is not so much a story
> of a movement from X to Y (from the technological orientation to
> home economics curriculum to the phenomenological), nor is it a
> mere disavowal of the old, but rather it is a returning to that place
> which people in their eagerness to turn away tend to hurry over.
> I see your turning as a paradox—both a distancing and a coming
> near to a place that is often difficult to see because it is so near.
> (Aoki, In Berman, Hultgren, Lee, Rivkin & Roderick, 1991, p. 63)

Coming from fields that have been technically determined, home economics and nursing, we each turned from these restrictive boundaries to the permeable nature of "crossing over" into terrains that provided more soul-full connections. The distancing allowed a return to the on-going conversations of which we had already been a part—experiencing marginality in its goodness and harshness. Francine chose to leave home economics a long while ago for the fields of curriculum and phenomenology, but carries with her the formative elements of caring, compassion and connectedness—enriched by being in conversation with Debra and the field of nursing. The conversation turned toward one of a true possibility of being.

Curriculum in nursing emerges as a re-storying and a re-turning to the pathic nature of caring, a movement of compassion. Compassion emerges as an emancipatory praxis of caring. As Levin (1985) describes:

> Compassion is a calling which lays claim to our motility from the very
> beginning. . .compassion is the way Being, which 'needs' us, calls us out
> of ourselves and into its enriching openness; it is through movements
> taking place in the openness of compassion that Being first touches us
> and moves us to sense its still deeper, and much more mysterious,
> claims on our guardian awareness. (p. 98)

This caring is founded upon a sense of vulnerability in which the boundaries of the Self and the Other dissolve to reveal the true essence of caring: companionship. Inherent in a companionship is the sense of

the vulnerable. The vulnerable soul is one of connection. Connectedness emerges through a shared sense of vulnerability.

In returning to the "Pilgrim" metaphor that Debra names in her journey to her Self, I am returned to a previous choice of the metaphor "Teacher as Pilgrim," that I wrote with some curriculum colleagues in *Curriculum for Being*: Voices of Educators:

> " . . . The point is made that curriculum for being involves a journey on which pilgrims attempt to make sense of their lives. This sense-making more readily occurs when fellow companions share in the reflective mode, when they are caring, and when they value dialog as a major way of conducting inquiry and generating knowledge. Teachers then are fellow pilgrims—thoughtful professional beings ever reflecting upon their own assumptions and ever dwelling in questions significant to them, even as they encourage students to dwell in their own questions. (Berman, Hultgren, Lee, Rivkin, & Roderick, 1991, p. 9)

And so at the end, we begin again, as fellow pilgrims—always on the way in and through our questioning:

> At the beginning we choose to trust what might be questioned;
> at the end, we choose to rest content with what might be pursued further. (Bontekoe, 1999, p. 2)

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From early grades to tertiary school. Challenges and issues concerning immigrant students´ lived experience of school curriculum

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Abstract

This paper intends to make a contribution to the emergent interest in education related to the immigrant students, how they experience the curriculum and how they make sense of their life at school.

With reference to critical multicultural literature (Freire, 1972; Griffiths & Troyna, 1995; Nieto, 1999, 2008; Sleeter & Grant, 2003; Besalu, 2007) in this study I tried to look closely to the conditions of the schooling at the level of an individual biography and document the substantive nature of the school experience of one particular student from Chinese migrant background.

The focus of the research was to examine the different subjective and objective aspects of that experience, specifically, how did it vary from kindergarten to tertiary level.   Moreover, I was interested in

1.) To determine the impact on school trajectory of different educational policies and practices in aspects such as curriculum, different teaching and learning strategies, assessment and tracking systems, teacher-students relationship and peers relationships and

 2.) To gain an in depth understanding of possible factors which help her to overcome all obstacles and succeed in school.

The narrative based research was an ideal choice for exploring these experiences (Goodson, 1992; Clandinin & Connelly, 1994; Bolivar, Domingo & Fernandez; 2001).

In this work I use the conception of educational trajectory not from a linear, chronological perspective, but as a process under construction, which includes both structural aspects and individual decisions taken by the protagonist.

The text concludes with a discussion about possibilities and limitations of this study on enhancing our understanding   of the process of schooling of students from diverse backgrounds.

Keywords: immigrant schooling; critical intercultural education; narrative; curriculum studies.

1   Introduction

While the economic crisis has produced a significant decline in the migration flows (OECD 2013), the presence of the migrant population has highly influenced the economic, social and political life of Spain. Consequently, schools accurately reflect demographic changes experienced by Spanish society. In 2009-10, according to statistical data of the Ministry of Education, the number of students of migrant background has reached a total of 762,746 and represents 9.6 per cent of the total student body.

Accordingly, the Education of Andalusia Law 17/2007 of December 10, the first comprehensive education law voted for, by an autonomous community in Spain, interculturalism and cultural diversity constitute key educational references. In fact, in article 4, dedicated to the principles of the Andalusia school system, paragraph g. is enshrined: "the recognition of pluralism and cultural diversity in today's society, as a cohesion factor that can contribute to personal, intellectual and emotional enrichment and to social inclusion" (Mancila & Leiva, 2011).

Despite the progress of the legislative, political and educational discourses, persists the idea that interculturalism has to be approached only by schools with a large presence of immigrant students (Besalú, 2007) and it has a strong compensatory orientation. Therefore, it is necessary to call for a critical analysis of the current educational situation.

Moreover, the census data do not have any direct measures for contextual effects of the family, the school, the neighbourhood, nor do they have detailed information on school performance. The statistical data do not give us details of the stories of immigration and settlement of students and their families, it is not known how students perform in Spanish educational system, or how their parents perceive their education and their future.

In this scenario, my study was design to make a contribution to the current debates on immigrant pupils' experience in schools, and to modestly fill in the existing gap in the intercultural education, stressing the importance of understanding the impact of education policy and practice on shaping individual lives.

In this paper I will present some of the initial results, based on research in progress, focused on schooling experiences, problems and challenges faced by a Chinese student in Andalusia, Malaga, from her own point of view. I will share only one part of the life experience I have documented since her birthday, especially focused on complex nature of schooling.

2   Conceptual Framework

To understand the complexity of the Chinese students´ experience of school I draw upon multiple perspectives: critical multicultural perspective (Nieto, 1999, 2008; Sleeter & Grant, 2003; Besalu, 2007), which insists in raising awareness on issues of social justice (Freire, 1972; Griffiths & Troyna, 1995) and power relation in schools and our society. According to these authors, critical intercultural education points out that "each of us, and not just the immigrants, is culturally, socially and historically situated" (Gobbo, 2003, p.3), therefore it is aimed at all and each of the members of our society, by recognizing and legitimizing the Other as a legitimate one, in all its diversity (Melero, 2004)

I agree with Nieto & Bode (2008) ´s perspective on multicultural education, as the education is for everyone regardless of ethnicity, race, language, social class, religion, gender, sexual orientation, ability and other difference, making a clear reference to the inclusive principles of education as a right for all children, with special attention to the social, political and economic conditions that frame and define the context.

Living and sharing narratives of cultural and social difference represents the context to make sense of school curriculum. As Schwab (1971) argued "theories of curriculum and of teaching and learning cannot alone, tell us what and how to teach, because questions of what and how to teach arise in concrete situations loaded with concrete particulars of time, place, person, and circumstances" (p. 322). From this perspective, I wanted to include the "voice" of immigrant students as the "ultimate insiders and experts" (Erickson & Shultz, 1992, p. 480), a genuine vein of cultural diversity, a real testimony on how they live and experience "school", how social and educational structures affect their learning and what we- educators can do to provide a high quality education for them.

In this work I understand the conception of educational trajectory not from a linear, chronological perspective, but as a process under construction, which includes both structural aspects and individual decisions taken by the protagonist.

To try to classify students by theoretical constructs such as "academic language proficiency" (Cummins, 2001) or "attitudinal variables" (Stanat, 2005) and so on, would bring us very important information, no doubt. By doing so, we would lose the details that would help us understand and make sense of the school experience of our protagonist and I am concerned in understanding their experiences by providing a chance for her stories to be told, in order to learn from them.

There was a need to select a research method that allowed in depth exploration of the specificity of those stories and to "include the missing voice" (Denzin, 1989). My chosen approaches to research are qualitative methodologies, particularly life history and narrative inquiry as a valuable choice for exploring these experiences and to locate them within historical, economic and cultural contexts. (Goodson, 1992; Clandinin & Connelly, 1994; Carger, 1996; Bolivar, Domingo & Fernandez, 2001). I considered these approaches the best suited to tell the stories behind the statistics.

3   Main findings

I will present some of the main findings resulting from S.´s story of her schooling process as embedded in a larger context. The protagonist of our story is a young woman of Chinese origin, born in Spain, educated in the Spanish educational system. However, she is part of the migration experience. At the time of research she was 22 years old.

As a pupil she is considered to be a high achiever and a successful student, judging by her school trajectory and her current situation (she is finishing her MA studies in a UK University). However, her own voice reveals a much more complex reality, not a straightforward trajectory.

Since the early years, both her siblings and the protagonist have been good students, getting top grades, always ranking among the best students in the school.

"We were the first of the class, my sister and I. I remember how during tests and exams, teachers separated us, one in a corner and another in the other corner and, we were always getting the same: "A".

The protagonist and her siblings have been aware of power and the impact on their life by mastering the vehicular language, getting top grades, getting good recommendations from teachers.

To be the best, was a high pressure from parents on the one hand, from teachers and last, but not least, from her peers.

Academic success was perceived to be a precondition for social acceptance in school. On basis of her own academic strength and its recognition by her schoolmates, S. remarked *"only when they realized they could get help from me in Math, Physics, English, I became desirable company. In school I was seen as the girl who got the best note always, and if they had problems they came to me, but only because of that, not for anything else."* This situation is like a vicious circle. Being a good student represented a form of acceptance, recognition and promotion by her teachers and classmates.

Throughout her schooling narratives, constantly appears the fact that all her siblings and the protagonist, despite their great desire to feel "integrated" and to be "a member of the group", despite the struggle in order not to feel alone, isolated, the truth is that, they have often been left on one side, without friends. From the beginning, they become aware of the cultural differences between them and their family and the rest of their peers and they had to accommodate to the majority. *"The truth is that we all had problems at school."*

From an early age she had tremendous responsibilities and had to learn the culture of effort. She was involved seven days/week in school, in the afterschool activities, in helping parents with the family business and in looking after her younger siblings. The overall situation led to a burden of work, little free time and leisure. As a consequence, she had difficulty in socializing and few relations of friendship.

"Usually my parents are like this: "Hey, S., hello." "Come right now to the store, please". Then, people will not make plans according to my parents´ rules. This is the way my parents are. You have to be working, or studying. I am all day at home working or studying and the others see me as a kind of odd person, that I have no life of my own. It is complicated."

Research showed discrimination and racist manifestation in the education system (Li & Wang, 2008.) Similar to previous mentioned studies, my study indicates she has suffered discrimination, being the victim of prejudice, from verbal assault that may seem unimportant as pronouncing the name in a wrong way, to verbal attacks like *"Chinorra, " go back to China", "you are so ugly"* and harassment or even serious physical assaults. In particular, our protagonist talked at length, still with anger and indignation, about experiences such as: her little brother and sisters being beaten, bullied, hit in the head, pushed, kicked, both inside school and outside (in the city bus, the bus station near school, on the street). Also, my respondent recalled that "getting good grades", "being too smart"- revealed also more subtle nonverbal forms of treatment like being socially avoided or ignored.

The parents – school relationship is almost inexistent due to language problems and to the long hours of working. Parents have been unable to provide their children with any practical help with their schoolwork, or provision of other educational resources, searching for schools, navigating the bureaucracy in the educational system, so the protagonist assumes the role of parents.

The lack of interest and participation of parents in school led to a false perception by the teaching staff. However, parents valued school and education as the only venue to social mobility and inclusion. They see it as the appropriate institution to educate their daughters to learn the social and cultural values of the Spanish society. They believe that

through education their children will not have to deal with the difficulties they had to face. In school they will learn the necessary skills to develop and function in the best possible way, and also to protect against possible discrimination.

Parents appreciate the knowledge of other languages so they encourage their daughters to learn Spanish, English also, without forgetting the Chinese Mandarin, as necessary skills in order to have better employment opportunities.

Our protagonist frequently reported as being bored in school. She saw little connection with her life outside school and had the feeling that school life is separated and unrelated to real life (home life). She described mismatches between her personal-social identity and school contexts (e.g.: religious activities like, the "First Communion´s Ceremony" of all catholic children from her school, the celebration of 8th grade of primary school, or the final year graduation trip. Parents didn´t give her permission to participate either because she was not baptized, or because they needed her help with family business, or simply, because they did not see any important pedagogical implication in these kind of activities)

In terms of strategies of teaching, the language of instruction was in Spanish and all regular classroom teachers followed a curriculum design for the mainstream children. (No reference at all on China or any significant change within the existing curriculum related to socio cultural differences of other immigrant students).

Based on the assumption that she seemed to adjust well to the educational system and perform without major challenges, she or her siblings were not perceived to have specific needs or to necessitate a change in teaching methodologies by some teachers (Li, 2004). Some of the teachers referred to them by making comparisons like this: "*she is not as prepared as her sisters*", "*it is not a serious student"*. In her narrative the protagonist is describing how she felt about this unfair comparison: "*They (teachers) were disappointed because my academic results were lower," etc. Compared to the rest of my colleagues, I had got very good grades and despite the efforts I had made, it had always passed unnoticed".* Regrettably, this small incident confirms and describes how some teachers are unwillingly embracing a dangerous stereotype of the "model minority". The general impression expressed by the teachers was that they were perceived as good students, respectful, hard workers, docile, their attitude was to learn, to work and get high grades. Chinese origin girls, especially, were seen as ´quiet, docile, always with a smile´. When our protagonist and her sisters rebelled, they were punished because they did not assign the predominant representation. Unfortunately, as these incidents were not regarded as discrimination or racist manifestations, teachers do not acknowledged the consequences and the real damage they caused to these children, how they affected the further relationship teacher-student, the development of the learning processes, the construction of identity, just to mention a few.

These circumstances contributed to a gradual process of distrust and disaffiliation towards school and teachers.

3   Some Conclusions

This "narrative in construction" brings us closer to some of the main experiences that our protagonist and her family had to face in schools and in society in general.

The image of exemplary student has a double reading as our protagonist has faced many difficulties and problems such as anxiety, isolation, discrimination and strong pressure from the parents and by the school.

Our protagonist is part of a family and a community; therefore she should not be seen as an isolated individual. Her parents value education and school, despite their lack of interaction with the school or teachers, since they consider it the key that opens the doors for social mobility, economic stability, but also as a strategy of prevention and protection against discrimination and racism.

From empirical evidence of this research, what I have discovered, so far, is that she displayed a varying level of engagement with schooling in her path to higher education, from total engagement to indifference.

She described her preschool days and first years of primary school as a positive experience, where she *"was happy, she felt good, she felt like home, she had fun and also, most important, she learned".* This positive learning environment was felt like a protective setting that determined a high attitude towards school and learning. Because her family moved to another city, she had to change school in the 4th grade. Disengagement and disaffection was what she felt about that school. She referred to it like *"it was of no use for me that year as I did not learn anything new".* She was bored in class, she felt frustrated and got angry with the teacher and her teaching style. She openly argued with her teacher because she was obliged to do schoolwork like teaching a group of classmates the

multiplication table, performing dictates and revision during class time and breaks, also. She felt these teaching practices were unfair to her and ineffective pedagogically and reinforced her negative perception about the teacher and the school in general. Eventually, she convinced her parents to find another school and she started the next year in a new school environment.

The last two primary years were fine *("It was so and so")*. She described positive relations with some teachers, (one in particular, that she admired for making the teaching - learning a pleasant and desirable process and, also because he cared about all children). With her classmates she could develop a mutual help relationship. *"Still was difficult to establish friendship"* but, at least, was not so bad as in the other school, she said.

In high school she described the educational policies and practices meant to deal with difficult behaviour situations, as inefficient, too. The teachers- students and peer relationships varied from year to year in the same institution. *("Sometimes it was unbearable the tension between the two main group in the class: a continuous competition in all areas- academically, personally and so on")* The mentoring, especially necessary at that age, was almost inexistent, as teachers continued to teach their subjects in the time allocated for the mentoring or behaviour disruption and conflict mediation activities. Teachers, through their practices, beliefs, expectations have had a fundamental role in the quality of educational process.

At this point, she actively engaged in her own learning processes because she learned how to be agent of her academic success. She was reading a lot, if she did not know how to solve a Math problem, she didn´t expect the teacher´s help, she was trying to solve it by herself and she was determined to move ahead, against the odds. She loved Math, Sciences, English, History, Literature, but was not happy with some of her teachers.

Despite all these circumstances, her overall idea was that schooling represented a very good thing to her.

I am aware of the prudence or caution in generalizing from one single case. A single case study cannot be taken as representing the wider situation of the Chinese students in Spanish schools. This research was meant to look closely to ordinary life in the specific context of Andalucía, Spain and to provide an example of how educational professionals, teachers and researchers can use narrative and life history research to illuminate and address issues related to intercultural education.

However, we agree with Wright Mills´ (1959) writings indicating the value of knowing an individual's personal life history in order to understand their social situation. The issues and perspective this student brings up here are probably similar to other young students of similar background.

A close reading of the narratives, the stories of children in our schools enclose a great potential to transform the classroom into a living and learning community and to break with dangerous assumptions regarding the other. This way, teachers and pupils are immersed in a dialogue about the differences and "the classroom becomes a narrative space, creates conditions that enable the students to tell their own stories and listen carefully to the stories of others" (McLaren, 1994, p. 127).

Curriculum represents the school´s real heart which can connect/ reject a child with the institutional body (with teachers, peers). Students can be discriminated academically, emotionally or socially by the curriculum, through the content (knowledge), the pedagogy and the ideology involved. Therefore, "thinking narratively about student puts their lives in the centre of curriculum making" (Clandinin, 2007, p.24).

I believe that education is a right, not a compensatory or a compassionate concession; this right must be implemented for every child. A change at all levels is needed that permeates the very schools conceptualization of the nature of curriculum. The key to this change lies in the principles of inclusive education that understands school as a community that must guarantee all pupils the right to learn alongside their peers in a common curriculum framework.

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CURRICULUM: AN OPPORTUNITY TO DEVELOP THE YOUNG'S IDENTITY?

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Abstract

This paper falls within the scope of a doctoral work, which also integrates a broader research project[1]. Specifically in this paper, we discuss some results obtained in the wake of the ongoing Ph.D work regarding the characteristics of vocational identity of some young people attending courses of Education and Training for Adults (EFA), relating them to the relevance and suitability of their curriculum in the construction and development of the young's vocational identity.

The results presented here allows us to realize that despite of these young people having attended courses with a professional curriculum, they seem to reveal difficulties when it comes to defining a vocational position.

Keywords: Curriculum, Young's Identity.

Introduction

In a set of European countries, including Portugal, educational policy has suffered reforms. It is understood that the educational reform concept is not very peaceful and implies the consideration of a multiplicity of initiatives designed to change the scope and nature of education, still going through changes in curriculum (Afonso, 1997). In Canário´s opinion (1992, p. 198), reform is a "large-scale change, mandatory for the entire national territory, implying political choices, redefinition of aims and objectives of education". In this sense, the introduction of new programs and disciplines, giving a new look to the Portuguese and to other Europeans curriculum (Estrela, 1998), vocational training has been an important pedagogical tool, essentially in terms of facilitating the processes of transition of young people into active life (Gonçalves et al., 1997).

Based on the certainty that the curriculum of vocational training can enable or empower young people to develop essential skills, to acquire knowledge and knowing that the curriculum is a powerful way to acquire knowledge (Young, 2007), the knowledge so described assumes interaction and convergence with the curriculum to develop the young´s vocational identity. Thus, in this work we approach the concept of vocational curriculum, positioning it as a broad concept between the development of personal and social identity domain.

Curriculum and Identity

Curriculum is a broad concept in relation to its contents and the multiple interpretations attributed to it, as well as to its construction and development (Roldão, 1999). Also because "is different the way of look at education and what is its reason for being: knowledge (Pacheco & Freire, 2012, p. 192).

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[1] This work integrates a Ph.D project in Education in the area of specialization of Psychology of Education, entitled *Development of Vocational Identity of Institutionalized young's in Portuguese Education Centres* held at the Institute of Education, University of Lisbon. This Ph.D work is also part of a larger research project entitled *Feedback, Identity and School Trajectories: Dynamics and Consequences* (PTDC/CPE-PEC/121238/2010), funded by the Foundation for Science and Technology (FCT).

In all training plans "curriculum acquires centrality, because is not only knowledge, it is also a process that acquires form and meaning, according to the organization that conducts and in function of space and time that materializes" (Pacheco, 2011, p.3).

Based on the definition addressed by Pacheco (2011) from *Thesaurus for Education Systems in Europe, Eurydice* (1998), curriculum "designates the disciplines taught and the time spent on each one them in a regular cycle of studies in an educational institution". This definition of curriculum "has met a theoretical reconceptualization, marked, first, by the primacy of education and/or instruction, then the vocational training and, finally, by learning" (Pacheco, 2011, p.3). In one way or another, curriculum provides to the young people a powerful knowledge (Young, 2007, 2010) that is considered desirable as mediator of personal and social development.

Concretely, considering the main goal of this paper, our economic framework and taking into account the requests made to the educational system, due to the restructuring of the labour market that we are facing, the perspective under discussion about the curriculum that will be developed is centred on the curriculum of vocational education. In turn, this vocational curriculum is relative to EFA courses attended by the young's participants.

EFA courses being particularly courses aimed at adult education and training, the legislation stated by article 3rd of rule no.18228/2008 equally enrolls it under "pathways in education and training vocational qualifications, designed for young people less than 15 years old at risk of leaving school or who have left school before the end of compulsory education." The main goal of these courses is to provide educational qualifications and/or professional skills, in a perspective of (re)integration of young people in the labour market and seek to contribute to a deficit reduction of school and professional qualification of the Portuguese population (Canelas, 2008).

Regarding the type of vocational training, the EFA courses offer a dual certification, which is simultaneously academic and professional. Assuming an equivalence training to the 1st, 2nd and 3rd cycles of basic education and secondary education (known as type B1, B2, B3, and more recently, ES), also provide the acquisition of school certificates that correspond to the respective levels of learning and vocational qualifications, trying to ensure both the communicability between education and the world of work (Quintas, 2008).

EFA courses seek to ensure an education provision and training to allow all of those who have left school early, to get schooling or school progression associated with a professional qualification that grants access to a more qualified professional performance and open more and better learning prospects (Canelas, 2008). These vocational curriculum have "a link between the emancipatory expectations associated with the expansion of education and opportunity that schools give students to acquire the "powerful knowledge"" to which these kind of students of vocational curricula EFA rarely have access in another form of learning (Young, 2007, p.1300). In this sense, vocational curriculum, in addition to being a school connection with an occupation and simultaneously adding value to general training may be a facilitator in the insertion in the labour market (Madeira, 2006), and likewise a way of establishing itself as a vehicle for the promotion of options and for future vocational decision-making (Savickas, 1997/1998).

In other words, vocational education can provide young people with the construction and development of their vocational identity. The need of a vocational choice to achieve personal and social position in adulthood is so important that the image and definition of the individual mostly depends on what job or profession performs (Super, 1952).

In literature, several meanings are associated with the identity concept. Black, Mendck and Solomon (2009) reported numerous disciplines and sought to clarify its use. Consequently, the answer to the question "What is identity?" is not consensual and simple. More useful than having the answer to this question may be to understand the impact of the interaction contexts of individuals in the development of their identity. For example, the discourses and practices in the vocational education. Thus, the identity is constructed and developed by the participation in different social practices, including, among others, the vocational training (Martins & Carvalho, 2013b in press).

The study of vocational identity has been carried out in groups of young people, naturally because of being a social group that live a personal transition from childhood to adulthood, trying to find a future position in economic and civic participation (Perret-Clermont et al., 2004). According to the theory of vocational identity proposed by Holland (1959), the construction and development of a stable vocational identity is described as possessing a clear present and future goals, interests and talents to "do a competent work, be personally satisfied and exercise an appropriate socially and educationally behaviour" (Holland, 1985, p. 40). Thus therefore, vocational curriculum can be instrumental in the development of vocational identity, particularly in relation to the creation of opportunities to explore the relationship and interaction "with the world of training and the world of work" (Coimbra, 1995, p. 28).

In general, vocational curriculum is tasked to provide specialized knowledge, enabling students to transcend the limits imposed by their experiences and trajectories. It provides a powerful knowledge that can develop identity and ensure their inclusion in the social working world context (Young, 2007, 2010).

Method

In this paper the research design is based on some previous works (Martins & Carvalho, 2012a, 2013a, 2013b, 2013c-b,c in press). This is characterized by the interpretative paradigm and the goal of study is to know how the vocational identity of the young participants attending vocational curriculum of EFA courses was being resolved, taking into account the age and the professional course attended.

Participants

A total of 106 participants, with ages ranging between 13 and 20 years old (M=16,61; SD= 1,254), were enrolled in vocational training, attending EFA curriculum courses.

These participants were all male and were attending ten different professional courses: Waiter, Kitchen, Hotel Maintenance Operator, Woodwork, Gardening and Green Spaces, Pre Printing Operator, Painting and Construction, Electricity Facilities, Carpentry and Civil Locksmith. These dual certification courses were equivalent to the 7th, 8th and 9th grades, corresponding to the 3rd cycle of Portuguese Basic Education.

Instruments and procedure

We used a sociodemographic questionnaire to know the ages and courses attended for these young people and the *Dellas Identity Status Inventory Occupation* scale (DISI-O, Dellas & Jernigan, 1981), has already been adapted to the Portuguese population by Taveira (1986), to understand how the young´s vocational identity was being resolved.

The filling of the instruments was supervised by the first investigator of this paper in the courses above mentioned. This task took place in the normal hours of the EFA training courses and the students collaborated voluntarily.

Results

In Table 1 it is possible to read that the mean age of the 106 young participants is approximately 16 years. Regarding the age of youth in the different courses taken is very close, being notorious that the youngest participants were attending the Painting and Civil Construction course and the oldest attending the Hotel Operator Maintenance course. It is also possible to see that the most attended was the Electricity Facilities course and, with a smaller attendance, were the Gardening and Green Spaces and Carpentry courses.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of age and courses

EFA Course	Age		N
	M	*DP*	
Waiter	16,78	1,093	9
Hotel Maintenance Operator	17,60	,843	10
Kitchen	16,44	1,130	9
Woodwork	16,42	1,071	19
Gardening and Green Spaces	16,40	2,510	5
Pre Printing Operator	17,00	1,069	8
Painting and Civil Construction	15,93	1,439	14
Electricity Facilities	16,48	1,078	21
Carpentry	17,00	1,225	5
Civil Locksmith	17,00	1,265	6
Total	16,61	1,254	106

Looking at Table 2 it is possible to read in terms of means results that the young people are more positioned in the *Moratorium* identity status. It is also possible to see that the training group less diffuse was attending the Hotel Maintenance Operator EFA course. At the same time we can read that the Gardening and Green Spaces group had results furthest away from the total means values.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics of DISI-O Dimensions by courses

EFA Courses	DISI-O Dimensions									
	Achiever		Moratorium		Foreclosure		Diffusion-Diffusion		Diffusion-Luck	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Waiter	25,22	6,057	27,88	6,508	22,44	6,894	24,33	6,041	22,44	4,927
Hotel Maintenance Operator	26,22	5,238	27,11	4,044	20,66	3,500	22,44	5,659	21,77	6,704
Kitchen	24,66	3,240	26,87	3,563	22,37	3,961	24,33	2,915	22,66	3,535
Woodwork	21,63	4,205	24,66	4,297	21,21	4,709	24,77	4,236	22,47	4,647
Gardening and Green Spaces	28,00	1,154	28,00	2,160	25,25	4,112	27,75	2,629	28,00	3,464
Pre Printing Operator	24,25	4,559	26,37	3,113	23,42	3,598	25,75	3,575	24,75	2,375
Painting and Civil Construction	22,53	6,104	27,21	5,423	18,85	6,859	26,50	3,391	24,07	4,159
Electricity Facilities	23,85	5,397	26,45	3,486	20,14	6,279	23,57	4,272	22,38	5,508
Carpentry	26,66	3,055	27,00	3,082	20,33	1,154	24,00	3,000	24,33	1,527
Civil Locksmith	22,50	4,929	26,00	3,794	19,83	1,169	26,00	5,163	24,83	4,792
Total	23,87	5,029	26,51	4,218	21,02	5,283	24,69	4,308	23,21	4,731

Discussion

The discussion of the results includes the methodological plan already taken into account in some previous works (e.g., Dellas & Jernigan, 1981; Martins & Carvalho, 2012a, 2013a, 2013b, 2013c-b,c in press; Taveira, 1986, 2000; Taveira & Campos, 1987), to understand how vocational identity of the young participants attending vocational curriculum of EFA was being resolved.

In Table 1 and 2 we present some of the descriptive statistical elements of the test one-way ANOVA, specifically the mean ages of the 106 young participants and the means of the DISI-O dimensions all presented by the EFA courses attended by the participants. We conducted a one-way ANOVA, in order to verify if there were significant differences in the mean scores on the DISI-O dimensions, according to the courses attended. But we could not find any significant differences.

The young participants were an average of 16 years of age (Table 1) and in terms of status means the results seems similar to previous works related above, the participants tend to occupy the stage of *Moratorium* identity, which is characterised by those who are living a period of exploration of the issues of identity while expressing difficulty in making choices. In this sense, in general our results seem to indicate that although our participants were attending EFA courses with vocational curriculum and some of them even may have initiated exploration of vocational options, they do not yet reveal the ability to make vocational choices.

In Portugal, vocational education aims to encourage the appropriation of knowledge, enabling young people in becoming active citizens (Martins & Carvalho, 2013b in press). The curriculum in vocational education remains premised for goals of learning in the process to develop the identity (Billett, 2003). Thus, when we are trying to write

about curriculum concept while personal and social development, regarding its conceptual relationship, also becomes mandatory writing about identity, even if there is no single definition for these concepts.

According to Etienne Wenger (1998, p. 215) "learning transforms who we are and what we can do, is an experience of identity." In this sense, curriculum in vocational training, can take a leading role in the trajectory of construction and development of vocational identity, preparing young people for the work life and for to the exercise of responsible citizenship (Martins & Carvalho, 2013c in press), facilitating the negotiation of meaning on what is training, what is to be a student, what is learning, what is knowledge (Carvalho et al., 2008).

So, thinking about the question that gave rise to this paper *Curriculum: an opportunity to develop the young's identity?*, and taking into account that Portugal as a European country is faced with the challenge of "raising the skill levels of young people and adults and combating early school leaving" (Rule no. 64-A/2011), the curriculum constitutes an integrated offer of education and training (Canelas, 2008). Courses, especially those with a vocational curriculum, should be chosen by young people according to future prospects and taking into account the career opportunities for the labour market. But in our case, most students were enrolled in the courses without options of choice and the courses seem to have little appeal, considering the needs of the Portuguese labour market. According to our results, curriculum in EFA courses still seems to not having revealed a broader acceptance of the complexity of the purposes of vocational education, including the need to answer to the changing demands of professional practice of the actual labour market (Billett, 2003).

Acknowledgments

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THEME 6

CURRICULUM - IN BETWEEN THE SOCIAL AND THE PERSONAL

Young, M. (2007) Para que servem as escolas? *Revista Educação & Sociedade*, *28*(101), 1287-1302.

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THEME 7

CURRICULUM, INTERNATIONALIZATION AND COSMOPOLITANISM

Global Citizenship As an Inter/Transdisciplinary Theme in the Undergraduate Curriculum of Brazilian Universities: Preliminary Results

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Abstract

In the discursive context of a country facing many challenges of globalization, with citizenship in the process of affirmation, I am analyzing prospects and possibilities of the concept Global Citizenship (GC) as an inter/transdisciplinary theme in the curriculum of Brazilian universities' teacher education courses. The project started being developed at the Federal University of Ceará (UFC), Brazil where I teach. In order to acquire a broader perspective, I am at present spending one year (2013-2014) in post-doctoral studies at the Development Education Research Centre, Institute of Education, University of London. Since 2000, in England, global citizenship is one of the eight concepts that define Global Dimension, the other seven being sustainable development, conflict resolution, values and perceptions, diversity, human rights, social justice and interdependence. Considering Global Citizenship as a floating signifier – floating signifiers are filled according to the discursive contexts where they belong, and its universality requires them dispose of their precise contents (Laclau 2006) - we aim to discuss the following questions: Which groups are filling the significant Global Citizenship in Brazil and in the world? How and why such fulfillment has been happening? How can the Federal University of Ceará fill that significant so that its students, taking a critical and active stand in the world, contribute in developing a project for their country? How can science and the curriculum help in this task? Through the analysis of documents, participation in research groups, interviews with teachers in British universities, I have been investigating how they perceive Global Citizenship, in which ways the concept is introduced in the curriculum and the impact it has produced in their lives. Upon my return, I intend to present and discuss a proposal of inclusion of Global Citizenship in the undergraduate curriculum of the Federal University of Ceará.

1. Introduction

The concept of Global Citizenship (GC) is becoming increasingly influential within higher education. Many universities in North America, Europe and Pacific region refer to equipping their graduates to be global citizens. Whilst initially constructed from a Western perspective, Global citizenship has been discussed in recent times in relation to debates on post-colonialism (Andreotti , 2011), central and peripheral knowledge (Souza Santos, 2007), cosmopolitanism (Carter, 2001; Osler & Starkey, 2005;), global professions and internationalism (Bourn & Neal 2008; Wilcott, Blum, Burch, Page and Rowson, 2012; Blum & Bourn, 2013); diversity, human rights, social justice and interdependence (Bourn & Hunt, 2011), and sustainability and systemic thinking (Bourn & Morgan, 2010; Meadows 1991; Stone & Barlow, 2005)

Universities around the world have included in their curricula the education of students as global citizens. In England, since 2000, Global Dimension has become a transdisciplinary theme in schools and universities through a series of curriculum materials issued by the Department for Education and Skills (Bourne and Hunt, 2011). For them, global citizenship is one of the eight concepts that define Global Dimension, the other seven being sustainable development, conflict resolution, values and perceptions, diversity, human rights, social justice and interdependence.

Considering Global citizenship a floating signifier (Laclau 2006), the moment seems appropriate for Brazilians to find their own signifier for Global Citizenship. The country has undergone profound changes, such as internationalization of the economy, invasion of foreign products together with cultural changes, internet, access to TV channels through which we become aware of distant places in real time. Events as the Rio +20 show the need to exert a more participatory citizenship and be involved in decisions that affect them directly, for example, the economic development model adopted by successive governments despite the disapproval of scientists.

Signifiers are filled with different meanings according to the discursive contexts in which they are inserted (Laclau, 2006). This assumption brings forth the following questions that are approached in the project *Global citizenship as an inter/transdisciplinary theme in the undergraduate curriculum of Brazilian universities*: Which groups are filling the significant CG in Brazil and in the world? How and why such fulfillment has been happening? How can the Federal University of Ceará fill that significant so that its students, taking a critical and active stand in the world, can contribute in developing a project for their country? How can science and the curriculum help in this task? In order to grasp a bigger picture of the issue, part of the study is being conducted at the Institute of Education, University of London.

In spite of the clear definition in UK educational politics, there are questions that can only be answered by those directly involved in the implementation of this curriculum: the university scholars: How does he/she see define as global citizenship? What skills are necessary in order to think and act beyond the borders of one's own country, as a citizen of the world? What are the modes of action he/she has been following through in order to implement it? And finally what sort of support has your institution been giving to the project? Their answers are the object of this paper.

The project *Global citizenship as an inter/transdisciplinary theme in the undergraduate curriculum of Brazilian universities* is divided in three phases: the emergence of the theme GC among student-teachers at the Federal University of Ceará; the period of study at the Institute of Education, University of London, Development Education Research Centre (Estágio Senior-Capes 2013-2014) where the theme has been expanded and contextualized in UK; and the final phase at the UFC for the discussion of a proposal of inclusion of GC in the curriculum. The findings presented in this paper refer to the second phase: the contact with UK scholars who willingly agreed to give their views about citizenship in a circle of interviews, providing their discursive context for filling the signifier GC.

The project has the hermeneutic-dialectic circle (Guba&Lincoln, 1989) as a main methodological support. The inputs to this metaphorical circle have been literature analects, notes from seminars, workshops, and especially data collected from interviews with six scholars from three UK universities who reflect on their perceptions and modes of action portrayed in their engagement in committees, conferences, joint research projects, courses and curricular revisions.

In order to try to grasp the more complex dimensions of GC, - and taking advantage of the one year period the researcher is spending in UK - the method *bricolage* (Kincheloe & Berry, 2004) has also been used. The French word *bricoleur* refers to a handyman or handywoman who makes use of the tools available to complete a task. *Bricolage* therefore consists of using a variety of research tools and ways of seeing, in an attempt to grasp the multiple and complex dimensions of the lived world, or, in Habermas's (1991) terms, *lifeworld* .

The data collected as a *bricoleur* is almost a 24 hour job. It consists of observing people going back and forth on the streets and parks (the parks are a beautiful and famous aspect of the city of London); watching TV documentaries and broadcast parliamentary sessions; reading various newspapers; going to museums and lectures about British history and art; engaging in informal conversations with people in and outside the university context; taking photographs of everyday scenes and public spaces. The final stage of the method(s) is a case report, or joint construction, the most difficult part of the research, since one has to transform a chaotic (in the good sense) process in a linear, logically organized text.

How the theme emerged from students' projects at UFC

At the UFC teacher-education courses, more specifically in the context of the discipline Didactics, there has been emphasis on thematic projects. Before they were restricted to a local, regional and national context but now they have assumed a broader perspective. Students of Physics, Chemistry, Mathematics, Biology, Languages, Literature, Engineering, History, Geography, Social Sciences and Philosophy are asked to momentarily abandon disciplinary thinking and develop topics under the perspective of different learning theories: Howard Gardner's multiple intelligences, Philip Phenix's theory of meaning, Paulo Freire's education for critical consciousness and others. Divided into groups they come up with a consensual theme and decide which of the three theories they will be using in their projects. The themes chosen vary: evolution, energy, biodiesel, the universe, ethanol, television, industrial waste and the environment, Amazonia, hunger around the world, pollution, consumerism, cellular phones, and others. They present seminars and write reports on the results of their work, post slides and discussions on the virtual learning environment TELEDUC.

Below are three thematic projects which evidence an expansion of the discussion from local to a global scope. They were developed in 2012.

Children and Teenagers' consumerism
Areas involved: Portuguese/Literature; Pedagogy; Social Sciences, Philosophy, Mathematics
Discussion: relation between youngsters and consumption to see how behavior and mentality have changed due to the influence of local and global market and how to exert a positive influence in younger generations.

Renewable Energies
Areas involved: Philosophy, Chemistry, Languages/Spanish; Social sciences,
Discussion: disharmonious relation between man and nature through the issue of exploration and use of non-renewable resources and their consequences in Brazil and in the world for future generations.

Urban pollution
Areas involved: Physical Education and Physics
Discussion: The degradation of the environment in big cities is growing due to global politics where only part of society enjoys industrialized goods and is responsible for most of the pollution; acquisition of an environmental ethics that can bring balance between exploration and preservation.

The students usually show a critical view of the issues but propose idealized solutions. This is perfectly understandable since it is an activity which happens mostly within the context of one discipline, therefore having a limited reach.

Development Education: Global citizenship in the UK curriculum

According to Bourn and Morgan (2010), in UK the term Development Education (DE) emerged in the 70s under the influence of UNESCO which defines DE in terms of the issues of human rights, dignity, self-reliance, and social justice in both developed and developing countries. Paulo Freire had a major influence in the conceptualization of DE in the 1980s since he emphasized participatory learning and the relationship between education and social change. Considered "too political" for neoliberal theories of the time, state institutions did not undertake initiatives in this aspect and it was left for Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). In 1997 the Labour government published "Building Support for Development' (DFID, 1998) which advocated learning inside and outside schools about trade, debt, climate change and global poverty. The newly formed DFID (Department for International Development) stressed that we live in an interdependent world emphasizing social justice instead of charity. The creation of the Development Education Association (DEA) influenced universities to look at international development and globalization not as areas of study but as drivers for re-thinking how an institution relates to global forces and influences.

Bourn and Hunt (2011) have produced a research paper about global dimension in schools in terms of how this term is interpreted, what a 'global dimension' looks like and what impact it can have on students, teachers and the life of a school. There is considerable variation in the ways in which the term 'global dimension' is perceived and articulated in schools which tend to personalize their interpretation and do not directly follow national guidelines. However, central to the concerns of many is the importance of widening pupils' horizons and ways of thinking beyond local contexts, developing cultural understanding and awareness, whether within monocultural or multicultural communities. Their modes of action also vary: school assemblies, curriculum initiatives, out of school clubs and award programmes, a range of activities suggesting that Global Dimension goes across several, if not all, aspects of school life.

As far as the university is concerned, there have been many conceptions of Global Dimension. As Johnson and Morris (2013) point out, there is "a proliferation of approaches and terminologies mirroring both the diverse conceptions of its nature and socio-political contexts within which it is promoted" (p. 301). The next session is about concepts and modes of action of university scholars who are introducing a global perspective in the curriculum of the institutions they work in.

Concepts and modes of action of UK university scholars

The core of this paper is the data collected from interviews with six scholars who are adopting a global perspective in the curriculum of the UK institutions they are affiliated to. The idea is to see how they are conceptualizing and putting into practice the floating signifier Global Citizenship. In the analysis of their interviews, the following concepts and modes of action have emerged:

- Employability –

  Mode of action - Curriculum revisions with the following objectives:
  a) Insert global skills for market demands;
  b) Change the mentality in the business world;
  c) Arouse understanding of different cultures, human rights, social justice and sustainability;
  d) Develop a philosophy for business schools;
  e) Internationalize the curriculum to attract students and faculty from abroad;
  f) Form alliances with outside countries;
  g) Selling knowledge, consultancy and encouraging research collaboration, but with a critical view of uk universities as a civilizing and democratizing force which solves conflicts in the world;

- Environment and sustainability

  Modes of action –
  a) University research through joint projects, field work, post-graduate students' supervision, partnership with visiting academics;
  b) Participation in European councils and committees to influence government on environmental policies; international and national conferences and seminars;
  c) Curriculum revision to reinforce Education for Sustainable Development;
  d) Publication of articles in journals and newspapers.

- Multiculturalism –

  Modes of action -
  a) Participation in human rights committees;
  b) Joint research projects to develop equitable relations between countries and to clarify the absurdity of all kinds of discrimination;
  c) Joint publications of scholars from different countries;

- Learning to work and live together -

  Modes of action –
  a) Curriculum revision
  b) Joint projects for medics, engineers, pharmacists and veterinaries
  c) Joint publications with scholars from different countries

- Equitable relations between countries –

  Modes of action -
  a) Strategies to establish a real dialogue between partners (not the type where the west teaches what is good to the rest of the world).

- Science-based society –

  Modes of action -
  b) Seminars, workshops about the role of the university in the new world order
  c) Partnerships in joint science projects with the assumption that scientific knowledge is a particular western way of looking at the world; science projects to expose preconceptions and prejudices from all sides.

Conclusion

This paper presents preliminary results of the second phase of the research project *Global citizenship as an inter/transdisciplinary theme in the undergraduate curriculum of Brazilian universities.* The findings *of* this part - grasping concepts and modes of action of those that are in charge of implementing global citizenship in the curriculum of UK universities – have evidenced a careful and sound search for a path the university can follow in order to deal with, understand, incorporate, and criticize the floating signifier GC. There are still two circles of interviews that will take place in the second half of 2013 in UK: one with teachers of four schools and another with undergraduate

students. From February 2014, the study will go on in the Federal University of Ceará. The circles of interviews will be then dedicated to Brazilian university scholars, students and school teachers.

There has been discussion among the Western academic community about the role of the university in the new world order. Boaventura Sousa Santos, the Portuguese philosopher, has dedicated many of his writings to the topic. In his article *The University at a Crossroads* (2012) he raises a set of what he calls "strong questions" that summarize many of the points that are emerging in this research: Can the university successfully reinvent itself as a center of knowledge in a globalizing society with many other centres? Will there be room for "critical, heterodox, non-marketable knowledge," respectful of cultural diversity, in the university of the future? Can the scenario of a growing gap between "central" and "peripheral" universities be avoided? Can market imperatives be relativized as criteria for successful research and the needs of society be taken sufficiently into account? Can the university become the site of the refounding of "a new idea of universalism on a new, intercultural basis?

This project has been showing that the scholars do not ask themselves IF the university can reinvent itself by giving more space to critical knowledge, or to cultural diversity, or to peripheral knowledge, or to a healthier relation with the market, or even to a new idea of universalism. What they are after is HOW to improve their modes of action.

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The Transnational Curriculum Inquiry: an overview[1]

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Abstract

This article aims to analyze the process of internationalization of curriculum studies as it is defended by the International Association for the Advancement of Curriculum Studies (*IAACS*) through its journal, *Transnational Curriculum Inquiry (TCI).* The *IAACS* was founded in 2003 by William Pinar and other researchers on curriculum, and in 2004 they launched the first edition of *TCI*, which had Noel Gough as chief editor. The *TCI* is meant to support a worldwide field of curriculum studies through scholarly conversations about curriculum work within and across national and regional borders. In this article, I present and analyze the most frequent categories that the 87 authors from 38 different universities in 13 countries used in their articles from 2004 to 2012. I have selected them using the keywords and abstracts of each article as a guide. There are 92 articles, and the selected categories are: *currere*, cultural translation, globalization, and educational transfer. The article aims to understand how the *IAACS* group, through the publications in the *TCI*, regards the internationalization of curriculum studies. Since there are certain issues involved in this process, such as external influences on a determined educational system, inequalities and uneven relationships among countries, transnational educational policies that mediate the decision making in each region (global versus local policies), is it possible to discuss internationalization of curriculum without taking these issues into account? Researchers and scholars from different backgrounds take part into a major debate via *TCI,* which was designed to be a transnational space for "complicated conversations" (Pinar). Nonetheless, the *TCI* has proved to be a space for similar opinions, rather than divergent ones, regarding the process of internationalization of curriculum studies.

Keywords: Internationalization – *Transnational Curriculum Inquiry* – Educational transfer

1. Introduction

In this paper I present the results of the analysis of the articles published in *Transnational Curriculum Inquiry (TCI),* the journal of the *International Association for the Advancement of Curriculum Studies – IAACS,* from 2004 to 2012. It aims to understand how the *IAACS* group of researchers and scholars, through their publications in the *TCI*, regard the internalization of curriculum studies.

The curriculum studies field has been going through a great wave towards its internationalization since the beginning of 2000. Transnational spaces for debate and discussion have been created all over the world, some of which specially linked to curriculum research associations. Researchers and scholars from different parts of the academic world and backgrounds seek to take part in a movement to build up a collective work, for which mutual confidence is essential.

One of these major movements occurred in 2000 when the First Conference on the Internationalization of Curriculum Studies was held, at Louisiana State University, U.S.A. In 2001, the *International Association for the Advancement of Curriculum Studies – IAACS* was created, much due to the efforts and under the influence of William Pinar, professor at the British Columbia University, in Vancouver, Canada. The *IAACS* has already held conferences in different countries[2].

In 2004, the *IAACS* launched the first edition of its journal, *Transnational Curriculum Inquiry (TCI)*, which had Noel Gough as its chief editor. The *TCI* was created to support a

> worldwide (but not uniform) field of curriculum studies. *TCI* is a site for scholarly conversations about curriculum work within and across national and regional borders and welcomes contributions from anyone interested in advancing curriculum studies as an academic and professional field of study.[3]

Nevertheless, what do we mean when we talk about the internationalization of the curriculum studies field? Does the internatinalization mean a kind of global homogeneity of knowledge? Since there are certain issues involved in this process, such as external influences on a determined educational system, inequalities and uneven relationships among countries, transnational educational policies that mediate the decision making in each region (global versus

local policies), is it possible to discuss internationalization of curriculum without taking these issues into account? How can researchers and scholars from different backgrounds take part into a major debate when there are so many inequalities and external forces that influence each educational system differently?

1.1. Methodology

The *corpus* of this analysis was formed by the 82 articles and 10 editorials published from 2004 to 2012. These texts are divided in 9 volumes and 17 online editions of the journal[4]. These articles were written by 87 authors from 38 different universities in 13 countries.

I thus began the research by analyzing the keywords of the abstracts, which led me to the full analysis of 52 articles[5] plus the 10 editorials[6]. By reading and analyzing these 62 texts, I was able to establish the analytic categories that were specially recurrent in the authors' writings. These *a posteriori* selected categories were: *currere*, cultural translation, globalization, and educational transfer.

2. "Complicated Conversations"

William Pinar, one of the most prominent curriculum studies researcher in North America and one of the founders of the *IAACS*, affirms that researchers on curriculum should have "complicated conversations" (PINAR 2003) so as to guarantee a democratic and as equal as possible debate over issues that permeate the field in different parts of the world. The *TCI* was then created to be such a space where these conversations would take place.

The *TCI* is an online, free access journal operated by the "Open Journal Systems" (OJS). It offers free access to all its content and publications, based on the principle that, by making research accessible to the public in general, a greater interchange of global knowledge is possible. So, the expectation is that a greater number of international readers and authors will eventually have access to it.

The *TCI* encourages contributions that

> examine the impact of globalisation on curriculum work in relation to national and international debates on such matters as human rights, social justice, democratisation, national, ethnic and religious identities, issues of gender and racial justice, the concerns of indigenous peoples, and poverty and social exclusion. A specific aim of *TCI* is to examine the interrelationships between local, national, regional and global spheres of curriculum work.[7]

The 92 articles published from 2004 to 2012 were written by researchers and scholars who research and do their academic work in 13 different countries[8]: Canada (29 authors); Australia (21 authors); United States (13 authors); Brazil (7 authors); China (4 authors); Portugal (3 authors); Finland, Mexico and New Zealand (2 authors each); South Africa, Germany, Norway and Turkey (1 author each). There are two or more authors in an article sometimes, and also authors' contributions in more than one edition.

A relevant note is the hegemony of the English language and of English speaking countries in the list above. Despite the *TCI*'s founders and editors' concern with promoting a democratic and egalitarian space for contributions, and also despite their explicitly stimulating authors to publish in their mother tongue, from the 92 articles there are only 5 published simultaneously in the authors' tongue[9].

It seems clear enough that this hegemony is related to two major aspects: the first one is that the *TCI* is published by an association from an English speaking country; the second, the English speaking countries/institutions majority in the authors' list. And it is something that we can see in the process of internationalization of curriculum studies as well. English has historically become the "lingua franca" of the world, economic, political, social and academic worlds, and we should question ourselves how far and how deep this fact influences in the whole process. Is it possible that a debate like this can really be democratic and egalitarian when the medium used for exchangig ideas is solely one, with which all the researchers from different language speaking countries must comply?

3. *Currere*

The auto/biography appears strongly emphasized in the articles, as well as the *currere* method. Both were developed by Pinar in the 1970's based on his studies of phenomenology and psychoanalysis, as means to work on curriculum. Pinar affirms that the curriculum making is a complicated conversation that requires an autobiographic analisys as an investigative practice and a constant critical questioning about a reality that cannot be understood without the

subjectivity. These two principles serve both as foundational categories to the *TCI* authors when discussing curriculum making, and when analysing educational experiences.

The word c*urrere* comes from Latin language but Pinar gives it a new meaning. *Curriculum* originally means "running track" and comes from the verb *currere*, which means "to run". Thus, *currere* is a verb, an action, an activity, and not "something", a noun. By emphasising the verb, Pinar wants to dislocate the emphasis from the "running track" to the act of "running the track".

Currere implies the idea of the curriculum as an active process. It is not simply the class plan, or the text books, the institutional assessments, the aims and objectives, but the curriculum should always be in action:

> (..) As a perpetual struggle, the curriculum in Pinar's *currere* is never a finished product that can be finally mastered and passed along to an awaiting new generation. Such a perspective protects the curriculum from the all-too-common fragmentation of modernist pedagogies, as it focuses our attention on the lived realities, socio-political encounters, and the identity formation of individual human beings. (KINCHELOE 1998, p. 130)

4. Cultural Translation

 "The expression 'cultural translation' was originally created by anthropologists (…) to describe what occurs in cultural meetings when each side tries do understand the actions of the other." (BURKE 2009). Besides trying to understand the other's actions, the concept of cultural translation leads us to consider how much influence a language or culture has over another, and how much this "receptive" one, on the other hand, also influences the first. Cultural translation is therefore a double process of contextualization and reconceptualization. Cultural translation is a two-way road, on which one must consider the interests, for example, in choosing which items are to be translated or not.

Cultural changes, interchanges and exchanges in curriculum, through the curriculum, made possible by translation, comprehend various elements that articulate, complement, diverge, interact, and contradict one another, composing narratives that convey knowledge and meaning, additionally promoting the creation of something new. In this sense, curriculum may be understood as a "cultural hybrid", considering that by translating and being translated, curriculum makes and is made into something new as well.

In the articles in the *TCI*, the authors generally refer to the importance of such translation process in the debate on curriculum, since it enables the "complicated conversations" in different spheres of thought and practice. Furthermore, it is a way in which the local aspects of theory and practice may join these conversations in a global level, as proposed by Pinar and the *IAACS* group as a whole.

5. Globalization

Globalization provokes sound effects in the processes of construction, loss and reconstruction of identities, in the concepts of culture, intercultural interchanges, as well as in the curriculum itself. Globalization policies both undermine traditions and stimulate their reconstruction facing the new economic, political and social demands resulting from them. Therefore, analyzing the globalization and its influences on curricular theories is crucial for the understanding of the process of internationalization of curriculum studies.

The articles in the *TCI* try to present their distinctive, unique, singular local approaches to the curriculum making by giving examples of practical and personal life and educational experiences, researches, reports, testimonies. They authentically show their localness, sometimes questioning and defying the national authorities on issues like the national educational policies that are meant to be applied to a specific country.

They are texts that examine the globalization impact over the curriculum work as far as human rights, social justice, democratization, national, ethnic and religious identities, issues of gender and racial justice, indigenous peoples, and poverty and social exclusion are concerned.

6. Educational Transfer

Countries all over the world have been affected by a different (however, not new) form of educational transfer since the 1980's. It is not only "transnational" or "international" anymore, but "supranational" (DALE 2005, apud BEECH 2009). Even though the starting point remains the nation, the concept of "supranational" implies a virtual space that

exists above and beyond the nations. Such space leads us to think of the "international" agencies that are the main source of the current pedagogical universal models and demands of global education, and from where the curricular policies to be followed by different nations all over the world come.

It is hard to discuss internationalization without taking such an issue into account. The *TCI* authors usually deal with it from their local point view, that is to say, they show how their local practices are capable of overcoming the impositions of educational institutions, governmental policies and the agencies recommendations, for instance. They privilege the subjectivity present in the curriculum over the policies that come from "outside" as much as they can. In this sense, by and large the texts from the analysed period do not give much space for debating or discussing this kind of transfer. They acknowledge that governmental policies and priorities are threatened with processes of economic, political and social globalization, and that the national authority in curriculum decision making might get destabilised by external influence. Nonetheless, they also affirm that the curriculum should be thought of more at a personal, individualistic level than at a national one.

However, by reinforcing the idea of curriculum as *currere,* thus the auto/biographical aspects in it, the authors enrich the possibilities for this space of tensions, contradictions, and adaptations in face of the "supranational" educational transfer phenomenon.

7. Conclusion

Researchers and scholars from different backgrounds take part in a major debate on the process of internationalization of curriculum studies through the *TCI*, a space originally designed to support such interchange of ideas, a transnational space for "complicated conversations" (PINAR 2003). Nevertheless, what we can see in the *TCI* articles is that these researchers, despite their differences, share similar concepts of the process of internationalization of the field. They emphasize the local experiences over the global; they stress the importance of regarding curriculum design as *currere,* as an auto/biographical experience; they admit the need for cultural translation to deal with issues of social justice, gender, and so forth; they tend to diminish the influences of globalization in their educational practices; the texts do not present references as to the debate involving knowledge itself, or the knowledge society, neither do they discuss the economic aspects involved in the internationalization of education. There is little divergence of opinions in relation to the concepts involved; different points of view over the subject are not present in the articles analyzed.

Finally, the *TCI* has proved to be an important and representative means for the *IAACS* group of researchers and scholars' present their ideas, concepts, and academic work concerning the process of internationalization of curriculum studies. It constitutes a relevant space for international readers and researchers to access their highly worthy contributions.

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Notes

[1] This paper is a summarized extract from my Master's dissertation entitled "Conversa em Prisma: o periódico *Transnational Curriculum Inquiry*", at http://200.156.15.166/informa/cgi-bin/biblio.dll?g=Geral

[2] China, in 2003; Finland, in 2006; South Africa, in 2009; Brazil, in 2012.

[3] http://ojs.library.ubc.ca/index.php/tci/about/editorialPolicies#focusAndScope (Access on 10/ 10/12)

[4] For the complete reference: *http://ojs.library.ubc.ca/index.php/tci* (Access dates: from August 2012 to July 2013)

[5] There were 30 articles without abstracts/keywords, and that for different reasons, which were then not included in the analysis.

[6] Although the editorials did not present abstracts/keywords, they were also included in the analysis because they do offer an important statement as to the position and/or points of view of the editor(s) in charge of a specific edition.

[7] http://ojs.library.ubc.ca/index.php/tci/about/editorialPolicies#focusAndScope (Access on 10/ 10/12)

[8] It is important to stress that these countries are not necessarily the authors' "home countries".

[9] "Motifs didactiques et représentation visuelle de la discipline: sources de transformation chez les stagiaires en formation des maîtres" , "İzlence Haritalandırması ve Eğitsel Sağlarlıklar: Öğretmen Adayları için Dönüşüm Kaynakları", both by François Victor Tochon e Celile E. Okten; "晚学の　寂しさ沁みる　再帰国 (Late-blooming student, roots of loneliness run deep, as I return home)" by Mika Yoshimoto; "一封给姐姐的信 – 论威廉姆多尔的四R理论 (Letter to my sister about Doll's 4 R's: Chinese version)" by Lixin Luo; "Construir currículo na ultra-periferia da Europa em tempo de globalização: dois cenários alternativos (Curriculum making on the edge of Europe in the age of globalization: two alternative scenarios - Portuguese version)" by Franciso Rodrigues Sousa.

The German Curriculum Movement – a failure of transatlantic exchange

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Abstract

The paper outlines the reception of Schwab's essay 'The Practical: A Language for Curriculum' in German-speaking countries in the 1970s and 1980s. The story is a good example to demonstrate how different circumstances and phases of development determine the transatlantic exchange and influence of concepts in the field of education and especially of Curriculum. The central ideas of Joseph J. Schwab's concept of curriculum theory and curriculum-making were related to the traditions of general Didaktik in the German-speaking world. It would have been well suited for a reception. Nevertheless the reception the essay received was at first not a story of success; on the contrary we have to diagnose a historical neglect. Circumstances today are much better for rethinking Schwab's analysis under the new conditions of standardizing and competence-oriented curriculum policies.

Keywords: curriculum theory; German Didaktik; Schwab, Joseph; transatlantic exchange; history of curriculum

1   Introduction

I like to add some further facts, reflections and arguments to a conversation initiated by Ian Westbury, Stefan Hopman and Kurt Riquarts (Westbury, Hopman & Riquarts 2000; Hopman & Riquarts 2000) in their project Curriculum meets Didaktik. They invited to a rather 'difficult' discourse about the 'fundamental cultural differences in understanding of teaching, schooling and the teaching professions' (2000, 4) represented by German Didaktik on the one side and Curriculum on the other. At first they pointed out the idea of *Bildung* and the central role of content as the core of German Didaktik. Tero Autio (2006) and William Pinar (2006) have continued the conversation focused on the concept of *Bildung*. My contribution is a case study about the transatlantic exchange.

I explore the reception of Schwabs famous essays on Practical in the context of the German curriculum movement. I focus the quite different circumstances as political as well as epistemological developmental states of the educational sciences and the administrative position of schools in the two cultures. My main thesis is: transatlantic as any other transcultural exchange of ideas is guided by socio-political interests and policy of sciences and disciplines. It's not about to understand each other in their own context, not a pure study of theoretical differences and familiarities. Even veiled our will to truth is every time also a will to power in the sense of Michel Foucault epistemological analysis. I will present three main factors hindering an appropriate reception of Schwabs essay: the time of publication, the focus of attentiveness and the phase and dynamic of changes in educational sciences and educational policy.

2   The context of the exchange

After the Second World War and during the restorative phase, human-science pedagogy, i.e. *Geisteswissenschaftliche Pädagogik*, ruled the discipline. Basically, it was a philosophical/historical reflection science using hermeneutic and, to some extent, phenomenological rather than quantitative methods. There was hardly any research on learning and teaching worthy of the name as it was classified with the psychology of learning rather than with education. General and special didactics were organized normatively. Their models were theoretical and analytical constructs recovered from a more or less systematic reflection of education practice and the analysis of subjects (Westbury et al. 2000). Under the influence of a growing reception of US research on education and teaching, the German-speaking world of the late 1960s witnessed what was called the 'empirical turn of education'.

In 1968, a festschrift under the programmatic title *Geisteswissenschaftliche Pädagogik am Ausgang ihrer Epoche – Erich Weniger* was published dedicated to Erich Weniger, the leading German-speaking theoretician of the curriculum (Dahmer and Klafki 1968). 1967 a brief paper by Saul B. Robinsohn, 'Bildungsreform als Revision des Curriculum' (1971), had been published and may well have been the founding document for the then-nascent curriculum

movement within the German-speaking area. 'Educational reform as curriculum revision' presented itself as the scientific counter-programme to the 'informed arbitrariness' of philosophizing and politicizing educational theoreticians and practitioners in whose hands lay the development of government curricula that determined what was supposed to 'be applied in class'. In contrast, curriculum planning should be rational, systematic, and innovative. 'Rational' signified that the planning should be the result of scientific research and analysis; 'systematic' meant the whole of the curriculum process from defining objectives to development, implementation, evaluation and, ultimately, to revision; 'innovative' characterized this new approach, specifying that the point of departure was not solely an existing stock of culture as regards knowledge and abilities but rather a definition of required qualifications for living situations that had to be coped with in the present as well as the predictable future. US curriculum concepts served as blueprints for the implementation of this new curriculum planning. In 1971, Karl Frey wrote *Theorien des Curriculums* as an outline of the US curriculum planning models and the international state of discussions. It was the beginning of the curriculum movement in the German-speaking world, and would define research and discussion within *Didaktik* for the next (roughly) 15 years.

Remarkably, the beginning of this era in German-language countries coincides with the publication of Schwab's essay 'The practical: A language for curriculum' in 1969. However, it is not a coincidence that Schwab's critical analysis, opened by the sensational statement 'The field of curriculum is moribund' (1978, 287) was not acknowledged in this part of the world at that point. It took more than a decade – the curriculum movement was already beginning to abate – for this essay to be received, albeit in a rather hesitant manner. The *Curriculum-Handbuch* (1975) merely notes Schwab's work on the structure of the disciplines. The *Handbuch Curriculumsforschung* refers twice to the discussion regarding Schwab's essay within the US (Knab 1983: 703) and states that 'Schwab was never truly received' (Oelkers 1983: 367).

Hence, a critical analysis, such as the one presented by Schwab in the 'Practical 1' paper had to be received as disturbing and irritating. And soon it was simply ignored in this context of curriculum-reception euphoria. Schwab's (1974) method-criticizing essay on legitimation problems was published in German and prominently positioned by Robinsohn (1974), but it did not receive positive response from many. Instead, papers emerging from Bloom's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* dominated the curricular field as well as the Mager's (1962) popular instructions for learning objectives. Schwab's critical approach in terms of process and methods was the very antithesis to everything the empirical turn of education and the curriculum movement had decided in their systematic and rational manners. Neither the moral nor the political dimensions of Schwab's the Practical were seen. Schwab's critique of the field of curriculum was hidden by the significant attention paid by German curriculum scholars to Schwab's epistemological analyses of the structure of disciplines.

3   Education and the structure of sciences

In 1972, eight years after its publication in the US, the German translation of the slim volume entitled The Structure of Knowledge and the Curriculum was published. It contained two contributions by Schwab (1964a, b), 'Structure of the disciplines: Meanings and significances' and 'The structure of the natural sciences'.[4] For the field of Germany's developing scientific curriculum research, this volume became a special reference, together with Bruner's The Process of Education (1960). They were quickly adopted into the main curricular stock of reflections of the German-speaking discussions. The English works were swiftly translated. They proved to be connectable to the theoretical analyses as regards education, knowledge, and science of the German *Didaktik*. These analyses constituted a principal item of traditional curriculum theory and also were part of Robinsohn's concept of curriculum revision. The German editors considered the texts to be a correction, or at the very least a necessary supplement, to the mainstream within the German-American reception of the curriculum theory. They precisely connected with key models of *Didaktik* in the German-speaking countries in their basic principle: the educational competencies to be acquired had to be derived from the structure of sciences and knowledge (see Westbury et al. 2000). The leading German education expert, Wolfgang Klafki, followed the tradition of *Didaktik* in terms of educational theory and elaborated on the different forms and fields of experience and understanding in his book, Das pädagogische Problem des Elementaren und die Theorie der kategorialen Bildung (1959. Hence, Klafki's categorical education theory stands in a European tradition as advanced and advocated in the UK and the US by the term of 'liberal education'. Thus we have Paul Hirst (1974) with his analyses of the 'Forms and fields of knowledge', Philip Phenix (1964) with *Realms of Meaning,* and, likewise, by Joseph Schwab.

4   The dignity and logic of practice

In 1971 Schwab summarized his analyses and consequences posed in *The Practical* in an eight-page outline (Schwab 1971), reprinted in 1972 in a discussion volume on curriculum development compiled and published by Robinsohn (1972). Robinsohn (1972: 11), the initiator of the curriculum movement in the German-speaking area, wrote in the editor's introduction both in an affirmative and distancing manner:

> he [the editor S. B. Robinsohn] wishes to add that curriculum development as an 'art of the practical' and of 'eclecticism' … cannot do without the direct reference to life situations.

However, these statements may only be understood in view of the fact that Robinsohn's model of curriculum revision refers to life situations for the scientific identification of educational objectives. At the same time he talks about the 'myth of teacher's autonomy within the curriculum', criticizing the English model of 'Teachers groups and centres' as the main bases of curriculum work. Robinsohn views the role of teachers and educational practice for the curriculum work merely in the sense of a participation promoting the readiness for reform and for its implementation (Robinsohn 1971: 94). He focuses entirely on a scientific rationalistic approach when it comes to curriculum development, strongly contrasting with the traditionally-practiced curriculum development in the German-language area by teachers and educational administrations. The empirical turn and reception of curriculum research changed these competences. The 'new' science became both leading and determining. This is why Robinsohn's *'Bildungsreform als Revision des Curriculum'* opens with an analysis of the 'boundaries of Didaktik' (Robinsohn 1971: 32). For him, it is a business of the educational sciences, i.e. psychology, scientific theory and epistemology, educational theory, sociology, and the expanding community of curriculum specialists. Therefore, it comes as no surprise that the Schwab of the Practical was never genuinely received under these conditions.

The humanistic *Didaktik* had considered itself as *'Wissenschaft von und für die Praxis'*, i.e. 'science by and for practice'. Schwab's the 'Practical 1' paper criticizes the scientific reasoning in matters of curriculum and instruction and thereby offers a fundamental criticism regarding the established models of scientific problem-solving in the area of education and classroom:

> [There are] radical difference of the practical from the theoretic mode … not in one aspect but in many: It differs from the theoretic in method. Its problems originate from a different source. Its subject matter is of a distinctly different character. Its outcome is of a different kind. (Schwab 1978, 288).

He argues that it is basically impossible to grasp the complexity of practical decisions and measures regarding education by means of theoretical analyses and technological planning. In its basic construction Schwab's view is nothing less than an implicit interpretation of the Aristotelian differentiation of *episteme*, which builds itself on *analysis*, and *deixis* on the one hand, and a *praxis* operating by means of mere probabilities and opinions as well as a *techne* performing with the help of experience and skill on the other hand. They are intrinsically autonomous and productive modes and spheres of problem solving. They each have their own right and their own validity.

Differentiation has a double meaning: on one side, it confines the authority of science; on the other side, it maintains the self-will and dignity of practice and the individual case with respect to science. Here, science is no longer the determining function between right and wrong statements and positions; it plays the part of moderation and of structuring and evaluating processes. This position corresponds to the traditional human-science education.

5   The struggle of mental powers and curriculum deliberation

The leading humanistic curriculum theoretician of the 20th century in Germany, Erich Weniger, described curriculum development as a political and practical business. Therein, he had detected a struggle of mental powers ('Kampf geistiger Mächte'). Weniger sees this dispute as a clash of conflicting interests held by real societal groups and institutions: 'State and church, economy and society, arts and science, law and customs' (Weniger 1975: 201). Later, he added the unions to this list. It is neither science in general nor educational sciences in particular that have to take the responsibility for and develop the curriculum; it is society as a whole that has to come to an understanding regarding curricula and educational objectives. Overall, the development of a curriculum is not a process of establishing the truth and of lines of argument. Instead, it is an organized procedure to find the historic and – in view of pending challenges – adequate accommodation of competing interests. The end of this process is 'a decision, a

selection and guide to possible action'—exactly the outcomes Schwab postulates for the Practical. Its quality criteria are not primarily truth and validity but situative and historic appropriateness. Its outcome is a consented educational ideal, minimizing and balancing the basic societal conflicts. This task must not be delegated to a group of experts. The convincing aspect of this conception is the distinct acknowledgement of power structures within the process of curriculum development and implementation and a double modesty in the ambition to be able to a) systematically organize and control the process, and b) to compare it solely with purpose-rational criteria. Therein, he agrees with Schwab's the Practical. The functional and technological solution to the problem of curriculum reform, as rightly criticized by Schwab, eventually failed in its German version exactly on this point.

To Schwab, curriculum development is a practical and a political business. The form of processing is the argument. It assumes that there are different views, aspects and interests in a matter that all have their proper justification. As different as they are, they cannot be sorted in terms of true or false. It is all about making decisions adequate for these different aspects and interests. The result of argumentation is neither truth nor the certainty of finding the one true solution to a problem; it is the understanding among the people involved that they have a common responsibility in the matter at hand and an obligation to reach the best possible result.

These qualities made Schwab both compatible with and familiar towards the curriculum movement in the German-speaking world. The movement had always considered itself a moral/political educational reform movement and not solely as a scientific rationalization of curriculum development. With this in mind, Schwab's the Practical was rather unexciting in these parts: it was believed that there was nothing new for Germany in Schwab's discussion. However, the failure to combine the political/moral dimension with the scientific methodological one along the lines of Schwab may well be named as one of the reasons for the ending of the German curriculum movement.

6   An Attempt to Adaptation

There have been attempts at an adaptation that may illustrate the relations and affinities between Schwab's concept and the tradition of the German Didaktik. Schwab entitled his contribution to Robinsohn's anthology 'Curriculumentwicklung in der Diskussion' a 'practical legitimation of curricula'. The political/ethical term 'legitimation' may well be interpreted as being programmatic. In 1975, I published an anthology with the title Curriculumentwicklung – Begründung und Legitimation [Argumentation and legitimation of curriculum development], arguing the extraordinary importance of the political aspects of curriculum development in Germany. Scientific argumentation alone does not necessarily offer moral/political legitimation for curricular decisions – in this case, this was one of the main problems for the transformation of informed arbitrariness of traditional curriculum development into rational curricular decision processes. But how to organize a procedure of curricular deliberation that fulfills the demands of political and rational decisions and guides? In Frey's (1975) contribution entitled 'Rechtfertigung von Bildungsinhalten im elementaren Diskurs: Ein Entwurf für den Bereich der didaktischen Rekonstruktion' to Curriculumentwicklung, he developed a model of Didaktik reconstruction and simplification of the available potential bodies of knowledge. In its essentials, it reads like the implementation of Schwab's 'arts of ecletic'.

In his later operational instantiation in the 'curriculum conference', the parallel to Schwab is expressed even more distinctly. The concept of the 'curriculum conference' (Frey 1982) closely follows Schwab's guidelines, and expands them by methods of reasonable argumentation and socio-technological instruments of social interaction. The elements of the model are in accord with Schwab's the Practical, for example in the representation of relevant curricular commonplaces such as teachers, subject matter, curriculum-making. The model itself remained unpublished, even though both projects were scientifically supervised and evaluated; the evaluations, however, were released as theses.

Nevertheless, this attempt at reception arrived too late. The curriculum movement had already started to wane. School practitioners as well as administrators had lost confidence in the movement's ability to solve the problems of the pending educational reforms. Science withdrew from the directly practical business of curriculum reform; they were driven back or renewed its ties with educational administration. The reception of Schwab's the Practical in Germany occurred when the curriculum movement in the German-speaking world showed signs, parallel to those in the US, of its inability to solve practical problems of curriculum-making.

Ten years later, an essay by Peter Pereira entitled 'Eine Einführung in Joseph J. Schwabs Theorie curricularer Erörterung' [An introduction to Joseph J. Schwab's theory of curriculum deliberation] (Pereira 1992) appeared. It did

not lead to any renewals of the curricular discussion, either in terms of theoretical debates or in terms of practical implementation. Neither the curriculum conference as a practice nor Schwab's 'art of eclectic' were able to gain wider acceptance.

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Lost in translation? A case study of Macao in fabricating the European education space in Asia

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Abstract

The theme of creating a European education space has been extensively discussed in Europe since the 1960s. Many scholars are concerned about how the emergence of "global governmentality", such as OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), has produced a "soft governance" in which massive numerical data are used to standardize a European education space. Some have challenged whether this global development, namely the PISA data, could serve as the 'gold standard' in producing the global "script" for national contexts. Paradoxically, Asian countries, while responsively engaging in this "process of Europeanisation", have become fanatics of benchmarking and international comparisons without even realizing the European agenda behind this. The participating PISA members consume and are being consumed by the Europeanisation process in a rather technical way. The effects of this "global development" led by IOs are irreversible. In this paper, I would argue that educational development is rooted in social and historical contexts and should not ignore the negotiations between the "global" and the "local" discourses. I query: 1) Are we aware of the "fabrication" of a European education space? 2) How do we translate such "fabrication" to our local system? This paper attempts to reflect on PISA's impacts on the education system of an Asian region, Macao. Macao was once a European colony; yet the European education space was never created before its political handover to China in 1999. Interestingly, the engagement in the European agenda commenced in the post-1999 era when Macao joined PISA in 2003. The absence of a territory-wide examination system has been an "unusual" feature; Macao's present participation in the international arena is to strategically make use of the "external" forces to discipline and make "internal" affairs accountable. This study reveals the interplay of the discourses between OECD and Macao in "re-ordering" Macao's educational landscape.

Keywords: Macao education; European education space; governance; education translation; globalisation

1. Introduction

The theme of the creation of European education space has been extensively discussed in Europe since the early 1960s. This has ranged from the concerns of developing a common cultural identity, to that of a harmonization of systems, the formation of educational space and new spaces of governance. In effect, scholars such as Ozga, Lawn, Grek, Nóvoa among others are concerned about the ways in which the emergence of 'global governmentality', such as the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) or the discourse of lifelong learning advocated by OECD, has produced a 'soft governance' in which large amounts of numerical data are used to standardize the European education policy space (Lawn, 2006, 2011; Lawn & Grek, 2012; Ozga et al., 2011). Some have challenged the view that this global development, namely the educational performance data of PISA could serve as the 'gold standard' in producing the global 'script' for national/regional contexts (Ozga, 2012, p.166). Paradoxically, the Asian countries/regions, while responsively engaging in this "process of Europeanisation", have become fanatics of benchmarking and international comparisons in order to *locate* their own position in the new order of the epoch, without realizing the European agenda behind this. The participant members consume and are being consumed by the Europeanisation agenda and process in a somewhat operational, technical and instrumental way. To date, the effects of "global development" led by IOs are almost irreversible. However, I would argue that the educational development of each region is deeply rooted in its social context and history and should not lose sight of the negotiations between the "global" and the "local" discourses.

As researchers and teacher educators in the far east region (Macao), we are greatly concerned with the following two questions: 1) Are we aware of the 'fabrication' issue which is happening in our national context? 2) How do we translate such 'fabrication' to our local system? As such, the aim of this paper is an initial attempt from an Asian region, Macao, to reflect on the impacts of PISA, one of the influential Europeanisation measures, on the local education system. Interestingly, Macao was once a European colony for four centuries and yet the European education space was never created before the political handover, on 20th December, 1999. The engagement in the European agenda commenced only in the post-1999 era, specifically, in 2003, the year Macao joined in PISA. The educational landscape of Macao is described as a "big market small government" mode (Vong & Wong, 2010) in which a majority of schools belong to the private sector. Furthermore, the longstanding absence of a territory-wide examination system is an "unusual" and unique feature of the region (Bray and Packer, 1993, p.199). Macao's present participation in the international arena is to strategically make use of the "external" forces to discipline and make "internal" affairs accountable. This study reveals the interplay of the discourses between European educational agenda in particular OECD and Macao in "re-ordering" Macao's educational landscape.

In this paper we first briefly examine the historical development of a European education space that serves as a platform for comprehension. A brief educational landscape of Macao is provided and its involvement in the European education space and agenda is considered in the second section. In the third section, situated in Macao with specific cultural and historical conditions, we attempt to explore in the ways in which the territory is engaged in the European education space and is fabricated by the European policies in a discreet manner. In the final section, we re-visit our two questions and put forth our arguments, concerns and the possible effects arising from this 'global mentality' and 'gold standard'.

2. Where is the *Alpha and Omega*[1]? - Re-thinking the Question of European Education Space

Lawn & Grek (2012, p. 9) comment that 'Europe is also a heterotopia of different scales and sites, fluid and changing, mediated by language barriers, regional histories, and immovable national projects'(ibid., p.9). Furthermore, they consider 'Europe as a fluid concept' and the concept itself is on the move to change and develop (Lawn & Grek, 2012, p.13). De facto, Europe is a complex concept and fluid notion.

In terms of European Union education policy, some scholars (Shaw ,1999; Ollikainen, 1999; Blomquist, 2007 cited in Ozga, Dahler-Larsen, Segerholm & Simola, 2011, Location,539) classify this in four stages namely, the Treaty of Rome (1957), The Single European Act (1985), the Maastricht Treaty (1992) and the Lisbon Treaty (1997). However, the concept of Europe can be traced back to 1920s when an Austrian Count, Coudenhove, put forward 'Pan-Europa – a proposal' to initiate the Pan-European Movement. The idea of the proposal was to enhance the ideal of a united and peaceful Europe as a common project, which in turn was the best description of the *status quo* in Europe,

> Europe as a political concept does not exist. This part of the world includes nations and states installed in the chaos, in a barrel of gunpowder of international conflicts, in a field of future conflicts. (....) The European Question will only be solved by means of the union of Europe's nations...(Coudenhove, 1923).

Witnessing the repercussions of WWI, in his proposal, he considered that Europe could only preserve the world peace through a pacific process to develop political, economy and military unity. He argued that the success or collapse of Europe depended on 'integration'. Thus the single European space concept was raised and it was grounded on the preservation of world peace and *recovery* from the world war.

More solid work was carried out in 1950s. In 1951, the Treaty of Paris, formally the establishment of the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) was an initiative to create a supranational Europe. In 1957, the Treaties of Rome gave birth to the European Economic Community (EEC) and to the European Atomic Energy Community, known as Euratom. The former Treaty, as stated in the Preamble, 'determined to lay the foundations of an ever-closer union among the peoples of Europe'(European Economic Community, 1957, p.2) through the development of the common market, the customs union and common policies. The consent among different States was bounded by mutual economic and social progression. The word 'education' did not appear in the Treaty, instead, vocational training and retraining was a discourse which was repeatedly addressed in the document. At this stage, the construction of a European Community was highly focused on the economic domain.

Then, the Single European Act (European Community, 1986), known as SEA, signed in 1986 was a milestone in terms of a single European space. The former President of the European Commission (1985-1995), Jacques Delors, summarised the main objectives of SEA as follows:

> The Single Act means, in a few words, the commitment of implementing simultaneously the great market without frontiers, more economic and social cohesion, an European research and technology policy, the strengthening of the European Monetary System, the beginning of an European social area and significant actions in environment. (European Commission, 2013)

As noted, the principal vision of SEA is to create a Europe 'without frontiers' where the free movement of goods and persons, services and capital were encouraged. A notion of a borderless Europe was then conceptualized. Additionally, social cohesion was brought to the fore as well as a European identity which was also emphasized in the Act. Nevertheless, the issues concerning European identity and the single monetary system were not unproblematic and resulted in heated debates between the former president of European Commission, Jacques Delors and the former British Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher. The issue itself is not simply an economic matter but concerns cultural, social and historical diversities. Lawn and Grek (2012, p.35) describe this period as kind of 'chaotic uniformity'.

The Maastricht Treaty (European Union,1992), also known as the Treaty of the European Union (TEU), was considered as the 'landmark' and the 'first turning point' of the Europeanisation process (Nóvoa, 2013, p. 106; Grek & Rinne, 2011, Location,582, Nóvoa & Lawn, 2002, p.3) in which education was identified as one of the central areas involved in the European integration process. The concept of European citizenship was first introduced, as stated in Article A in the Treaty, '[it] marks a new stage in the process of creating an ever closer union among the peoples of Europe, in which decisions are taken as closely as possible to the citizen' (European Union, 1992). Education was specified in Article 126 and 127 in Chapter 3, Title VIII as an important measure to develop a 'European dimension', to promote 'cooperation' in the field of education and to encourage 'mobility' of students and teachers through an academic recognition among the states (ibid.). This 'first turning point', coined by Nóvoa (2013), has given weight to education in the Europeanisation and social integration process. This at the same time also contributes to create a European space where it lies within the arena of possibilities.

In the following two decades, the construction of the European dimension was in a full swing, several programmes such as 'SOCRATES programme'[2] in 1994 and 'Leonardo da Vinci programme'[3] in 1995, aimed to enhance the quality of education and vocational training respectively in order to mobilise skilled labour across Europe, for the development of a 'common market' with greater economic competiveness. In the late 20th and early 21st Century, the European Commission launched or reinforced the existing educational projects such as ERASMUS in the area of higher education exchange, the Comenius school education Programme and certain others (European Commission, 2013) to convey and disseminate the European goal and message to the different sectors of education. The Lisbon Agreement in 2000 became the 'second turning point' (Nóvoa ,2013, p.107) in the fabrication of a European education space, where two new discourses emerged, a knowledge-based economy through the Open Method of Coordination (OMC) designed to foster a further step towards Unionisation, and with education being considered as an investment in people. The OMC is a 'soft tool', a 'soft law', a 'soft power' and a 'soft form of governance' (Alexiadou, 2007; Lawn, 2006; Rutkowski & Engel, 2010; Lawn & Grek, 2012) which creates the possibility of 'a new policy space' (Lawn & Grek, 2012) and contributes to the creation of a terrain of governance across Europe and possibly beyond. Dale (2006, p.36-38 cited in Ozga et al, 2011, Location 641) summarised the means and ends of OMC,

- To fix guidelines combined with specific timetables for achieving the goals,
- To establish quantitative and qualitative indicators and benchmarks against the best in the world,
- To translate these European guidelines into national and regional educational policies, and
- To establish periodic monitoring, evaluation and peer review as mutual learning process.

Deriving from this kind of 'soft power' (Rutkowski & Engel, 2010), certain new 'modes' of coordination (Alexiadou, 2007) mentioned above emerge and are now exercised through large-scale assessments across Europe. Although the EU is still a central agent of Europeanisation, its regulations are always considered tough and 'hard' (Grek & Rinne, 2011, Location, 788) and often meet much resistance from members. Unlike the EU, the OECD is perceived not only as 'a European agent but a global one' (Lawn & Grek, 2012, p. 117). This is how and why the OECD is well received and now plays a leading role in the process of Europeanisation' (Lawn & Grek, 2012, p.117-134), producing the global 'script' for national/regional contexts (Ozga, 2012, p. 166), furthermore, 'internationalizing, globalizing and converging

[education] policy'. In effect, Grek et al (2009) point out that currently member states receive European Commission and OECD education policies in a homogenous manner. However, one would doubt that in what way and to what extent the OECD could foster the 'European dimension' in the European education space. If the OECD is doing well in enhancing the 'European dimension' in this regard, then our question what will be the possible impact for those non-European members who involve themselves in this process? Silova & Brehm (2010, p.466) point out that the current 'European education space is no longer exclusively created in Europe; it is now being actively fabricated in other parts of the globe'. This is true, particularly those advanced countries which are taking a leading role and those less advanced which are becoming the recipients of these fabrications in education. In this regard, we are particularly worried about the return of 'colonisation' in the 'without frontiers' space.

From the brief review of the development of Europe, the creation of European (Education) Space has been a long process and is in a non-linear form. The first notion of a 'single' Europe arose from the post-war trauma with the specific aim to establish a peaceful relationship for better economic *recovery*. As Nóvoa & Lawn (2002) point out, the emergence of an interest in the area came to politicians primarily involved in an economic and trading agreement. The formation of the 'common market' aiming to increase economic competiveness with the counterparts is one of the examples in this regard. Although there was no harmonization of education system as stated in the Single European Act, the diversified education programmes funded by European Commission were disseminated in different education sectors, resulting in a different kind of *harmonization*. Needless to say, the two major discourses of the Lisbon Agreement in 2000, namely a knowledge-based economy through the Open Method of Coordination and education as investment were translated into the indicators of competitiveness of a country/region which would encourage active engagement from the member states in the due course. Reflecting upon different stages of development, the emergence of each discourse is deeply rooted in the social, historical, economic and cultural context. Education is embedded with discourses and ideologies. The why, what and the way in which education is delivered is not simply a technical issue but a package of social, political, economic and cultural agenda. In other words, every educational means has its own agenda. For instance, the objective of PISA is to measure the workforce knowledge after a period of compulsory education to gauge the effectiveness of education system against the market requirements. For those in non-European participant country/regions, are we aware of being involved in the process of Europeanisation? How do we translate the 'international' agenda to the national/regional system? What kind of education quality is being fabricated in the European education space and elsewhere? As Nóvoa (2013) suggests, it is time for Europe to rethink the new fabrications and re-fabrications in the European Educational Space. However, we would also suggest for non European participants (or prospective participants) the whole issue should be rethought.

3. Contested Education Space in Macao

Macao is a small city of 29.7 square kilometres (Direcção dos Serviços de Estatística e Censos, 2010) located at the southern tip of Mainland China, at the exit of Pearl River Delta. It has a population of 552,500, an increase of 26.9% compared with the 2001 Census (Direcção dos Serviços de Estatística e Censos, 2011). It is also one of the Special Adminstrative Regions (SAR) of the People's Republic of China. Macao had a long established relationship with Europe, particularly Portugal since 1537. It was under the Portuguese administration, the last European territory in Asia, before its handover to China on 20th December, 1999. However, unlike the experiences of other European colonies, the Macao-Portuguese government practiced a totally different kind of colonialism. Pereira (1991, p.279), a historian, once used the term "limited sovereignty" to describe the presence of the Portuguese in Macao. The *popularity* or use of Portuguese language in the territory is one typical example illustrating this. Although Portuguese is one of the official languages (Chinese and Portuguese) in Macao, its use is only limited to a very small percentage (around 3%) of the population. In reality, English is the language of trade and commerce in Macao and is a popular foreign language taught in school.

Education has always been a contested area in the history of Macao. The landscape of education itself is evidence in demonstrating the little and limited participation from the Macao-Portuguese government before the handover. The local education authority in charge of non-tertiary education is the Education and Youth Bureau (Direcção dos Serviços de Educação e Juventude, also known as the DSEJ). According to records, in the academic year 2011/2012, a total of seventy-five schools were registered under the DSEJ; among these schools, eleven were government schools, fifty-three private schools that had joined the Free Education System and eleven private schools that did not belong to this system (Direcção dos Serviços de Educação e Juventude, 2012). The private schools are further subdivided into two categories: half are have a religious background such as Roman Catholic, Protestant or Buddhist and the remainder are patriotic schools run by traditional pro-China organisations. This composition is evidence of the imbalance in

power relations between the government and the market that is a phenomenon of the 'big market, small government' (Vong & Wong, 2010). Moreover, according to the Macao SAR Basic Law, these private schools enjoy much self-autonomy. Owing to historical developments, the government had little say over educational matters during the years of Macao-Portuguese administration.

The government's long-standing non-intervention philosophy had made the schooling system in Macao unique. No changes were implemented and educational policies in Macao remained a symbolic prior to the political handover. In the post – 1999 era, the local government has adopted a subsidy-driven policy to 'regulate' the differences among schools in order to build a 'unified' schooling system. In recent years, the government has embraced both *intensive* and *extensive* policy to achieve a greater coverage of education in Macao, including, among others, the extension of compulsory and free education from 10 to 15 years, the milk sponsorship programme for kindergarten students, the enhancement of lifelong education in all sectors. As noted, the Macao government is taking the stance of active intervention in education development. This can be seen as a form of "counter-current" rationale compared to developments in some European countries, for instance Finland, where the government has attempted to withdraw from 'centralised state planning'(Kivinen and Rinne, 1998, p.50) to give more space to schools and teachers. This money-driven policy is well received both by schools and parents because this is considered as the 'common good' of the territory. In effect, this policy is not without tension. Schools are welcome to receive financial assistance but are reluctant to follow instructions. Nevertheless, once the private schools receive more money from the government, they are becoming more *public* in nature and are obliged to be accountable to the public. Accountability comes in different forms, such as quality assurance, assessment (internal and external), and meticulous administrative procedures. Owing to the historical discursive conditions, local government has limited intervention in the field of education. It is through the effective means of money-driven policy designed to *harmonise* the differences between private schools, such as the standardization of class size and teacher and pupil's ratio. In line with this, accountability and competitiveness are coupled to bring PISA in the Macao education space.

4. Acquiring the *European* Dimension and Going *Global* in Macao*?*

As stated earlier, the longstanding absence of a public examination system in Macao has always been considered as a contentious issue and an 'unusual feature' of the Macao education system, notably by comparative scholars (Bray and Hui, 1991; Bray and Packer, 1993, p.199). Due to the historical conditions and the "autonomous" practice among private schools, the diversified 'school-based curriculum' is a prominent practice hence the establishment of a public examination is not an easy task. In the face of such curricular diversity, the government launched the first official curriculum in 1995 and the implementation of this was limited to government schools. This phenomenon suggests that the government had difficulties in introducing changes and reforms in the education system. With the return of Macao's sovereignty to China in 1999, the Macao government made extensive efforts to re-participate in all social matters including education so as to assume and resume its *state* responsibilities, it's intention being to change its administration to one that would signify a "strong government" regime. In effect, Macao's participation in PISA is an important symbol, a step and an action to fill the current absence of a 'public examination' and enables Macao to enter the cross-country and international assessment arena, more importantly, it creates a space for local governance through an international assessment.

The participation of Macao in PISA has become a significant issue in the territory. During the years 2004 to 2012, PISA was highlighted and emphasized in the *Annual Policy Address – Area of Social and Cultural Affairs* **(**Linhas de Acção Governativa – Área dos Assuntos Sociais e Cultura). The following summarises the policy and measures related to PISA:

Table 1: PISA in Macao Annual Policy Address – Area of Social and Cultural Affairs from 2004 to 2012

Annual Policy For the Year of:	Brief summary
2004	…Evaluation of the Macao education system. Consultation for Education Law revision. Participation in PISA for review of the competences of 15-year-old students.
2005	…Revision of the Educational Law: a move from "quantity" to "quality". Development of the "Holistic School Assessment". Sponsorship for the higher education institute to provide "school inspection training programme". Planning and initiation of the implementation of PISA in Macao.
2009	Reinforce the establishment of quality assurance mechanism. Continue to

	carry out the Whole School Assessment and to participate the trial test of PISA… Arrange the 15 years old students to sit for the PISA, and gradually to establish the central coordination of PISA.
2010	…Increase in money resources in education: increasing the amount for compulsory and free education. Continuation with the "Small Class" policy. Continuation of the "School Assessment and Special Evaluation" for quality assurance in schools. Establishment of the "School Self Assessment" tool. Follow-up of the 2009 PISA results with proper recommendation.
2011	**…**Preparation for the PISA in 2012. Follow up the results and suggestions of PISA in 2009. Borrow the successful experience from other countries and regions to enhance the quality of schools and students. In order to better prepare the PISA in 2012, keep a close contact with OECD and UNESCO.
2012	Announce the result of 2012 PISA. Follow up the report results of 2012 PISA and delineate concerned plans and measures. Analyse and investigate the OECD related reports. Enhance the education quality, promote the establishment of school assessment indicators…finish the trial test of 2012 PISA, continue to reinforce the effectiveness of school financial management.

From the above, we can identify several features: 1. The notion of quality assurance is associated with assessment; 2. Assessment is becoming part of the culture in the Macao education system; 3. PISA is becoming part of the Macao education system; 4. Local government is extremely concerned about the results of PISA; 5. The local government keeps track of the development of the OECD or IOs; 6. The PISA cycle regulates the practice in education through meticulous administrative procedures.   As discussed earlier, owing to the historical constraints, the government has difficulties in advancing educational reforms in the territory. The existing diversity between schools and non-centralised practice may always be interpreted as a 'weak regime' in terms of governance. Therefore, from the government perspective, the introduction of PISA enables the 'external influences in shaping education policies' of the territory (Torres, 1989, p. 81) and simultaneously enacts the 'reregulation' to reassert the central control through performance measurement and quality indicators (Heløy, I. et al, 2007, p.198). In effect, the introduction of PISA is two-fold, on one hand, it enables the possibility of local ; on the other, it reinforces a ew forms of non-state power to govern 'at a distance' (Miller & Rose, 2008, p. 205).

Many scholars (Lawn & Grek, 2012; Ozga et al, 2011; Nóvoa & Lawn, 2002) have suggested the possible influence and impact of the massive data generated from large-scale assessment across the globe in the arena of education governance. Sellar & Lingard (2013) examine the effects of PISA and the expanding role of the OECD in global educational governance. Such development is irreversible. Indeed, there is no such a thing as neutral education, it is always embedded with values and an agenda. Let us examine the purpose of PISA. It assesses "how far students near the end of compulsory education have acquired some of the knowledge and skills essential for full participation in society" (OECD, 2010) which, in fact, emphasizes the job competences in a neo-liberal globalization. We argue that education itself is multi-faceted, and the economic dimension is merely one side. We are concerned about the energy of the society being directed to the fulfillment of the international comparisons and skill-based competences. What will we lose in this transplant (not even in translation)?

Adopting a quote from Foucault (1984, p. 343),

> My point is not that everything is bad, but that everything is dangerous, which is not exactly the same as bad. If everything is dangerous, then we always have something to do. So my position leads not to apathy but to a hyper- and pessimistic activism.

Unlike other places where decentralization is the major discourse in the field of education, Macao is developing from a relative *laissez-faire* policy to that of a more centralised governance. In this regard, PISA, an international assessment tool, which acts as an interface to 'reregulate' the educational practices in the territory. As noted, it is a fact that Macao education going global. However, we would like to suggest that more dialogue and negotiation between the local and global educational policy is necessary, as education is never an ahistorical and asocial matter.

5. Concluding Remarks

Ozga et al (2011) have a very detailed discussion on the issue regarding the construction of a European education space through the translation of an idea of Europe and European projects into national spaces by means of quality assurance and evaluation as well as data-driven comparison. They point out that the connotation of 'translation' is important in several ways, such as, in capturing the interactions between European and national policy; in capturing the 'mobility of such [European/national] concepts through this shared language and through data'; in exchanging ideas, and 'to create equivalence' to reduce contextual variation in order to make comparison possible (Ozga et al, 2011, Location 1799-1812). From the above, there are XX specific features emerge. Firstly, 'translation' implies differences. It means that there is no translation if we have the same status. Secondly, 'translation' itself is a 'movement' (Ozga et al, 2011, Location 1840 – 1899) a means of exchange, in a reciprocal term. Thirdly, 'translation' requires means and vehicles. As Ozga et al (2011) point out one of the ways to make translation possible is to reduce contextual variations to make 'equivalence'. One of the popular ways is the emphasis on the cross-national data. In this regard, 'translation' is made possible not by embracing differences, but by eliminating them in order to make a common comparable standard, which is contradictory to the original connotation. In the case of Macao, it is noted that the entire education landscape is being harmonized by the assessment culture advocated by the OECD, thus becoming a passive recipient of European or global educational discourse. Globalisation is seemingly like a river of no return. We are concerned about the ways in which we will be lost in the translation process. However, furthermore, due to the limited of space in this discussion, we would also like to put forth some issues for further exploration.

Lawn & Nóvoa (2013) propose a rethinking of the new fabrications in the European education space. This is also important for non-European participating members to consider and re-consider the kind of education fabrications that they are now embracing. In parallel with the data-driven research, more regional and local narratives should be encouraged to understand the impact of the process of *Europeanisation*. Finally, the title 'lost in translation', in effect, is not only confined to non-European states, it is also crucial for those who actively engage in the IOs assessments in rethinking if their national goal, cultural identity and social package are lost in this translation of massive data.

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[1] The term *Alpha and Omega* comes from "I am the alpha and the omega" in the Book of Revelation in the Bible It means 'I am the beginning and the end'. The connotation here attempts to raise the awareness and consciousness to rethink 'the beginning and end (destination)' of European education space.

[2] The SOCRATES programme was an educational initiative of the European Commission designed to promote quality education and training. It first ran from 1994 to 1999 then was replaced by the SOCRATES II from 2000 to 2006. It was then replaced by the Lifelong Learning Programme 2007 – 2013. Retrieved 23rd August, 2013 from http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-programme/index_en.htm

[3] The Leonardo da Vinci programme was an educational project funded by the European Commission, which focused on the teaching and training needs in the fields of vocational education and training (VET). The programme first phased was from 1995 to 1999. The second phase ran from 2000 to 2006. It was replaced by the Lifelong Learning Programme 2007 – 2013. Retrieved 23rd August, 2013 from http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/education_culture/evalreports/training/2007/joint/leonardo_en.pdf

MIND THE GAP

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Abstract

Chanoyu, commonly known as the Japanese tea ceremony, is a synthesis of traditional Japanese arts combined with multiple cultural elements brought together in a creative ritual of preparing, making and sharing a bowl of tea. It can be called "meditation in motion". It encourages "mindful learning" (Langer, 1997) which nurtures unified awareness through the refinement of all six senses in harmony and tranquility. Unlike many other meditative practices, this happens without detachment from but in the real world with its colours, tastes, sounds, fragrances and textures. Contemplative practices such as *Chanyou* could be used as methods for teaching practically any discipline as they foster focus, presence and panoramic awareness. Illustrating what T. Aoki calls "situational" or "curriculum as lived" it offers an experiential way of learning in conjunction with other forms. "Tea methods" of learning are fully applicable to many other areas of learning. By fostering communication (both horizontal and vertical) skills, mindfulness, attention to detail and leadership it can be helpful to people in various fields. But in no other area than learning is Tea a more perfect fit. *Chanoyu* is a unique learning complex that cultivates multi sensory awareness, activates the whole body-mind, balances the bihemisperic interaction of the brain (Odin, 1988) and fosters both mental and physical memory. It reinforces concern for human life by focusing attention on its detail, in the present moment and "teaches to see the interconnectedness of all things" (Kim, 2000). It offers unlimited yet centered learning, which is panoramic, cross-disciplinary, yet focused. *Chanoyu* unifies affective, cognitive and psycho motor learning domains and combines visual, auditory, reading/writing, olfactory and tactile learning methods to encourage multi-dexterous training and brings back the "practitioner's wisdom" (Aoki, 1991). It is a truly holistic form of education and the perfect paradigm for transcending curriculum.

Keywords: mindfulness, contemplative practices, *Chanoyu* – Tea Ceremony

1   Introduction

Mindfulness can be considered another important competency for both teachers and learners. According to Ted Aoki, teachers exist in the "zone of between" (Aoki, 2005, p. 161). They are constantly building bridges between the two curriculum worlds. Curriculum created on paper and outside the actual classroom and the one that unfolds in the presence of the students in the real life. They are bridging this gap and at the same time they maintain awareness of the constant gap between the two. Moreover, they expand this space by entering the state of "not knowing" and expanding learning beyond knowing and into experiencing and simply being. They transform the classroom into the community of learners.

Originating in ancient China and refined in medieval Japan The Way of Tea, *Chanoyu*, commonly known as the Japanese Tea ceremony, had traveled to other continents by the end of the twentieth century and found new homes in lands far from and near to its origins. A delicate balance between conservation and internationalization enabled this tradition to transplant itself in new places in its most original form and take root. It developed to accommodate local conditions in other regions, which will ultimately influencing the original tradition in its motherland.
One of the most important aspects of this tradition is learning, the creation of the particular learning environment and the way of the transmission and acquisition of knowledge, which continues throughout one's life. Delores considers lifelong learning "one of the keys to the twenty-first century" (Delores, 1996) as constant learning is vital for dealing with the challenges of the ever-changing world. Lifelong learning is the continuous, self-motivated building of skills and knowledge over the course of a lifetime. It is flexible, diverse and practical. It refers to learning as a way. Contemplative practices such

as *Chanoyu* or the Way of Tea offer a valuable and well-tested experience that could benefit learners on many Ways and in a multitude of ways.

2   A FORM AND A LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

A teahouse is traditionally built in the quietest corner of one's property, far away from the realities of the busy world. Guests enter the gate and follow a stone pathway, leading to the waiting room. Stepping-stones are carefully selected and placed so one has to pay attention to each step. The tea garden, roji, "dewy path" is not really a typical garden but consists of multiple layers of various greens - moss, shrubs, evergreens with not a single flower in sight. The garden is cleaned, the moss is swept and the rocks are washed before the whole garden is lightly sprinkled with fresh water creating the feeling of purity, safety and anticipation. With each step guests remove themselves from the world of "ten thousand things". They arrive at a waiting room where a scroll is hung in the alcove, usually a simple seasonal painting – a waterfall in summer, a pine under the snow in winter, buds of a plum tree in spring or red maple leaves in the fall. Here the guests have their first taste of water. It is heated and served in previously warmed cups so when the guest picks it up, it is pleasant to the touch and the water is just the right temperature. This water is truly delicious and one rediscovers its pure taste. Then guests proceed to the arbor bench in the garden where a tray holding a warmed ceramic container and carefully arranged ash around a small lit bright red charcoal inside and a green bamboo tube with a few drops of water are placed along with woven seat cushions. Still enveloped in the green of trees and shrubs the guests hear birds and smell the breeze and these details become more important than conversation among themselves. The host purifies the stone washing basin. After hearing the sound of water pouring into the basin, the guests stand and when the host opens the low inner gate, all bow in silence. Now the guests enter the inner garden, purify their hands and mouth and enter the tearoom. The door has been left open just a little so they can insert a hand to slide it open. The entrance is often low, about half a meter high, so one has to sit down and lower one's head to get in and "dive" into the vastness of a practically empty room about ten feet square.

In older days, the samurai had to leave their swords outside on a sword rack. These days our symbolic swords are supposed to be left outside. Everyone in the tearoom is equal in his or her human nature. The first guest opens the door and finds a calligraphic scroll lit with natural light, catches a vague smell of incense, walks to the alcove and facing the wall by oneself contemplates calligraphy that sets the mood for the gathering and is in fact the most important presence in the room. Being ideographic, the characters have both visual and verbal components. Always hand written, they retain both the energy and wisdom of the calligrapher that lie far and beyond the meaning of actual words. In less than twenty minutes a transition from the cacophony of the outer world to a few minutes in front of celestial wisdom takes place. Entering the room is like entering one's inner world. The guests face the scroll one by one but they are also facing their inner selves.

The last guest locks the door from the inside, committing to voluntary confinement. For several hours the room will become a stage for the shapes, colours, textures, smells, sounds and tastes thoughtfully and gently orchestrated by the host and accompanied by the everlasting "wind in the pines" – the sound of water in the kettle, blanketed by the swirling steam.

If asked the nature of Chanoyu,
Say, it's the sound of windblown pines
In a painting.

Sen Sotan, third generation direct descendant of Sen Rikyu. (Hamamoto, 1981)

After a greeting, the host offers a simple but complex kaiseki meal just enough to "satisfy hunger", gracefully arranged on mostly black lacquered dishes with some ceramic and porcelain pieces, accompanied by a few sips of sake. This is when the guest realizes that there is nothing more delicious and the host realizes that there is nothing more complex than an elongated shape of perfectly cooked white rice steaming in a warmed up black lacquer lidded bowl, with just a sprinkle of "dew" on top, served just in time along with miso soup in a similar bowl and the freshest possible raw fish on a porcelain plate. A number of courses are served, all seasonal, simple and regional. Next carefully cut to size and previously washed charcoal is brought into the room in a basket and laid in the brazier to heat the water to the perfect temperature. Then sweets, freshly made by the host, are served and the guests return to the arbor in the garden for a break until they hear a

gong, inviting them back in the room. They half-kneel while listening, then again purify their hands and mouth and enter the room once again. This time right in the centre of the alcove wall there are flowers placed in a vase. They are simple, unpretentious and pure. A bowl of thick tea is prepared by the host and shared by all the guests. Usually, a black raku teabowl, hand built, individually fired and named, is considered to be the most suitable. Though utterly delicious, a bowl of fresh tea, which has been hand picked, steamed, dried and ground, is not only appreciated for its taste. It is tasted with the eyes seeing a gleaming green kneaded glaze against the sculptural black shores of the bowl, with hands feeling perfectly warm against the hand- pinched sides of the bowl, practically "holding" the potter's hands. One's senses diffuse and join in one continuum of experience.

A bowl of tea is appreciated on a number of different levels. The first taste of tea is for the eyes. Second taste is for the tongue. It is sharp, bitter, full-bodied. The third taste is the climax of the meeting of host and guest, who taste with the spirit and heart. Objects are not just used but also viewed closely so more is noticed about them. Light in the room changes as the reed blinds are rolled up to allow more light in the room. The fire is replenished and more sweets are offered before a bowl of thin tea is whisked individually for each guest. Greetings are exchanged once again and the guests ask the host not to see them off. Nevertheless the host opens the door of the guest entrance from inside and everyone bows in silence. The guests turn and leave as the host watches them until they disappear.

3   TEA AS A LEARNING PRACTICE

The four principles of tea practice are harmony, respect, purity and tranquility. Harmony is revealed in the relationship between people, nature and objects. Respect is shown towards people, objects and space. Purity, both physical and spiritual, is achieved through cleansing and purification. Tranquility, the integrated awareness of body and mind, is attained through this practice. Tea is a discipline that nurtures heightened body-mind experience while awakening and sharpening all the senses. Often the senses interact; fuse and produce inter sensory synaesthesia (Odin, 1988). It is a synthesis of arts and spiritual practices. It is an art of being a human being as all the activities of body-mind are involved at the same time. Combining logical and analogical tasks within the same structure, it balances the bi-hemispheric interaction of human brain. (Harris, 1986) Dr. David Smith cites German philosopher Max Sheller who characterized the history of western civilization "as an endless journey "outwards", with consequent evacuation of the inner life, and the loss of concern for human life as it is lived in its detail." (Smith, 1999) The practice of Chanoyu compensates for this evacuation by accentuating concern for human life as it is lived by focusing attention to its detail both within and without the teahouse.

There are three different dimensions in which Tea is being learned. One of them is learning temae, the actual procedures of making tea which number about one hundred or so. Variations are legion and have never been exactly counted. Ideal start would be at the age of six, in fact on the sixth day of the sixth month of the sixth year, though only traditional tea families would follow this tradition strictly. Most practitioners start later when they are actually able to choose to do tea. One progresses along the way by going to the teacher's house to study three times a month. "Monthly gratitude" is paid regardless of attendance and usually the student will follow only one teacher. When the time is right the teacher will obtain a license for the student, not a certificate of completion but rather permission to study the next step from the grand master. Even after receiving all the licenses, one would always periodically "return" to learning the first steps. From one you go to ten and then return back to one again. It may be the same step but the student is already a very different learner. This "spiral learning" with a continuous loop review is a method fully applicable to other areas of learning. I use this tea technique in my language teaching to excellent effect.

While learning the procedure itself one also learns about objects, learns how to make a harmonious assemblage based on the principles of function and beauty, and becomes capable of speaking about them while paying careful attention to the precise movements of the procedure. Both halves of the human brain get equally involved and create heightened awareness in the learner. Taking notes in a tearoom is strictly prohibited. "Not one brush stroke". Instead, students are asked to watch with all their attention and then take notes after class, at home or even on the way home. Watching the same procedure again they correct their notes. This act of taking notes later puts a great responsibility on the learner. Though there are books readily available for the few first levels of study, Tea is mostly an orally and individually transmitted from teacher to student. Those watching, watch actively, not passively as in most classrooms. Learning by watching is considered as important as learning by doing. Teachers often say: "If you have seen it, it means you have done

it". Questions are not welcomed by all teachers in a tearoom. Most will suggest a special question period during a class so that attention is not taken from the student who is actually performing a procedure. In fact, it is acknowledged that Japanese teachers don't like questions while western ones welcome the opportunity to explain things. I think it depends on the nature of the question and the level of understanding of the student. In the beginning student's questions are an obstacle to learning a form. With maturity, students may benefit from questions based on a deeper level of understanding. In Tea there are no tests, no exams and no grades. Students enter a way of lifelong learning, and more than anything, students learn how to learn.

Rikyu's very first of a hundred collected dictums of tea is this:

> "Sono michi ni iran to omou kokorokoso wagami nagara ni shisho narikeri"
> That which brought you to the Way is your true teacher.
> (Rikyu Hyakushu, 2007)

The learning of Tea is sometimes compared to a gourd. One enters through an opening no bigger than a pinhole, and then finds himself in a much bigger space than anticipated. Gradually moving forward one may get to a narrow space once again, but if one keeps moving forward, another, even greater space will open up. In the end the gourd is broken when the learner is ready. However even when one becomes a teacher, he/she still goes to their own teacher who also goes to their own teacher three times a month and returns to the beginning again and again. Practitioner realizes oneself as a link in an endless chain of learning.

The second dimension is the formal tea gathering and its variations. The one I describe above is a basic form and needs good knowledge of only four procedures. At the same time it presents different kinds of challenges, as one has to learn how to cook a full meal, create a space, assemble the utensils and perform the gathering itself. Once the basic form of a tea gathering is mastered, more complicated forms are studied. As opposed to a single *temae*, which focuses the formal tea inwardly, gathering is a kinetic practice in which one's focus is expanded outwards.

Tea is also bodywork. One learns how the body works, how to coordinate movements and breathing, practicing multiple awareness. The practice of Tea is also excellent training for the memory. Starting simply with repetition, much like a student starts a musical instrument by learning scales, the tea student progresses through increasingly complex procedures which train both mind and body memory. The body memory is prized, as in most traditional Asian "ways" as a means to remember. What one cannot recall to mind happens spontaneously when one begins to prepare tea.

The third dimension consists of learning about all the related arts: history, literature, philosophy and education. Being a synthesis of myriads of art forms, Tea offers the opportunity to learn about calligraphy and brushwork, poetry, flowers and garden design, architecture, ceramics, woodworking, bamboo objects, metal craft, paper work, textiles, cooking and food arrangement. Many outstanding artists in these fields cater to the Tea world and practice Tea themselves. Some *chajin* ("persons of tea") choose to become experts in one or several of these arts but most are a least well enough acquainted with the history and past and present practitioners of these arts to be able to judge the age, quality and jurisdiction of the art in question. In other words, they become over time, connoisseurs of art.

An indispensable part of Tea is the seasonal awareness absorbed from Japanese poetry. The seasonal words *"de rigeur"* in haiku are reflected in Tea through the poetic names given to prized utensils over the past five hundred years, the names of sweets, teas, the flowers used, the themes of paintings in the waiting room and even the main calligraphic theme of the gathering. All are chosen to reflect the season in which the Tea gathering takes place. Many utensils' use is confined to a two-week period out of a year while others are without season and can be used year round. The same applies to food, sweets and the very kimono worn by the host and guests. This appreciation of the passing of time by noting the slightest changes in the season elevates the mundane through the focus of awareness. Continuous awareness and updating is an important element of lifelong learning.

Though there are three different dimensions in learning tea, in reality, in order to become a *chajin* one has to keep learning in all three dimensions at the same time. In addition to vertically structured learning, *Chanoyu* offers what I would call panoramic learning based on the awareness of all its components. As David Smith writes in his article "Globalization and Education": "Because the new hermeneutic requires of teachers first and foremost that they be interpreters of culture rather than merely transmitters or managers, it is imperative that they be as widely and deeply educated as possible in such a way as to be able to speak across disciplines, across cultures and national boundaries."(Smith, 1999) The Way of Tea does just that.

4 TEACHING AND LEARNING ON THE WAY OF TEA

Teaching in Tea is often compared to "pointing to the moon". All the teacher can do is to point the way but it is up to the student himself/herself to learn. The teacher is simply the one who guides the students to the sources of knowledge. Relations between teacher and student are likened to the one between a chick still the egg and a hen pecking the egg to help the chick to get out. The hen can peck all over the egg with no result and so can the chick. Only when and if their efforts coincide from both sides of the shell at one place, can the chick get out of the shell and begin a new life.

Contemplative practices could be included as methods of teaching in the practically any discipline, as they foster focus, presence and multiple awareness. Tea methods of learning are fully applicable to other areas of learning. In the way tea is taught in the West learning through observation and inquiry-based discovery is fundamental. Learners are responsible for their knowledge and are regarded as co-creators of knowledge, where teacher is a guide but also a co-inquirer. In general, Tea can be extremely helpful as a method. Even the first Europeans to visit Japan in the 16C noticed that Tea had a much wider application and could be extended to every branch of cultural life in Japan. (Cooper, 1995) I suggest that it can be also applied to other areas and not only in but also outside Japan.

As a practice, *Chanoyu* offers well tested experience for the development of contemplative pedagogical methods fully applicable to any area of learning and teaching, including the curriculum studies. These teaching methods cultivate deepened awareness, focus, concentration and insight. Contemplation helps to discover the other ways of knowing, experiencing, being. It only complements the traditional methods of liberal art education. As Tobin Hart states, "Inviting the contemplative simply includes the natural human capacity for knowing through silence, looking inward, pondering deeply, beholding, witnessing the contents of our consciousness…. These approaches cultivate an inner technology of knowing…."(Hart, 2009) Contemplative pedagogy aims to cultivate deepened awareness, stop the habitual noise of the mind and open the inner sources of self. They nurture mindfulness as a way to relate to reality of the world around. Contemplative reading, reflective aesthetics, cultivation of compassion, panoramic awareness, spontaneity, refined perception, multi-sensorial learning awaken the natural capacity of using one's mind by re-establishing connection with the inner landscape. Contemplative forms of inquiry go beyond particular learning context and are especially useful today to balance dispersed attention needed to deal with the modern digital culture. Contemplative arts based teaching methods innovatively meet the essential needs of learners of today.

5 Conclusions

By fostering communication (both horizontal and vertical) skills, mindfulness, attention to detail, multiple intelligence and leadership it can be helpful to people in various contexts. But there seems to be no other area more than learning where Tea is such a magic fit. Calling learning "The Treasure Within", Jacque Delors describes four pillars of education for the future as "to know, to do, to live together and with others and to be." (Delors, 1996) To know means not only to acquire knowledge but also to master the tools of learning. To do refers to equipping people with practical skills for the present and for the future. To live together and with others refers to discovering other people and cultures and other ways of doing things, therefore developing tolerance and understanding and an ability to peacefully resolve conflicts. To be is to fully develop one's "humanbeingness" - development of mind, body, intelligence, sensitivity, aesthetic appreciation and spirituality. This development of one's "human-beingness" quality more than anything else brings *Chanoyu* to the realm of transcending curriculum.

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Positive and Negative Aspect of Using Social Network in Higher Education: Focus group study

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Abstract

Social Networking Sites (SNS) has become popular among students and faculties, especially for all young population. SNS are a relatively new technology and little research has been conducted on the belief of the teacher candidates about using Social Network as an instructional tool. The study was conducted to find out the answers of what purposes college students usually use SNS in their daily life, which learning methods can be used with SNS, and what are positive and negative aspects of using social network in higher education. 72 students (14 males and 58 females) participated in the study. The focus group as a form of qualitative research method was performed to collect data, which was examined by using content analysis method. Findings show that social network site has some positive aspects and some negative aspects in terms of education. However, these negative effects of social network site in terms of education can be eliminated or lightened using cooperative learning approach.

Keywords: cooperative learning, social network sites,

Positive and Negative Aspect of Using Social Network in Higher Education: Focus group study

Most of higher education institute continues to give education using traditional instructional tools. Some education institute integrated smart boards and projectors in the classes. These and similar technologies have been used in higher education for a long time. Faculties' reluctance are major issue to integrate more recent technologies in education (Roblyer et all., 2010). A recent finding on educational technology use in teacher education programs emphasized that lack of interest of faculty is a major barrier to integrate technologies in teacher preparation. According to the National Center for Education Statistics, the 73 % faculties participated in the research said that faculty reluctance was a main obstacle; a quarter of them said it was a moderate to major issue. Briefly, faculty members are not willing to integrate technologies.

In recent years, social media known as Social Networking Sites (SNS) has become popular among students and faculties, especially for all young population. It is kind of a new method of communication. The most popular one is called Facebook. SNS is the fastest-growing and most popular of the internet-based technologies with young people. The characteristics of this innovation may lead to spread out among people with higher rates of acceptance. It is easy to believe that SNS would be also popular among faculties. One of the reasons to become popular is that SNS is communication tools of new ages. Many young generations think that if you want to communicate with your friends you should open a facebook account. Facebook replaced the place of email account. It is a telecommunication tool of a new age.

Social Networking Sites (SNS) are a relatively new technology and little research has been conducted on the belief of the teacher candidates about using Social Network as an instructional tool. The study reported here was designed to gather information about the feeling of the teacher candidates use of SNS as an educational tool as well as their thought about the use of social networks in higher education with which educational approaches. According to ways of use of SNS, some of educational approaches can be integrated in social network sites to use for educational purposes. For examples, blended learning, cooperative learning, student-based learning, mastery learning, project-based learning, critical learning, life-long learning can be integrated in social network sites. The study was conducted to find out the answers of the following questions:

What purposes do college students usually use SNS in their daily life?

How can we integrate SNS in higher education as educational purposes?

Which learning methods can be used with SNS?

What are positive aspects of using social network in higher education?

What are negative aspects of using social network in higher education?

Methodology

The population of this study consisted of 135 sophomore pre-service students studying in instructional technologies and material design course in 2013 in the Department of Primary Mathematics Teaching, at a university in Turkey. During the semester the course was given as a mixed method. Course topics were taught face-to-face, presented using Powerpoint slides. The course materials and Powerpoint slides used during the course were distributed via Moodle-based learning management system (LMS). Students taking this course have knowledge about Moodle LMS because they took *Computer One* course as an online course through Moodle in prior semester. During the course period of 14 per week, first nine weeks the theoretical and practical issues of the course were processed and taught; last five weeks the students designed and created the course materials using instructional technology tools and presented their materials in the classroom. The last five weeks, at the same time, the process of this research was carried out. Before conducting the research, during the course the students were informed about the research. Afterwards, the students filled out the social network survey via online to determine the stance of students about social networks. The survey questions were taken from Robyler's research (2010), and modified to use in this research. The survey focused on whether or not each student (teacher candidate) had a social network account and, if so, how much and for what purposes they currently used it and whether or not they would use it in the future as an instructional tool. A copy of the survey is shown in Appendix A.

Based on the survey results and the students' preferences, the focus groups were arranged and conducted. 72 students (14 males and 58 females) chose to participate in the study, the population of each group and their supporting views shown in Table 1. The interviews lasted for five weeks in total, two interviews for each week, and the each section of the focus group interviews was audio-taped and transcribed. The interview section was not video-recorded in order to ensure the participants feel comfortable. The participants (proponents) in 1st, 5th, 7th, and 9th groups advocated the use of social networks for educational purposes and the participants (opponents) in 2nd, 4th, 6th, and 8th groups claimed that social networks cannot be used for educational purposes. Apart from these, the participants in 3rd group believed that using social network for educational purposes has some advantages and disadvantages.

Table 1: Distribution of population of focus group interviews and their views

Group	Population	Using SN in education
1st group	13	Beneficial
2nd group	6	Harmful
3rd group	7	Neutral
4th group	6	Harmful
5th group	7	Beneficial
6th group	6	Harmful
7th group	5	Beneficial
8th group	8	Harmful
9th group	9	Beneficial
10th group	5	Harmful

Note: SN means Social Networks

Data Collection

In the study, focus groups were conducted as a form of qualitative research method. Focus group study is used in a social study to listen and gather information (Kruger & Casey, 2009). Kruger and Casey (page 2) wrote that focus group is a way to better understand how people feel or think about an issue, topic or service. This way, opinions of people are gathered. Focus groups usually consist of 5-10 people who have similar or very close thought about the research topic. A skilled interviewer leads the discussion, relaxes participants to share their ideas and perceptions about the research topic.

The author individually interviewed the students using the semi structured interview guide created for a focus group research method. The guide was created by using the first interview data and the literature related the research about social network. The data was collected from sophomore years of college students who were the students at the department of elementary mathematics. For our study, 10 focus groups were conducted: four groups which believed that using SNS in higher education has positive effects on learners, five groups which believed that using SNS in higher education has negative effects on learners and one group which believed that using SNS in higher education has both negative and positive effects. The students filled out the perception of social network survey and based on the survey results, the groups were created. One faculty who had several experiences about conducting interviews leaded the interviews as an expert. When the views of the groups started to replicate, the interviews were ended. The focus group Interview was performed on only one group who believed that SNS has both negative and positive effects because it was not able to find more students with supporting both sides. Each group consisted of 5 to 13 people. Each focus group discussion was audio and video-recorded and transcribed. The audio and videos were transcribed by graduate students and they overviewed each other transcription. The transcriptions were analyzed using content analysis to create categories from the texts.

Data Analysis

The focus groups interview was transcribed, carefully examined and then coded (Boyatsiz, 1998; Patton, 2002) based on the categories and operational definitions shown in Table 2. The reliability of the data was analyzed via member checks, peer debriefing and inter-rater reliability (Boyatsiz, 1998; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Member checks

Member checks can be defined as a process in which the transcribed data obtained from the participants are shared with the participants and are revised based on the comments of the participants (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). According to Creswell (2007), the participants play a major role to examine rough drafts of the transcription of the interviews and provide their opinions whether the transcribed data reflect the perceptions of participants. In this study, at least two students read each transcribed data and gave their opinions as written whether the transcribed data reflected their views and opinions. Furthermore, the researcher took the views of the participants about coding categories to see their views and what was missing.

Peer Review

It provides the view of someone from outside the study with knowledge about research process (Creswell, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). A peer can help uncover taken for biases, perspectives and assumptions on the researcher's part. A peer, usually chosen outside the study but has knowledge about research methods and process, keeps the researcher honest by asking question about methods, meanings of unclear part of study and interpretations (Creswell, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In the study, a faculty member from Department of Educational Sciences acted as a peer. The peer works in instruction and curriculum programs and has knowledge of the scientific research methods. The researcher and peer examined the research questions, checked the transcribed data and discussed the coding categories together.

Inter-Rater Reliability

Inter-rater reliability requires at least two coders to apply the code or theme to the subsample from the sample. It determines the degree of consistency of judgments of the coders (Boyatzis, 1998). The coders should have extensive knowledge about both research subject and research methods. The study was coded by the

researcher and two more coders who were academicians in Science of Education. In this study, the researcher created the codes by examining the transcribed data. The researcher and the two coders separately examined the transcriptions of the interviews, categorized the data through coding. During this process, the coders also tested the codes whether they covered the transcription of the interviews. These codes, the categories and the expressions of the researcher and the coders were compared crosswise. There was only one disagreement between the coders that was solved by discussion and added one extra code into the coding categories. All codes are shown in Table 2 below. An inter-rater reliability of 94% was calculated.

In this study, the interview data were collected from the two groups which are proponents and opponents of using social network sites in education purpose. Therefore, the codes were divided into two categories which are positive beliefs and negative beliefs. Also, the codes under the negative beliefs were categorized into two subgroups as *effect directly to the user* and *effect indirectly to the user.* The codes in the former subgroup define the action that have direct impact on student behavior in terms of education. The codes in the latter subgroup define the action that do not have direct impact on student behavior, but as a result, student' education will be affected.

Table 2: Operational definitions for coding categories

1. Negative beliefs (Harms to the user)	
a. Effect directly to the user	
Waste of time	Individuals spend all their spare time entering the social network by connecting through cell phone or computer. At the beginning while entering the social network, they have intention to spend for five to ten minutes but, unfortunately, it takes one - two or more hours.
Asocial	Individuals, instead of coming together to talk face-to-face in the natural environment, prefer chatting or texting via the social networks.
Remain under the influence of the thoughts of others	The ideas of Individuals or groups are not formed in freedom. They remain under the influence of the thoughts of others. The thought, style, political view of the group become the belonging to that group members' thought, style and political view. Individual's thoughts are directed by the group.
Distraction	Notifications or messages distraction are arrived through social networks during the course.
Disturbing	Opposite sex sends messages and makes unpleasant comments on him/her.
Privacy	Individuals or groups easily share and write its own proprietary information, images, and thoughts on the social network environment. Shared these information, images and thoughts are used by others without authorization.
b. Effect indirectly to the user	
Pleasure	Individuals, in general, share and do things that they enjoy and like doing on social network such as playing games, watching movies or similar activities.
Gossip	The most of the information shared on social network is useless, not related to education. Individuals use a social network to chat or talk with each other.
Beneficial and harmful information together	Both the materials that can be used for educational purposes and the materials that can prevent education stay together in the same environment.
Addiction	Individuals consistently want to login a social network. At any time they want to enter a social network and use for entertainment and communication purposes.
Obligatory	Individuals who do not have a social network account and not want to use a social network will have to use it.
Unreliable	Individuals behave frivolous and artificial in a social network environment. The things they write or share would not be credible.
Writing mistakes	The language used in correspondence on a social network is inaccurate and incomplete. The sentences are shortened and created using inappropriate words. The words in sentences are created with consonants

	without the use of vowels.
Fake character	Individual acts like a person who wants to be in a social network. One who is quiet and introvert in daily life can behave as very active and social person through social network.
Digital division	The lack of technological infrastructure restricts people to enter social networks.
Plagiarism	Copy and replicate the idea or thing that does not belong you and share it as if it belongs you.
Misunderstanding of the idea by the opponent	Ones cannot express their opinion to the other side and the other side misunderstand of ones through social network during the discussion.
No respect to teacher	The relationship between a student and a teacher in social network become unofficial. The students do not show respect for the teachers and behave the teachers as if a classmate.

2. Positive beliefs (Benefits to the user)

Announcements	The dates, changes and important things related to the course are announced and introduced. The group members, who keep open the social network account, are immediately informed as well as they can inform the other group members.
Communications	Individuals and groups meet through social networks and they discuss, share and exchange ideas among themselves via social network. They can know each other better by looking at the shares.
Discussion	Individuals and groups can freely talk with each other, discuss on particular subject or question via a social network that provides an effective learning environment. Social networks can be used as a forum to share their questions, provide aid to each other problem.
Motivation	Student presentations recorded on a video and shared via a social network motivate the student.
Resources	Course materials, exam questions, and other materials related to the course are shared within the group through a social network. Additional sources can be found from other groups sharing through social networks.
Allowing to restudy	Individuals have opportunity to reread and review the course materials shared via social network.
Self-evaluation	A course material prepared by a student and presented during the course are shared through a social network. The student and the classmates can evaluate it through a social network.
Easy to reach	Individuals can connect to social networks using various communication devices to follow the course materials.

Finding

Social network site has some positive aspects in terms of education. Nevertheless, it has some negative aspects. In the conducted study, the negative aspects, which have been found from the analysis of the interviews, can be divided into the two groups. The first one, when social network site is used as a learning environment, it directly harms a user in terms of education. The second one, social network site does not directly harm a user, but, at the end the user is affected negatively in terms of education.

I believe that these negative effects of social network site in terms of education can be eliminated or lightened using various educational approaches. Cooperative learning approach is one of them. At first, cooperative learning is going to be described and some critical features is going to be summarized. At second, it is going to be described how cooperative learning approach eliminates or lightens negative effects of social network in education.

Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning is an approach to organizing classroom activities into academic and social learning experiences (Slavin, 1990; Kagan, 1990). In cooperative learning, students work in small groups to complete

common tasks collectively toward academic goals (Ormrod, 2004). Depending on duration and task, a size of the groups change in cooperative learning. For example, in the school programs, it lasts one or entire semester, or school year. Cooperative learning focuses on group members' resources and skills. The group members can explain assignments for one another, aid one another with class notes, evaluate one another's ideas, and track one another's work. Moreover, the teacher's role changes from teaching to facilitating students (Johnson & Johnson, 1994). In order to be successful in cooperative learning, teachers must design course activities in such a way that cooperation help to achieve group goals in task work. According to Omrod (2004), some critical features of the cooperative learning can be summarized as:

- Groups are typically comprised of two to six members, relatively heterogeneous in makeup (include male and female, high and low achievers, various ethnic backgrounds)
- Groups have one or more common goals to achieve successfully. At the beginning of the cooperative group activity, the goals should be clearly defined by the teacher.
- Group members should be acknowledged how to behave in cooperative learning so that they achieve their goals successfully together.
- Teachers monitor interaction of each groups and guide them to become productive and social. Teachers also serve them primary resources related to course.
- Group members are rewarded for the group success; therefore, one helps another understand the material being studied

Integrating Cooperative Learning in Social Network Site

Instructor divides the class into heterogeneous groups which are comprised of five or six students. Each group includes male and female students, different ethnic group, students with different learning levels. This provides that hard-working students will help week students in the group. The instructor provides the expository information related to cooperative learning. It is stated that each student is responsible for his/her own group and the grade of group will affect each student in the group. Afterwards, each group creates its own social network group and the teacher is added as a guest user. Thus, the teacher can monitor the movements of students on the social network but cannot intervene. The teacher, also, adds the course materials and activities on the social network. The students learn the course materials more permanent with the help of group members and their interaction. At the end of each chapter, section assessment to evaluate the group and group members is done. The effect of cooperative learning model on negative characteristic of social network in terms of education is as follows.

Table 3: Eliminating negative effects of social network in education using cooperative learning model

1. Positive effects on negative beliefs	
a. Effect directly to the user	
Waste of time	Cooperative learning is required group working. Each individual is responsible for the group members since it is group working that will refer individuals in the group to using the social network for educational purposes. Therefore, the individuals are going to spend most of pursuit for the course on social networks. Members of the group stimulate one to another to motivate to study when they login a social network site.
Asocial	Asocial drawback of social network will continue since course will be .processed via social network.
Remain under the influence of the thoughts of others	Group members motivate each other to study the course materials so that they more like login social network site to study instead of spending time with other groups.
Distraction	Although distraction on social network cannot be avoided, the group members can prevent dispersion of motivation to stay on the line for study.
Disturbing	Although disturbing on social network cannot be avoided, the group members can prevent dispersion of motivation to stay on the

	line for study. None bother each other within group since each group is comprised of 5 or 6 people who are well-known each other.
Privacy	Privacy issue can simply be avoided by informing individuals how it may affect their life. If individuals know that sharing personal information on social network may cause what kinds of problems, they will not share it on there.
b. Effect indirectly to the user	
Pleasure	Group members are responsible for each other that will interfere with each member to spend a lot of time for entertainment.
Gossip	Group members are responsible for each other that will interfere with each member to spend a lot of time. Environment for gossip does not occur because the groups are small.
Beneficial and harmful information together	It is not possible to prevent harmful information on social networks. However, group members interfere with each other to engage in extra-curricular things on social network sites.
Addiction	Addiction to social networks is one of the biggest problem but if students login a site to study, it is not a problem.
Obligatory	It will be obligatory but students create an account for social network to study the course materials created for cooperative learning. If it is only used for the desired direction, cooperative learning, the necessity will be for a good way.
Unreliable	It is a small possibility of individuals to misinform each other because the group members will only be dealing with the group members and be responsible for each other.
Writing mistakes	Individuals use the proper language on the sites due to be graded from activities done on the social network site.
Fake character	It is a small possibility of individuals to introduce themselves in the wrong way or the way they would like to be known because the group members will be dealing with the individuals from the group they belong.
Digital division	Digital division is always a challenge for web-based training. Individuals who are agree to take course through social network sites must admit to have a computer and internet connection for this course.
Plagiarism	While individuals is going to be graded as a group, the group members will control each other and not let them break the regulation of the school rules.
Misunderstanding of the idea by the opponent	Each group is comprised of a small number of people so it will be easy to understand each other. They also can make video or voice calls with each other through social network to clear up misunderstandings.
No respect to teacher	The relationship between teachers and students do not change because the teacher does not deal with the students on the social networks

Conclusion

Today, social network sites affects young individuals in a negative way. Many of young people spend their valuable times in social networks instead of socializing with people who live around of them or learning a new information. It is possible that using right learning model these people can be leaded to use their valuable time to study in a new subject and learn something new. For that reason, cooperative learning model can be integrated in social network sites to eliminate the negative features of social network mentioned in Table 2. In a future study, it is possible that one of courses is designed for cooperative learning model and the course activities are modified in an appropriate way. The course will be taught using the materials designed for cooperative learning model via social network sites. The results of this future study may give us positive and negative aspects of using cooperative learning model in social network.

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Appendix A. Social Network Survey
Directions
The purpose of this survey is to gather information on students' use of social network and to understand students' perceptions of using social network as an instructional tool. Fill out the gaps and select an answer.

This survey has only nine items and should take you longer than 5 minutes to complete. Please feel secure, any information from the survey will not be shared anyone or any institution.
Thank you for completing this survey!

1. Name and surname: _____
2. Which department are you studying? _____
3. What grade are you going?

⚪ freshman,   ⚪ sophomores,   ⚪ juniors,   ⚪ seniors

4. **How old are you?**

⚪ 18,   ⚪ 19,   ⚪ 20,   ⚪ 21,   ⚪ 22,   ⚪ 23 and above

5. **Are you?**   ⚪ Male   ⚪ Female
6. **Do you have social network account?** ⚪ Yes   ⚪ No (Answer only the question 9)
7. **On average, how many times each day do you check your social network account?**

⚪ Less than once a day   ⚪ 1-5 times a day   ⚪ 6-10 times a day

⚪ 11-15 times a day   ⚪ 16-20 times a day   ⚪ More than 20 times a day

8. **For what purposes do you check your account? (You may choose more than one answer.)**

⚪ Keep in touch with friends   ⚪Let others know what is happening in my life

⚪ Communicate with my students on class projects or assignment

⚪ Connect with people I have lost touch with   ⚪ Do career networking

Other (please specify) _____

9. **What are you feeling about using Social Network as an instructional tool? (You may choose more than one answer.)**

⚪ It would be convenient. 49

⚪ I would welcome the opportunity to connect with students on Social Network.50

⚪ Social Network is personal/social - not for education!41

⚪ My privacy would be invaded13

⚪ I don't care 4

Other (please specify) _____

Symposium 1

CRITIQUE AND REFLECTION OF DIGITAL
TECHNOLOGY IN EDUCATION

Whose clouds: The digital curriculum transformation in Taiwan higher education

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Abstract

For the past decade, enormous investment and competitive mechanism were applied in Taiwan higher education, searching for excellence. Facing the globalization trend, digital curriculum and environment construction are no exception. As Apple (2005) put it:" contentious issues surrounding whose knowledge should be taught, who should control school policy and practice, and how schools should be financed are left to the market to decide." By taking a closer look at the digital curriculum transformation in Taiwan higher education, we may gain a deeper awareness about whether technology can really enrich teaching and learning. In this article, I briefly describe the past technological progress in Taiwan higher education. Focusing on its critical policies and practices, especially the so-called "Top Universities Project" (TUP) and "Teaching Excellence Project" (TEP), I try to analyze those digital curriculum development enacted in some advanced universities. What Meyer (2009) argued is that we need to "reconceptualize the ways in which we seek to measure and understand e-Research by developing a sociology of knowledge based on our understanding of how science has been transformed historically and shifted into online forms." In the same vein, relying on the "cloud" concept, which is highly promoted in Taiwan, I intend to elaborate what kind of value system is embedded in such progress, how teaching and learning may be influenced, and why these investment and practices may not be necessarily beneficial in the long term.

Keywords: digital curriculum, higher education, Taiwan

Background

For the past decade, enormous investment and competitive mechanism were applied in Taiwan higher education, searching for excellence. Facing the globalization trend, digital curriculum and environment construction are no exception. As Cuban (1996) described "techno-reformers, mostly public officials, corporate leaders, and other non-educators far removed from classrooms, deeply believe in the power of technology to transform schools into productive workplaces."

In the same time, cloud computing has attracted a great deal of attention from industry and academia in recent years. It has quickly evolved into a successful business model that allows easy resource and cost sharing among multiple companies and communities. (Huang & Yonggao, 2013:19) The trend in higher education today, mobility, is driven by the advanced capabilities and wide availability of mobile devices, from smart phones to tablet computers. (Benson & Stephanie, 2013:1)

According to Taiwan's FIND (Foreseeing Innovative New Digiservices) report, until Sep 2012, the frequent internet users in Taiwan have reached 11 millions, 48% of total population. (FIND, 2012). For the smart phone or tablet users, it is estimated for 10.53 millions people. (Institute for Information Industry, 2013) For higher education professionals, mobile learning is a way of extending the campus and offering students the opportunity to learn in whatever situation or context they prefer. What is unclear is to what extent they can and will learn in this increasingly informal and opportunistic mode. (Benson & Stephanie, 2013:2)

It is true that most policy makers, corporate executives, practitioners, and parents assume that wiring schools, buying hardware and software, and distributing the equipment throughout will lead to abundant classroom use by teachers and students and improved teaching. Incremental changes in teaching style occurred as a consequence of enhanced accessibility to new technologies. Ironically, in Cuban's study (2001:825), few fundamental changes in the dominant mode of teacher-centered instruction have occurred. Most teachers adapt technology to fit the familiar practices of teacher-centered instruction.

In this article, I briefly describe the past technological progress in Taiwan higher education. I try to analyze those digital curriculum development enacted in some advanced universities. Relying on the "cloud" concept, which is highly promoted in Taiwan, I intend to elaborate what kind of value system is embedded in such progress, how teaching and learning may be influenced, and why these investment and practices may not be necessarily beneficial in the long term.

Cloud computing and education

The cloud computing, in some way, is an advanced e-research embodiment, and e-research can be seen as a set of socio-technical relationships that are configured around networked projects and programs with different capabilities for online knowledge production (Meyer & Schroeder, 2009:247). Sultan (2013:810) defines cloud computing as a model of delivering a range of IT services remotely through the internet and/or a networked IT environment. When it emerged in 2007 it attracted a great deal of attention from many quarters (e.g., authors, consultants, technology analysts, companies). The cloud metaphor does not refer to 'cloud computing' initiatives, but rather to the amorphous nature of storage and access to these resources. In sum, 5 features of cloud can be achieved: on demand self-service, broad network access, resource pooling, rapid elasticity, and measured service, especially the Pay As You Go, PAYG (Hsieh, 2012) The searching engine is a typical example for cloud computing. We may enter the keywords on Yahoo website, and then those widespread Yahoo servers around the world will operate, compute simultaneously, so users can receive the tremendous results in short time. (Chou & Liu, 2012)

The structure of the cloud of online knowledge is also undergoing regular shaping and modification. Three forces influence its shape: the technological infrastructures that are in place to support the online knowledge network, the structures supporting online publication (and the corresponding limitations including access restrictions and intellectual property control mechanisms), and the design and use of search tools. (Meyer & Schroeder, 2009:247-248) For example, the infrastructure at PVAMU (Prairie View A&M University, US) allows researchers to store their massive image/video data, facilitate the image processing algorithm research by improving development productivity and performance, and more importantly, allows faculty and students in different groups/institutions to share research results and enable deeper collaborations. (Huang & Yonggao, 2013:24) Besides, cloud services may include online evaluation system, school term record system, teaching assistance system, e-portfolio, online discussion community, professional development service, school asset service, bulletin service, and fund raising service. (Chou & Liu, 2012)

However, education literature mainly reports collaborative teaching, learning and research, but little on collaboration for other reasons.(James, 2013) Less than 10% of Internet users exhibit creativity, the remaining 90% consuming or, in some cases, synthesizing, but not creating or innovating (Wang & Tadisina, 2007). In most online communities, 1% of users contribute 90% of the content: 90% of users never contribute. For the Wikipedia's "about" page, it has only 85 000 active contributors (0.14% of its 65 million monthly visitors).(James,2013)

For mobile learning, several factors should be considered: (Benson & Stephanie, 2013:3)

1. The ability of a specific wireless device to display the variety of learning materials that may be included in the course content.
2. Instructors have control over which course content is available through the mobile app. Therefore options set so that only limited content is available to students should be carefully thought through by academic staff.
3. Pedagogical reasons should drive the mobile learning platform development, rather than pure enthusiasm of a new gadget from technology-centric instructors.
4. Students should have a clear understanding as to what materials are available through the mobile medium and why others are accessible only online, and how the mobile app can help improve their learning and their student experience on and off campus.

On the one hand, some most popular Web 2.0 tools among professionals can be identified: Google Docs, SlideShare, Flickr, YouTube, Google Maps/Google Earth, Twitter, Wordpress, Google Docs/MediaWiki, iTunes, Google Talk/MSN Messenger, SecondLife, EndNote, Delicious, Facebook, iGoogle, Outlook Calendar, RSS/Atom, OpenID, Skype, Diigo, and Grid. (James, 2013). Hunter (2009) reports, on the other hand, that the e-collaboration by Australian universities 2.0 tools diverges from the student profile; since by 2008, student Web 2.0 usage patterns were exhibiting only gradual change.(James, 2013)

Undoubtedly, cloud computing has forged ahead and managed to establish itself as an IT service model that can deliver both savings and value to its users. In Sultan's eyes (2013:814), the model has many of the features of a disruptive innovation. If we treat democracy as empowering the weak by providing equal access to resources, then cloud computing should be emerged as a democratizing force.

Digital curriculum and searching for competitiveness

Taiwan government implemented a higher education e-learning program, mainly distance education, in 1996. The Ministry of Education began the digital learning certifying mechanism, following by the certification centers and learning certification committees. Until 2007, there are 43 certified curricular. For the first 10 years, the major tasks are about curriculum implementation, quality certification, personnel training, effect review, standard and platform establishment, and the exemplary programs and exchange (Yang, 2008:2-7)

Much funding and efforts were invested in promoting the digital curriculum for Taiwan higher education. But we should pay attention to what the teaching and learning realities demonstrate and imply. For the higher education teaching research, Wu's study (2009:81) shows that, though, digital learning is very popular in Taiwan, however, student learning is often ignored. Hsu & Yang (2006) generously provide nine development strategies for digital learning policy in Taiwan, they indeed are comprehensive, but the little feasibilities make their future crumbling. In Lin's study (2011), during the decade 2001-2010, there are 2071 dissertations and theses related to e-learning. The most used methods for quantitative research is survey. Most of the topics are about system design, subject matter design, student learning models and experiment effect, but less about teachers and teaching interaction. This information echo some people's long-held reservation regarding what IT can exactly bring for educators, parents, and students.

Similar struggles and dispute never end. The market-driven technological inventions won't end either. In 2010, Google built partnership with National Taiwan University and National Chiao Tung University for the Cloud Computing Academic Initiate (Chou & Liu, 2012). Both Taiwan Association of Cloud Computing and the Cloud Computing Association in Taiwan (CCAT), focusing on infrastructure, platform and software, were also established in 2010. The CCAT here worthy our notice. Most of the major cable broadband and computer industries in Taiwan join CCAT. These industries include HTC, Inventec, Foxconn, Quanta, Wistron, Vibo, Chunghwa Telecom, Elta, Delta, Fetnet, Intel, HP, Microsoft, and IBM. (CCAT, 2010).

The Ministry of Education of Taiwan (2013) stated that "under global competitions, knowledge and innovation become the key factors for advancing national competitive, it is imperative to provide competitive funding for those research-oriented universities." The commonly called Top University Project (TUP) [1]was launched during 1996-2010 (phase I) and 2011-2016 (phase II) respectively, with the amount of 1.7 billion each. By taking a closer look into the TUP, we may have a glimpse about how IT plays its role. While each high-ranking university emphasizes paper publishing in distinguished international journals and appreciation of faculties' achievements, the IT receives unproportional weight.

Among the TUP approved 12 universities, IT-related projects are listed below: (Ministry of Education, 2013).

1. National Taiwan University: cooperation with Academia Sinica, Austin Lab of IBM, and Power System regarding the intelligent computing.
2. National Tsing Hua University: recognition of Prof. Lin, S.H.'s 2013 Course Awards for Excellence in Open Courseware; inauguration of first TEDxNTHU
3. National Central University: partnership with ADLINK Technology Inc. regarding cloud computing; promotion of NCUx online pre-program-similar to MOOCS and focus on high school calculus.
4. National Taiwan Normal University: partnership with Autodesk about cultivating 3D designers.
5. National Taiwan University of Science and Technology: partnership with ASUS for the somatosensory equipment.

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[1] The complete project title is "Developing International First-class Universities and Top Research Centers Project (DIURP)".

Discussions

Cuban rightly points out (1996) that buying machines was an administrative decision; but using them has always been a teacher decision. If we intend to redefine the technological gap between schools and society as a political-power issue—that is, recognize what it means to have techno-reformers, frame the problem and use nonclassroom criteria to determine efficiency—and as a structural problem—that is, that teachers are faced with a need to achieve conflicting goals within age-graded schools—then new solutions would become available. To view the problem of technology implementation with this kind of understanding would result in very different advice from what reformers offer teachers now, such as getting better machines, availing themselves of more technical assistance, and investing in large doses of teacher training. Such sensible "solutions" miss the deeper problems rooted in the system of schooling that historically has limited teacher use of certain technologies. Thus, as long as techno-reformers see teachers as the main problem, the struggle over moving the latest technologies into classrooms will continue.

Access to equipment and software seldom led to widespread teachers and student use. Most teachers were occasional users or nonusers. When they used computers for classroom work, more often than not their use sustained rather than altered existing patterns of teaching practice. (Cuban, 2001)

According to Intel, there are top six reasons to go cloud: (Intel, 2010)

1. Provides a flexible, scalable, cost effective model that does not tie schools to out-of-date infrastructure or application investments
2. Offers the flexibility to meet rapidly changing software requirements for today's and tomorrow's teachers and students
3. Allows software standardization, a shared pool of applications for use school or district-wide, and easier maintenance through centralized licensing and updates
4. Enables rapid development and deployment of complex solutions without the need for in-house expertise
5. Can eliminate the upfront financial burden of deploying new technologies through a pay-as-you-go model
6. Supports multiple client platforms both inside and outside the school infrastructure

These cloud advantages, rhetoric, and assumptions persuade school managers and policy makers for their promising future, including cost reduction, platform establishment and new services. Still, teachers keep asking: Is the machine simple enough for me to learn quickly? Can it be used in more than one situation? Is it reliable or does it break down often? If is breaks down, do I have fix it or will someone else repair it? How much time and energy do I have to invest in learning to use the machine vs. the return it will have for my students? When students use the machine, will there be disruption? Will it maintain or compromise my authority to maintain order and cultivate learning? (Cuban, 1996)

Research questions of mobile learning should focus on actual student experience and which forms of mobile activity, in which contexts, generate deep learning and student engagement. (Benson & Stephanie, 2013:5) For cloud computing, major concerns are privacy and security. The possible disadvantages include diminishing the diversity of school-based information, interfering or monopolizing from the industries. (Chou & Liu, 2012) Chang (2012) stresses that when using MIT Open Courseware, we should consider its lack of curriculum integrity, flexibility for instructional adaptation, cultivate interpersonal skills or hands-on learning experience, how to meet various learning styles, and curriculum adaptation is necessary while teachers using for reference of curriculum design.

For the foreseeable years, New Media Consortium (NMC) presents key trends, such as openness becomes a value, MOOCS are widely explored, skills often acquired from informal learning experience, using new sources for personalized learning, role of educators continues to change, and paradigms shifted to include online, hybrid, and collaborative learning. These trends, though, face challenges as well: digital media literacy for faculty training; new scholarly forms of authoring, publishing, and researching; education limit broader uptake of new technologies; personalized learning not supported, unprecedented competition for traditional higher education; and most academics not using technologies for learning and teaching. (NMC, 2013:7-10)

Meyer & Schroeder (2009:259) argue that any sociology of online knowledge must recognize that research technologies are increasingly organized across institutional and disciplinary boundaries. Admittedly, education is a site of struggle and compromise. It serves as a proxy as well for larger battles over what our institutions should do, who they should serve, and who should make these decisions. (Apple, 2005:272) As reviewing the transformation of digital curriculum of higher education in Taiwan, I'm wondering whether the cloud concepts and practices may actually benefit college teachers and students, since when, and for how long. Can tremendous investment and infrastructure

bring the expected outcome through new modes of learning? Suppose most people recognize the unavoidable IT trends and challenges, then, why the self-evident changes happen so slowly?

Conclusion

As I mentioned earlier some questions may not have clear answers or quick solutions. Digital learning implications for practice can be achieved: (James, 2013)

- To prepare our graduates to work in the global labor markets, our educational systems need to be reoriented to encourage creation, collaboration, contribution and participation rather than competition.

- Guidelines for engaging with Web 2.0 technologies appropriately in a learning or employment context to encourage e-collaboration need to be developed.

- Many aspects of ICT use for e-collaboration need urgent research attention.

The original intentions for cloud computing are creation and sharing. The service and benefit of it should belong to users, through power of government and civic society, rather than the market. (Chou & Liu, 2012) Another important concern is how academics will be able to model best practice for their students. (James, 2013) We should continue to ask, no matter how technologies transform or shift, whose clouds are they ? On behalf of whose benefit? What value systems are/not preferred? And whether they are beneficial for real learning and teaching?

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How the Digital Technology Shapes School Curriculum – Analysis of Taiwan's E-school Programs

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Abstract

In Taiwan, due to the advocacy of government and business institutions, digital technologies (DT) become a symbol of educational innovation, also a means to correspond to education accountability. DT is changing our learning environments, subject-matter, teacher and student which are the four commonplaces of curriculum. When schools were under the pressure of teaching Innovation and accountability, how did digital technology shape our school curriculum? To enquire the phenomenon, the researcher collected five elementary school curriculum programs (focus on reading and writing) under the "E-schools Projects 2012" supported by Taiwan's Ministry of Education, and analyzed the usage of digital technology and its impact on curriculum.

The main findings are: (1) Teachers and students pay much attention to manipulate technologies, so as to overlook the main purpose of the curriculum. (2) Behaviourism still dominates most school curriculum, so that DT is often used as information storage or channels to deliver information, but not intellectual partners. (3) Technologies are overemphasized, so that human's perception, feelings and life experiences are neglected. However, some educators have tried to find the equilibrium point between technologies and curriculum.

Keywords: Instructional technology, curriculum innovation, accountability

1. Introduction

As the policy slogan "technological Island" emerges, the digital literacy becomes one of key competencies of Taiwan's students. The educational authorities invested a large amount of funds to equip schools with information technology facilities, and offered grants to encourage teachers to utilize computer tools and applications to change the traditional instruction. Some international companies (such as Intel, Microsoft) and local business institutions also sponsored schools to build the "future classroom". "The use of digital technology" becomes a new criterion to assess the degree of curriculum innovation and teaching effectiveness. Thus, DT is taken as a means to correspond to education accountability. In this wave, DT becomes a fashion in education, and instructional technologies become a symbol of innovation. Nowadays, in Taiwan, approximately 90% of elementary school classrooms have DT equipments. Even the schools in the remote area are equipped with new computer applications. Lots of teachers usually use Internet or electronic teaching materials in classrooms.

Some researchers reported that DT enhanced teaching efficiency, and facilitated students' competence of self-regulated and cooperative learning; some suspected the contribution of computers to the learning of attitude and affection; some criticized that technology deprived students of the opportunities to touch real things. It is indeed a long debate about the benefit of instructional technologies. However, the supporters of DT temporarily won the debate in Taiwan. I agree with Selwyn (2012) that people's enthusiasms for DT are driven by two interrelated beliefs. The first one is a general dissatisfaction with current types of schooling. Secondly, they believe technology provides a better way of doing education.

The supporters of technology are convinced of the capacity of DT to bring about quality change in the world of education in terms of opening the possibilities for improved presentation and delivery of programs. Moreover, information and communications technology (ICT) in learning environment can increase students' active engagement in thinking and problem solving, promote understanding and mastery learning, and ultimately more empowering for the individual learner (Yu et al., 2010). Roblyer (2003) summarized three functions that ICT can do to learning: (1) to evoke and maintain the learning motivation, (2) to Create the unique environments to support teaching and learning,

such as connecting students, resources and peers, and (3) to enhance teacher's efficacy, such as managing assessment records and learning processes. U.S. Department of Education (2009) also proposed that there is growing evidences that learning benefits from the use of DT.

In the digital age, it is inevitable that technologies enter classrooms and influence the curriculum. Curriculum is constituted of four commonplaces: teacher, student, milieu, and subject-matter. The interactions among the four commonplaces constitute an organic "ecosystem" (Schwab, 1973). The change of any factor will influence the curriculum system. When technologies involve in curriculum, the form of milieu and subject-matter changes, and as a result, the interaction between student and teacher is different from the one in traditional classrooms. However, when schools are under the pressure of teaching Innovation and accountability, how did DT shape our school curriculum? Did technologies aid create a more democratic learning environment in which teacher and students became learning partners, or technologies control curriculum in which teacher and students follow the ways prescribed by DT? Are students really the master in learning situations? To enquire the phenomenon, the researcher collected five school curriculum programs under the "E-schools Projects 2012" supported by Taiwan's Ministry of Education, and analysed the usage of DT and its impact on the curriculum.

2. Theoretical Framework

In order to analyze how DT was used in the selected programs, and how it influenced the curriculum, in this section, I would like to review the literature about the role of DT in teaching and the rationales of DT used in teaching.

2.1. Role of Digital Technology in Teaching

Despite the popular use of DT in education, the usages of DT are various. Selwyn (2012) indicated that DT may be used to represent, reconstitute or replace the structure and process of schooling. The first form seldom changes school curriculum, but represent pedagogical content by technologies, such as online courses alongside their classroom lessons. The second form is referred to as a digitally driven "reschooling", such as the tech-based practices of collaboration and inquiry within the classroom. The third form is referred to as a digitally driven "deschooling", such as the online institution which provide an alternative to school curriculum, assessment and qualifications. In Taiwan, the most popular ways to use DT in education include managing learning resources or assessment records, presenting materials or information, and creating online learning communities. These ways belong to the former two forms. Generally, DT is expected to reconstitute the process of schooling, especially instructional methods, but not replace schooling.

In the case of technology-based instruction, various aspects of content, pedagogy, and assessment are used via computer tools and applications, digital media, and virtual environments. How are technologies utilized? Hsu (2005) analyzed the Taiwan's school programs of integrating DT into teaching, and found that these efforts take four main forms:

(1) Technologies were taken as teaching resources, such as website, electronic teaching materials.
(2) Technologies were used as an instrument to present pedagogical content within classrooms.
(3) Technologies were seen as a communication channel to deliver or exchange information.
(4) Technologies were used as mind tools to enhance the high-level thinking skills.

In the former three approaches, DT is like a traditional teacher who owns rich resources, and delivers knowledge to students. In contrast with those, the last approach takes technologies as "intellectual partners" (Jonassen et al., 2003). If we expect DT to widen the range of instructional designs to fulfill the vision of flexible and creative learning, DT should play the role of intellectual partner.

2.2. Usages of DT under Different Rationales

As new age of instruments, will DT help teachers and students construct their curriculum, or dominate the curriculum? In fact, the impact of DT depends on a teacher's belief or philosophy about teaching and learning which technologies are based on. In general, there are three competing schools of thought on how people learn: behaviourism, cognitivism, and constructivism (Dede, 2008):

(1) The behaviourists emphasize factual knowledge and recipe-like procedures: material with a few correct ways of accomplishing tasks. Therefore, instructional technology is utilized to deliver information, and train students on the appropriate and skills.

(2) The cognitivists assume that knowledge acquisition is a mental activity that also entails internal coding and structuring by the student. The main task of instructors is to organize and sequence knowledge and facilitate optimal mental processing. For the task, computer applications provide three important cognitive processes: (a) selecting verbal and visual information, (b) organizing facts, skills and ideas via conceptual frameworks, and (c) integrating corresponding events in the verbally or visually based model.

(3) Constructivist theories assume that people construct new understandings based on their prior experiences and interactions with others. Instruction can foster learning by offering rich, loosely structured guidance that encourage meaning-making without imposing a fixed set of knowledge. Based on the theory, the best usage of instructional technology is taking the computer applications as learners' mind tools evoke learners' high level thinking (Jonasson, 1999).

In contemporary research, most researchers support the cognitivist and constructivist approach. For instance, Jonassen et al.(2003) encouraged teachers to consider how to engage students in active, constructive, intentional, authentic and cooperative learning when using technologies in teaching. Yu et al.(2010) also emphasized that computer technologies could be used to strengthen learners' higher cognitive skills, and furthermore, provide them the required skills to solve real world problems through more interaction and cooperation among learners. The computer and applications, with its expanding capabilities, can effectively support meaningful learning and knowledge construction.

Even if the cognitivism and constructivism obtain the higher position, the other approaches function to achieve different purposes. Just as Dede (2008) indicated that no single best medium for learning, no single way of learning is universally optimal and any ICT embody that approach. The most important is how a teacher create the meaningful experiences for their students.

3. Analysis of Five Cases

The "E-school project" provides schools with funding to implement the "integrating DT into teaching" programs. In 2012, 20 schools were evaluated as excellent. In this paper, due to the limited time, I select five elementary schools programs which focus on reading and writing for analysis.

3.1. Overview of Five Programs

School A

Goal: to enhance reading and writing competence

Instruction process: teachers discuss reading strategies with students via smart board, have a quiz by IRS (instant responsive system) and then teacher revises the misconceptions→ Students take photos and interview with people in campus with iPAD→students exchange the collected materials and have online discussions about their topics of writing →everyone writes an article and upload to a community platform→ students review the works of group members and give responses via iPAD→ teacher gives revision opinions→ everyone revises his/her own article→each group recommend an article to share with the other groups

School B

Goal: to enhance reading skills

Instruction process: students read e-newspaper and e-storybook via PAD→ underline the points on PAD→ answer the questions on paper worksheets→write abstract on the PAD→read a new article, and cooperate with group members to finish a concept map by the software "mind map memo"

School C

Goal: to enhance writing skills

Instruction process: teachers explain mind-mapping methods via smart board→ students practice to draw concept maps by the software "x-mind"→ each group presents outcomes by pictures, ppt., or drama.

-Students explore the campus and take 5-10 photos→write several paragraphs to introduce the campus→ produce a film by video-cam→transform into QR-code

-Explore the community around the school→take some pictures and interview with residents→make a storybook by the software "photostory"→ transform the storybook into QR-code, and share with the other groups

School D

Goal: to enable students to understand Chinese calligraphy

Instruction process: students surf web to collect information about Chinese calligraphy→ observe a variety of Chinese writing brushes a calligrapher collects through MSN→invite a writing brush maker to demonstrate the manufacturing operation→students finish a report about Chinese writing brush with PC→every group makes a design drawing and produce a writing brush→ take photos of the procedure and upload to website → use the writing brush to write and draw a poster to introduce the school→record the process with the software "photostory3"

School E

Goal: to enable students to write and appreciate child poetry

Instruction process: teachers introduce some child poems via smart board→ invite students to read these poems, and perform the content→students surf web and find some poems → Teacher choose several poems offered by students, and invite students to perform the content→ teacher explain the format of child poem via smart board→students write poem individually→teacher transform students' works into e-book, and show them to students→ each group choose a poem and perform it→ all works upload to website to share with parents or peers

3.2. Results and Discussions

All of the programs claimed they cultivated active attitude, high-level thinking skills, and cooperative learning competence through DT. However, Except for school A, the others pay much attention to train reading "skills", such as underlining points of an article and draw concept maps. When teachers focus on mastery learning, smart board or PAD becomes a channel to deliver package knowledge, and the mind-mapping software becomes a drill tool. DT is no longer smart. The basic skills are necessary, but the skills can be learned through more flexible discussion and intensive interaction, like in program A. In addition, for writing instruction, it is more crucial to evoke students' thought and feelings rather than to pass on the knowledge of writing format. In the latter four programs, students were busy in collecting materials with PAD, camera or video-cam for writing, but paid little attention to perceive and discuss their meanings. It seems that main purpose of the curriculum is practicing to use technologies, but not reading or writing.

Another point is how DT is used in the programs? According to two dimensions, "the role of DT" and "rational of teaching", I found the usages of DT in the five programs were as Table 1.

Table 1 : Usage of DT in five programs

	DT used	role of DT	Rationale of teaching
A	Smart board, IRS	Present content Channel to exchange information	Cognitivism: reading strategies inquiry Constructivism: learning the writing skills through peers interaction and cooperation
	Website	Channel to exchange information	
	Community platform iPAD	Mind tools to enhance thinking	
B	e-book	As teaching resources	Behaviourism: practicing the mind-mapping skills
	PAD	Channel to exchange information	
	Mind-mapping software	As a document processing tool	
C	Smart board	Channel to deliver information	Behaviourism: practicing the mind-mapping skills
	video-cam, camera	Tools to collect data or materials	

	photostory & Mind-mapping software	Present content	Constructivism: inquire the campus and community through cooperative learning
	QR-code	Channel to exchange information	
D	Website	As teaching resources; Channel to exchange information	Behaviourism: receiving knowledge about Chinese writing brush
	MSN	Channel to deliver information	
	Camera photostory software	Tools to record	
E	Smart board	Channel to deliver information	Behaviourism: practicing to write a child poem according to format
	e-book	As teaching resources	
	website	As teaching resources; Channel to exchange information	

In every program, varieties of computer tools and applications were involved. I am really surprised that our teachers and students can use so many new devices and softwares. DT aid present and display the learning outcomes, so that students' achievements can be found easily. I think, when seeing the e-book, film or photos produced by students, people will be impressed at the achievements of E-schools. Indeed, the use of DT aids show educators' innovation spirit and thereby corresponds to the accountability. Nevertheless, behaviorism still dominates most classroom curriculum, so that DT is often used as information storage or channels to deliver information, but not intellectual partners.

As for the contribution of DT to instruction, in addition to making jobs easier, all the programs reported that DT motivated learners to engage in learning. ICT is naturally appealing due to vivid images and sound. Therefore, even if reading newspaper on PAD, students felt it interesting. The question is: Is the learners' motivation directed to manipulating DT or studying the course? It's a question worthy of inquiry.

4. Conclusions

In the computer-mediated curriculum, most schools emphasize technologies more than human. It seems that teachers use a technology in teaching because it's new and accessible. Teachers and students are busy experiencing the freshness and joy of technologies, so that technologies usually dominate the curriculum. When DT is overemphasized, students and teachers' real life experience may be overlooked, and "curriculum" becomes the prescribed track more than the meaningful experience constructed by teacher and students. However, some educators like those in school A have tried to find the equilibrium point between technologies and curriculum.

Technology is the best servant, but the worst master. I agree with Roblye(2003) that technology makes good teaching better, but not makes bad teaching become good. Teachers should seek back the subjectivity of human in curriculum, and then they know how to use DT more wisely.

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Between Boarders of Technology and Humanity – A Case Study of Taiwan Teachers' Local Curriculum Praxis

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Abstract

The purpose of this article is to explore a possibility of accountability between technology and humanity boarders for advancing curriculum praxis. First, the conflicting discourses on educational accountability from different standpoints of technology and humanity would be showed up. And second, the perspective of "between boarders" would be argued as an in-between space for beyond dualism. Third, practical possibility will be researched through two cases of teachers' local curriculum praxis. Finally, I conclude with life-long meanings making as the possibility to beyond the dualism of technology and humanity as well as an alternative accountability.

Keywords: educational technology; educational accountability; humanism; curriculum praxis.

Introduction

Reviewing the education history of America and Europe, educational accountability is not a new issue which was accomplished with the emerging ideas of science technical control and business management for seeking the efficiency and the most ROI. In fact, when nations met economic depression or lost competitions among countries once in a while, a lot of discourses emerged which argued the needs of education change with the slogan of "back to the basics" as well as educational policies of "accountability" had changed with the overall trend (e. g. "A Nation at Risk report", "Goal 2000", "No Child Left Behind"). However, the idea of "accountability" gives rise to several debates on the consideration of technology and humanity.

In the last several decades, the development of high-tech products has been out-dated tomorrow on the trend of the 3rd wave revolution. More and more government officials, policy-makers, parents groups, CEO, business men believed that the use of "educational technology" could advance the educational accountability. According to Cuban's (2003) findings, there are at least three goals for these people, as the advantages of technology-using basis on the "technological determinism": 1. Make schools more efficiency. 2. Transform teaching and learning becoming more the connection of real lives and more positive education process. 3. Provide children's preparations of career needs in the future. However, there were different discourses basis on the care of humanism emerging for questioning the problems of technical ration and ideology of hegemony. These questions include (Apple, 1986; Cuban, 2003, 2004): 1. Usages of educational technology might broaden the unfair of education and society through a model of "reproduction". 2. Many teaching practices of technology usually failed in more computing communication rather than the development of students' critical or creative thinking. 3. Indeed, computer technology might bring teachers a lot of pressures if they had less technology knowledge, passion, skills or didn't have enough time to apply in the classroom. 4. The budget overcapitalize to technology would edge out other needs of education facilities and personnel expenses of teaching hours.

The issue of educational technology involved knowledge/power dialectic relationships among political, social, economical, cultural dimensions as well as effected the distribution of recourses within the framework of educational accountability. In short, it is a combat of push and pull in democratic societies and connected to everyone's right and treatment so closely. Different from the dualism perspectives of educational accountability between the two discourses of "technology" and "humanity" paradigms, the purpose of this article is to research an alternative possibility to beyond boarders of technology and humanity for educational accountability rather than falling into the myth of dualism.

Re-conceptualized Accountability

Beyond Dangerous of "The Right"

According to Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary's definitions, "accountability" means the quality or state of being accountable; especially an obligation or willingness to accept responsibility or to account for one's actions. Wesley Null (2009) argued, the word accountability exploded onto the educational scene in the early 1980s following the publication of the National Commission on Excellence in Education's A Nation at Risk report. In fact, early in the twentieth century, the language of "efficiency" and "social efficiency" sometimes served this same role with "accountability". During the age of industrialization, efficiency and accountability became an end in and of itself rather than a means to a greater ideal for American education. Traditionally, the term "accountability" different from "responsibility" is meant to not only "do the thing right" but also "do the right thing". If we regard the "right" is the fixed truth, there is actually only one answer to accountability. In today's educational reform, the usage of educational technology had usually been considered equal to the raising of educational accountability, which dominated most consideration of policy-making.

However, as Michael Young (1998) argues, the growth of knowledge and the access to it have undoubtedly been paralleled by an increasing differentiation and specialization of knowledge which allows for some groups to legitimize 'their knowledge' as superior. Thomas Popkewitz (2000) also points out, "All knowledge is dangerous, although not all knowledge is bad." In fact, the language of accountability has been ubiquitous ever since (Null, 2009). Several critical discourses critiqued the problem of the abuse of educational technology for its loss of humanity. Borrowing from Michael Foucault's idea of "games of truth", "right" is not the only truth but emerges as multiple ones in a dynamic knowledge/power and subjectivity/truth dialectical relationships. The game of truth involves question of who is speaking the truth, how he speaks it, and why he speak it. Therefore, both technology and humanity as educational discourses could be both inclusion as "the right" rather than failing in exclusion of each other in this kind of process.

Boarders crossing within Taiwan Teachers' Local Curriculum Praxis

The new technology does not stand alone. It is linked to transformations in real groups of people's lives, jobs, hopes, and dreams (Apple, 1992). However, educators should make sure that when technology enters the classroom it is there for educational wise reasons rather than powerful groups may be redefining major educational goals in their own image. Young (1991) states, technology is difficult because it is hard to be precise about what we are talking about without falling into the artefacts narrowly as well as technology is important both on account of the enormous ideological power associated with technological expertise and on the account of way technologies pervade more and more parts of our lives.

Recently, there are more and more scholars discussing the use of educational technology with in teachers' local curriculum praxis as well as focusing the connection with live conditions for facilitating learning. Several ideas for integrating technology and humanity are offered, such as "grouded in in-depth empirical field studies for sense-making in context" (Heilesen& Jensen, 2006), "embodied learning with/in the online learning environment" (Freedman, Striedieck, and Shurin, 2007), "knowing or experiencing life through the body of film"(Weaver and Britt, 2007). And, there are also some arts-based researchers combine new technologies and artwork-making for research the meanings of their live, such as video, blogs, and Zines (Knowles & Cole, 2008). There are more and more evidences which support that "between boarders of technology and humanity" is possible. Similarly in Taiwan, with the Information Technology Competency included in G-9 Curriculum as important issue, it is also believed that IT could evoke educational accountability as the model of IT-integrated in teaching practice in school-based curriculum. Depended on the perspectives of between boarders, the research questions are as follows:

- Why does teachers' local curriculum praxis between boarders of technology and humanity emerge?
- How could teachers' local curriculum praxis between boarders of technology and humanity develop?
- What would be the meanings of teachers' local curriculum praxis between boarders of technology and humanity?

Method

The research adapted case study as method through Taiwan teachers' local curriculum praxis for understanding the possibility of between boarders of technology and humanity for educational accountability. Method of data-collection include semi-structural Interview, observation, and document analysis as well as contributed thick description from interview and document analysis with partners' and stockholders' agreement. The emerging analysis would be shared with our reporters for checking the trustworthiness. After pilot studies, this research selects two teacher communities as participants form Taiwan NSC-Projects I had engaged in since 2009 to 2013. The first case, Lucky Team, is located in urban district of New Taipei City surrounding around hills and rivers. There are 13 classes with average of 20-30 students in this small school. Most students have low social-economic-status family background. The disadvantaged of economic and cultural capital is the problem for pedagogy. The second case, View-sonic Team, is located in Ping-ting County besides with seaside. There are nearly 60 students at this micro school. The main local property is pond-aquaculture and the other is agriculture. The large pumped-storage of groundwater results the risk of ground-sinkage. The confliction between subsistence and environmental issue is interlacing with problem of community.

Two Tales

Case A: Technology promotes the experiencing of ecology.

In Lucky Team, the beginning of community combined teacher Tom's vision for transforming the school ecology and the projects handed down by Bureau of Education. In school council, the director of academic affairs invited teachers to join the workshop group with voluntarily. Due to colleague friendship, many teachers participated in the team. After the engineering project for transform fishpond into ecological pond accomplished and many water grasses were rooted, the more and more school-based curriculum had been created by members. In Lucky Team, every member could offer their ideas into group vision rather than one acted as the absolute leader as well as members' interesting and accomplishments could enact in curriculum development.

Since teacher Tom and Teacher John were interested in photography, they had designed curriculum that they taught students to use Digital Single Lens Reflex Camera (DSLR) or Digital Video camera (DV) to explore ecological pond in school and local ecology surrounded school. Besides, John also established the Photography-team of Students and leaded students to experience the nature environment with lens. Because the ecological pond in their school was conducted successful, there were various migratory birds flying to their surroundings and lots of frogs, insects, and small wild animals were coming. Students there had multiple natural resources to discover with a manual of "Photographic Guide to the Birds" and they could keep synchronous record by shooting with their DSLR. After field investigation, teacher asked students show their "work" on PowerPoint and shared their feelings and cognations with their partners. Moreover, students were also fostered as ecological narrators. While people came to their school, students with rich experience could introduce their ecology for the guests as well as achieved the feeling of fulfillment.

Once I observed John's curriculum enacted, John leaded his children for field investigation on the small mountain trail besides school. On their way, students gazed around for something interesting. While a child find a galaxy bird standing on riverbed, he called other to look. Heterogeneously, crowds discussed the genes of the bird for its figure, color, and sound. They used photographic guide for judging as well as utilized DSLR to shoot, which could be the important information for their learning in classroom latter. For students, natural experience learning is interesting and the assist of photographic technology riches their vision to knowing the world.

For John , this local community had confronted the problems of rural-urban development divide and digital divide, however, he believe that experience learning activities through the use of digital technology could not only give rise to students' interesting but also foster students' a kind of professional ability. While students of disadvantaged begin to learn actively, they could construct their life meanings with the raising of other subjects' achievement. Thus, this is a chance to transform the local difficult position of pedagogy.

Case B: Technology awakes conscious of environmental protection.

In View-sonic Team, while teacher Wing saw the documentary film presented by instructor, another school teacher, as curriculum materials in an activity of teacher professional research and study, he was shock and caught with resonance. After coming back his classroom, he tried to take DV to record the event which occurred around his

children. In the beginning, he shot his students and invited them to make expectations of themselves and spoke words for selves in the future, and the DV document would be showed to them on the eve of their graduating. At that time coming, actually, students disappeared excited and felt pleasure for the special moment worth memory. Besides, Wing found that the flood disaster followed with typhoon is correlation the problem of ground-sinkage. Wing and academic affairs went into the fields of local community to take records with DV. They took the scene of nature and interviewed with inhabitants for recording the effect of a disaster and the completed events from different voices. Wing selected and edited documents as curriculum material for his teaching as well as constructed the electronic maps of schools with spatial and temporal information as historical records.

In addition, as a member of local teacher assistance groups, Wing invited others to learn how to create documentary film. They learned from an professional instructor within a workshop. In the process, members not only achieved the skill of technology but also advanced their identities for the meanings of live. With this technology, teachers could see the world freshly through the doing of arts-based educational research as well as they could share their "art work" with others. For Wing, the access of technology is not seeking for expertise of technology; rather, its meaning is to transform the rigid teaching models. Wing claimed to naive teacher that to access educational technology needed not use the difficult operation. Using PowerPoint to show what they want to teach is meaningful. Due to the less pressure climate in View-sonic Team, teachers who fear the hard of educational technology could try to use technology cautiously as well as other member could offer the support. Again, teacher of View-sonic Team also develop the technology integrated curriculum for students to learn and to record life stories. While people began to learn within local context, the conscious of environmental protection would be awaked.

Conclusion: Accountability as process of life-long meanings making

Via research findings, several themes are discussed:

- **Sharing culture with partners**

  It is anxious and affair when contacting new technologies. In the two cases, the motivations of teachers' engaging educational technology is related the works presented by other teacher, and teachers achieve high self-efficacy from others' sharing. Later, the sense of belonging to community give teachers a lot of support as well as they could affect other members by feedback. Within a sharing culture, teachers in community could advance their curriculum more and more rich.

- **Caring about local Issues**

  Technology becomes a useful mediation for our critical thinking whiles its relation to local issues. Furthermore, it causes the transformative actions and changes educational ecology. At this time, the use of technology benefits leaning with humanity.

- **Embodying as Creating Representations**

  Different from dominated by technology, technology could become to the extension for our bodied such as broad our sights, make impossible possible, and offers us various ways to represent the world of our understanding.

- **Learning for growing experience**

  Technology is always progressing and changing our live style. Although, every discourse is dangerous with its ideology, reconsidering the lesson from "sober-tooth curriculum", we should remain face the problem rather than beg to be excused. As Maxine Green's (1973) metaphor "teacher as stranger", we should learn to grow experience constantly for balancing the confliction of new and old experience.

In general, the nature of pedagogy is to cause learning for teachers and students. Without learning occurring with humanity, abuse of technology fails into alienation. Since the representation of humanity is depended on the meanings emerging, the key toward "between boarders of technology and humanity" is to regard accountability as process of life-long meanings making.

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Symposium 2

STUDENT TEACHERS NEED MORE THAN EVIDENCE – ARGUMENTS FOR THE PLACE OF THEORY IN THE TEACHER EDUCATION CURRICULUM

Student Teachers Need More Than Evidence – Arguments for the Place of Theory in the Teacher Education Curriculum

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Abstract

The overall purpose of the symposium is to problematize the increasing assumptions within the field of education that evidence based research carries the solution to the crises of education and hence should be the sole base for Teacher Education. In particular, issues related to social justice are addressed. Five researchers from three different countries present aspects in education where the notion of evidence becomes insufficient or, at times, even counterproductive.

Keywords: complexity, evidence based, professionalism, relations, social justice, teacher education, teacher students,

Symposium Summary

This symposium focuses Teacher Education (TE) content, more specifically tensions between content involving effective methods based on evidence, and theories aiming to stimulate critical analyzes of emergent practices (Cohran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005). The purpose is not to take a stand pro or con, since they complement each other (see for instance Biesta: 2007). Rather it is to trouble the contemporary dominance of calls for evidence based research by highlighting its shortcomings in functioning as means for educating student teachers to promote specific democratic aims within contemporary educational systems.

Student teachers should acquire the ability to create an environment in which everyone's equal value is respected, as well as to encourage a responsibility amongst children and young people to contest e.g. bullying and discrimination (cf Kumashiro: 2002, Nagda, Kim &Truelove: 2004, Lopez: 2004). These aspirations are, in everyday practice, inextricably *intermingled* with learning subject knowledge such as math, language, history etc. (Frelin: 2013). During the past decades, demands for measuring children's and students' educational outcomes, ensuring an effective schooling, and hence basing educational practices upon evidence have surged (Biesta, 2007, Bottery, M., & Barnett, R.: 1996, Hess: 2006, Granger: 2008, Olson: 2012). This measurement culture also encompasses issues related to social justice and it's treasuring of plurality, by treating it as an obvious problem that can be mastered and reduced through the use of proper educational programs and methods. However, to limit issues related to social justice to the logic of positivism is problematic since it cannot capture the complexities and the multiplicity of everyday actions (Cohran-Smith & Marilyn: 2004. Griffiths: 2003, Edling, 2012).

There are tendencies in many countries today to narrow down content in TE by stressing the importance of implementing evidence based research as a remedy for many different problems and purposes. When content in TE is being cut in favor of evidence based practices, it is imperative to develop an argument showing why teachers need theoretical concepts to critically analyze the constantly emerging practices in their classrooms, and why evidence based research cannot accomplish this task. The five contributors come from three countries and three universities, and discuss the relationship between increased demands of evidence in TE and the necessity to analyze a practice in constant alteration from following standpoints: complexity in teacher professionalism, the presence of thinkingacting in Brazilian curriculum, limits of global competitiveness in TE in U.S for addressing issues of social justice, various

approaches to plurality in textbooks for Swedish student teachers as a means to counteract oppression and the importance of pedagogical listening in education. The papers examine the areas in question with different methodologies: discourse (psychology), conversation analysis, sociology of emergencies and everyday life studies, providing both empirical and theoretical findings. The group is opening a debate where the core of the relations among methods, practices and theories stands in focus. The role of our discussant, professor William Pinar, is to frame the papers in the debate. There will be time for the audience to participate with questions and comments.

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Dilemmas in classroom discussions – teachers' practical deliberations as a prerequisite for democratic education

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to problematize evidence based approaches for understanding mundane teacher-student interaction by showing how education for democracy involves teachers' handling of dilemmas between goals for promoting students' personal engagement in controversial issues and to teach for critical thinking; further, I will argue that such knowledge is important for educating teachers to promote students development into a critical democratic participation. A case is taken from a Swedish religious studies classroom chosen from a larger classroom study about teacher student interaction in discussions about controversial issues. The case makes visible the dilemmatic praxis in which the teacher has to use her own judgment in order to promote a qualified democratic participation of the students, which also could be seen as an important part of teacher education. The visibility of such judgments however seems to be excluded in the discourse of evidence based teaching.

Keywords: evidence based; teacher education; democracy; judgments

Introduction

In this paper teacher's assignment and teacher education is seen from the perspective of promoting students to participate in a democratic society. The ambition to educate students for democratic participation has been pronounced in the Swedish comprehensive school since the post war period – 1946 – until the recent syllabus 2011. On the other hand, government of the school is not only to be found in formulations of the national syllabus, but largely in other kinds of instances such as tests, evaluations and overall statements formulated in policy concerning the "good school". In the Swedish school debate, mainstream educational research have been an object for criticism and models resident in behavior science has now been claimed to offer a better alternative for teachers in order to accomplish their assignment. As will be shown below, the trend towards evidence based teaching is also prominent in Swedish policy texts. The tradition of educating for democratic participation in not however, easy to reconcile with the notion of an evidence based teaching. In this paper I argue that evidence based approaches, often invoked in contemporary education policy, risk to marginalize complexities in which teachers are handling dilemmas connected to the students' learning for an active and qualified democratic participation in society.

The purpose in this paper is to problematize evidence based approaches for understanding mundane teacher-student interaction by showing how education for democracy involves teachers' handling of dilemmas between goals for promoting students' personal engagement in controversial issues and to teach for critical thinking; further I will argue that such knowledge is important for educating teachers to promote students development into a critical democratic participation. The disposition of this paper is as follows: first a short description of evidence based teaching in the Swedish context is described; this section is followed by a presentation of the empirical data used in my empirical case; the next part consist in a short case study that locates my analytic point in a practical teacher context; the paper ends with a concluding discussion.

Evidence based teaching (EBT) in Swedish policy

The impact of EBT on Swedish policy is clear. Documents from the Swedish national agency for education (2011; 2012) as well as government propylene's (2012a, b) and Swedish Government Official Reports (2009) highlight the need for an evidence based teaching. Recently produced literature for Swedish teacher education (e.g. Håkanson & Sundberg 2012) shows that EBT is not only a policy matter. In august 2011 the Swedish national agency for education published a memorandum about "evidence in the education area". As for other documents, referred to above, the

memorandum problematizes a transmission of the concept from the medical sector. It is stated that evidence based studies may not be generalizable nor independent of the specific context in which the study is performed. It is also suggested that qualitative studies, unlike evidence based studies from the medical sector, could be valuable and included in the concept of EBT. However, one of the final positions is an affirmation of the evidence movement ambition that the practice of teachers and school leaders "as far as possible should be based on the most reliable knowledge available" (p.15).

The memorandum informs that Swedish national agency for education is participating in international networks such as Evidence Informed policy in Education in Europe (EIPPE), Danish Clearinghouse for Educational research end the EPPI-center in London. Thus even if the concept of evidence is problematized, the basic notion of reliable knowledge established by empirical research is supposed to function as a base for teaching. Further, even if the contextual dimension of teacher knowledge is highlighted the development of teacher knowledge is supposed to be located in international, global networks. The last characteristic corresponds to trends of globalized hegemonization of education as well as teacher knowledge (cf. Petterson 2007; Sivesind 2013). However, if students' active and critical participation is put in the foreground, reliable Models (with a capital M) for effective teaching seem to exclude, teaching for democratic participation. Such teaching involves teachers' current deliberation (Billig et al. 1988) concerning students' needs, both to appropriate common knowledge (e.g. presenting relevant arguments) and to develop an individual, critical approach to the subject at hand.

Methods and data

The classroom study consists of video recordings from 14 lessons (8 social studies lessons and 6 religious studies lessons). Five teachers and six classes took part in the dissertation project. Five of these classes were made up of students from theoretical Gymnasium programs and one class consisted of students from a practical "trade-programme" (sv. handelsprogram). To complete the recordings data was also generated from classroom observations and collections of different teaching materials. Apart from a quantitative analysis of speech distribution between teacher and students, and between boys and girls in the class, a qualitative method is employed. The interaction in the classroom will also be analyzed by taking dilemma theory (Billig et al 1988) as point of departure. An example from a video-recorded whole class discussion about civil disobedience is used as a case for showing the teacher twin objective to both invite and to challenge students in discussing issues about breaking against the law for achieving justified moral values.

The classroom case

In subjects dealing with controversial issues, such as religious and social studies, discussions in which students are encouraged to take a stand and to present arguments for their position is a recurrent activity. A common pattern in the discussions is a tension between teacher initiatives, i.e. to initiate and elaborate topics, comment and sometimes evaluate students' interjections, and the students' initiatives to initiate topics, presenting arguments for their positions and debate other students' interjections (Liljestrand 2002; 2011). In the this classroom case the teacher in a religious studies class, invites the students to make interjections about the right to break against the law – i.e. civil disobedience – under certain, morally justified, conditions. The following excerpt shows how the complex goals; to discuss this issue critically are approached by the teacher. In the first lines Nilla states her position that breaking the laws may imply social chaos. The teacher is then re-connecting to the overall issue for the lesson: are there situations in which you could imagine breaking the law, and invites them to "motivate a position". Some minutes earlier there has been several interjections about animal activist which Nilla also refers to.

Example: Arguing for keeping and breaking the laws

N: but it is actually to break the law **is** actually to break the law and everyone thinks actually- have different opinions about this- about what is right and what is wrong
T: mm=
N: =so then I may think that something completely different is right
T: =mm
N: =or wrong=

T: =mm=

N: and are breaking against another law and it becomes like a vicious circle if one is keep on break- and breaking the laws

T: yes so this (.) this thus breaking the laws we should not do (.) can you imagine any situation (.) where you would [still could end up in-

N: [.hh yes [yes

T: [do you believe in-

N: ((screws up her mouth)) one (   ) may imagine this

T: [yes

N: [for example smuggle refugees one can imagine

T: yes

N: absolutely

T: and how would you [justify this-

N: [I don't want to- I don't want to take a position on this about minks ((releasing of)) or (.)

T: no=

N: =militant vegans but (.) it is just (.) the thing itself

T: yes

N: (3,0) to eh (1,7) break the law ((nods her head simultaneously))

T: yes we must have them (1,7) mm

If the teacher's goal only had included how to teach their students to present arguments according to different standards, the teacher's tactful follow up on the last lines would have been unnecessary. Instead, this case points to an agenda with to simultaneous goals and not only one, i.e. to offer the students possibilities to take a personal stand, but also to motivate their stand by rational arguments. In line with Billig et al. (1988, chapter 4) one may say that the teacher is handling an everyday situation which is dilemmatic, i.e. both student and teacher-centered at the same time. One may add that this complexity is at hand in many other teaching situations as well (Frelin 2013); discussing controversial issues is not the only situation in which the student is supposed to act more or less autonomous.

Secondly, the goal to highlight students' personal stand may potentially create a tension in relation to the other goal to develop rational reasons. Thus, the teacher has to handle this potential tension by her professional judgment (Schön 1983). Thus, from case studies like this it may be argued that evidence based approaches risk to marginalize perspectives of teaching that focus on students' possibilities to develop a critical judgment in order to participate as an active and democratic citizen.

Concluding discussion

The paradox, known since Rousseau and Kant (e.g. Oettingen 2003) on how to educate for freedom and to support students critical judgment seem to presuppose models of teaching, and for teacher education, the takes not one, but more simultaneous goals into consideration. Teacher knowledge based on the discourse of evidence based teaching seems to exclude education for active democratic participation, although such goals – since long time ago – are present in the national syllabus.

Teaching for democratic participation requires a didactic autonomy for the teacher, i.e. to judge and to deliberate how such student autonomy is accompanied by rational knowledge and social skills, and how these values may be realized in and by education. The governance of both students and teachers implied in the notion of evidence based teaching obviously points towards another direction than to a society based on democratic values, deeply rooted – but paradoxically often suppressed – in modern education.

If relations in everyday life are put in the foreground, instrumental approaches, like evidence based teaching, risk to reduce complexity and dilemmas connected to complex teaching goals, related to learning for an active and critical participation in modern society (Edwards & Mercer 1987). Furthermore, if education is seen as one of the most important prerequisites for active democratic citizenship, qualitative studies of such dilemmatic teaching situations may contribute with knowledge about teachers' complex assignment which evidence based approaches more or less seem to exclude. From such a perspective the use of qualitative cases in teacher education (cf. Stensmo 1999) could be seen as a fruitful approach in order to highlight teachers' complex work in supporting students' development towards democratic citizens.

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What Happens to Plurality when Evidence Becomes the Solution?

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Abstract

The purpose of the paper is to discuss how Teacher Students (TS) are to oppose various forms of violence in their future profession by analyzing how plurality is described in three text-books used in courses at one Teacher Education in Sweden. The study is placed in relationship to current debates and tensions between those favoring evidence-based research as a platform for teaching and those stressing the need for teachers who nurture a critical awareness. The results indicate that the notion of problem, plurality, and the role of teachers vary considerable in the three text-books and in order to address the complexity of violence TS:s need to interpret, analyze, and value subject-contents in relation to research about a particular field and the flow of everyday relations.

Keywords: evidence based research, plurality, subject content, teacher education, teacher students, violence.

1. Introduction

The paper addresses subject content covering plurality/diversity at one Teacher Education (TE) in Sweden, in relation to current debates between those who underscore that evidence based research carries the prime key to solve various kinds of problems in education and those who maintain that action motivated by evidence lacks the capability to sufficiently handle delicacy and multiplicity in human life. The intention for the paper is not to adhere to a dualistic view with evidence-based research on one side and professional practice on the other, since there are studies indicating that a fruitful dialog between them is possible (Nutley, Davies & Walter: 2003, p. 3, Laycock: 2000, Nutley & Davies: 2000, Nutley, Eraunt: 2003), but to confer the implications different interpretations of a subject-content have on teachers' possibilities to *act in accordance to certain purposes* in education.

During the 1980s it was emphasized from different directions that TE has to base its content on research, relevant for teachers' day-to-day work. The discussions were a critical response to a view of teachers as mechanical laborers equipped with a set of politically sanctioned methods. The standpoint that teachers should be the tool of experts, mechanically applying evidence-based-methods, was considered as inadequate to handle the demands in a complex democratic society cherishing plurality. The debate was closely intertwined with demands that teachers and teacher students need to be trained to become professionals, capable to take responsibility for their work and hence interpret, analyze, value, and choose subject contents in relation to both a particular purpose and a practice in constant movement. *Didaktik*, with its focus upon subject matter, was hence separated from Pedagogy and introduced as a research field of its own in the middle of the 1980s (cf Kroksmark: 1986, Marton: 1986, Hopmann: 1997) and in the beginning of 21th century *Didaktik* became an institutionalized research platform at TE's in Sweden (Erixon: 2006). Accordingly, from a historical perspective, the field is practically a newborn, nonetheless it has been challenged by those arguing for reviving evidence based methods as a platform for TE in order to save the "school in crisis". Albeit, rather than focusing upon the notion of crises, this paper attends to issues concerning the democratically framed respect for plurality and the desire to oppose different forms of violence in education.

In 2009 the Swedish government strengthened the democratic mission in education by introducing laws against discrimination and abusive treatment. This means that teachers at all levels, besides providing knowledge and values, have a third mission, they are required to actively work to *promote a non-violent environment* and hence *alter* relations and patterns that harm or risk harming people who differ from the norm (Edling: 2012). Thus, teachers can be inspired, encouraged, and in some countries even required, to actively work for a non-violent environment in which everyone feels respected and is entitled equal possibilities (c.f. Frånberg: 2003, 2004, Cohran-Smith: 2004, Michelli & Keiser: 2005, Zeichner: 2009).

Work against violence can never be found in one single method or perspective, but requires attentiveness to different theoretical and methodological approaches and acknowledges the interplay of various levels and contexts in society (cf Young: 1990). One way to approach the problem is to pay attention to the subject content regarding plurality, presented to Teacher Students and discuss its consequences for action. In doing so, the aim of this paper is to analyze

three different descriptions of plurality in text-books used at TE, at Uppsala University in Sweden, in order to regenerate a discussion about teachers' task to contest different forms of violence in relation to ideas favoring evidence-based research.

In the paper following questions are asked: 1) What characterizes the three ways of approaching plurality in text-books? 2) How can the results be understood in a context premiering evidence-based research in TE?

2. Background

2.1. *Didaktik* and subject-matter

More specifically than pedagogy, research within *didaktik* directs attention to various meanings of subject content and how it is taught and learnt. Following Klette (2007) questions concerning subject matter tends to be taken for granted – often treated as obvious, value-free, and unproblematic – indicating a need to scrutinize it more thoroughly in research (a.a, p. 148). Whereas the Anglo-Saxian term *didactics* generally is associated with a tradition stressing methods and instructions, those adhering to the German concept of (*die*) *Didaktik* approach issues related to subject matter as a form of praxis, inevitably intermingled with certain ways of valuing and thinking about (making meaning out of a) a phenomenon, thereby acknowledging the complex, relational, and contestable aspects of education.

Hence, the stance that people's meaning-making expressed through language defines what is worth knowing and what is not renders subject-matter changeable, reliant upon purposes generated in specific times and contexts (Englund: 1997, p. 122). More precisely, it expresses a posture where difference is made between matter and meaning, (see also Hopmann: 2007, p. 109), implying that subject matter is not obvious, simply handed to teachers as a neutral object, but is human-made, needs to be valued *in relation to* what is desirable, based on choices that works including/excluding, and affects people's lives, thereby rendering them to have moral and ethical implications (c.f. Englund: 1997, Säfström: 2005, Schwandt and Dahler-Larsen: 2006, Frelin, 2010).

2.2. Methodology

What is particularly highlighted in this paper is the description of plurality in three text-books used at TE in Uppsala and the problems regarding inter-personal violence they aim to address. Each of these text-books is presently used in courses at TE and only the aspects focusing upon plurality is highlighted. The intention here is not to cover all text-books concerning plurality, but to analyze and compare the notion of plurality from different epistemological standpoints, expressed by the authors. The study of text-books is a qualitative approach and in order to interpret the material I use a discourse analysis, since it is a methodology in which the researcher is allowed attention to power aspects in society and consequences for action (Winther Jørgensen & Phillips, 2000, s. 152). In the study, Faircloughs' (1995) critical discourse theory is used as a starting point for analysis. The critical discourse theory works on three levels: text-level, conditions for action, and how it is related to social issues – in this case research about opposing various forms of violence (c.f. Fairclough: 1995: 145).

3. Text-books and their description of problem, plurality, and education

Three different research fields are represented in the text-books: education based on behavioral modification, inter-culturalism, and the pedagogy of difference. The section consists of a presentation of: 1) how the text books define the problem they wish to address, 2) how they define plurality and 3) the role of education arises from the particular world-views described.

3.1. Pedagogy based on behavioural modification

Behaviorism was highly praised during the 1960s for its ability to find adequate and effective methods for teaching. It was successively replaced by a posture requiring critical and thinking teachers capable to pay regard to social justice issues in education rather than solely reproducing social (and sometimes oppressive) structures (Erixon: 2005, p. 68). However in the after-wake of the rhetoric "the school in crises", behaviorism has experienced a renaissance in TE. Karlberg's (2012) dissertation is used as a text-book in a master-course called *Group processes*, 7,5 hp at TE (2013), at Uppsala University.

Table 1: Describing the problem, plurality, and the role of education from a behavioral point of view, found in the first two chapters in Karlberg (2012)

	Behavioral modification
Problem?	Disturbing/norm-breaking pupils hamper teachers' mission to transfer given knowledge and values effectively
	Pupils' who become rule-breakers risk ruining their lives and others, p. 12, 16, 21
Plurality?	Plurality equals *norm-abbreviation* and anti-social behavior
	Plurality is bad and sameness good – change anti-social behavior so it harmonizes with group norms, p. 22-24
Role of education?	*Change anti-social behavior* so it harmonizes with group norms through extinction, punishment, and reward, p. 15

In the book it is maintained that education consists of specific norms that are created in order to maintain social stability and democratic equality, and that a significant role of educators is to preserve and guard these norms by different means. The norms are in this context treated as something more or less firm and obvious, embedded in social life, and those who diverge from the norm are considered as deficient and in need of amendment for their own good. If they become aligned with the group who masters the proper norms they are less likely to be bullied, end up in bad company, be violated and so forth. It is the majority of the group that dictates what should be deemed as proper or not proper behavior.

3.2. Inter-cultural pedagogy

The term *intercultural* and *intercultural pedagogy,* was introduced in Sweden in the 1980s by Pirjo Lahdenperä. Rather than describing and treating immigrant children as dangerous problems, lacking proper knowledge that makes it possible for them to be assimilated into Swedish values and knowledge systems, intercultural pedagogy stresses the mutual benefit of cultural encounters where everyone can meet on neutral ground and learn from one and other. Political documents from 1985 stresses that intercultural pedagogy is an ideal way of approaching plurality in education (see also Eklund: 2008). The course book is used 2013, in a course called *Plurality and learning*, which all students at TE at Uppsala University need to read.

Table 2: Describing the problem, plurality, and the role of education from an intercultural point of view found in chapter one Lahdenperä (2010)

	Inter-culture
Problem?	More immigrants today have made a homogeneous society heterogenic, which comes with challenges for education and society.
	Ethnocentrism and narrow world perceptions risk maintaining and/or creating racism, discrimination, exclusion, and violation and obstruct genuine understanding and socialization, p, 15-18
Plurality?	Plurality is about groups or people *culturally diverging from the norm*. IC primarily acknowledges the foreign-born, however, it also expands plurality to include the groups in the anti-discrimination law ("gender, age, disability, religion, sexual orientation, ethnicity, nationality or national origin, [and] social class").
	Plurality is good and needs to be recognized (plurality as a base for society rather than commonality), p. 15, 20
Role of education?	Intercultural *communication* and learning through cultural differences helps overcoming ethnocentricity, expands world-views, and identities. By gaining *knowledge about others' culture*, racism, prejudices, discrimination et cetera can be overcome, pp. 28

Lahdenperä (2010) finds it problematic that education, from a historical point of view, has cherished similarity over difference on the cost of certain (minority) groups who for numerous reasons do not harmonize with the norm, thereby become subjected to various forms of violence. The focus is primarily upon ethnic minorities. What is emphasized in the textbook is that difference should instead be handled as something valuable in society. In order to include plurality into the midst of education, Lahdenperä stresses the need to use communication as an entrance to

learning, where an encounter with different cultures expands people's world-views. According to her, knowledge about other cultures has the ability to reduce violence and foster a genuine understanding.

3.3. Pedagogy of difference

Pedagogy of difference originates from poststructuralism and took form amongst French linguists during the 1960s. They criticized the use of structures and search for absolute principles or truths for human co-existence. The linguists maintained that structures cannot exist or be meaningful in themselves, but through human meaning making, expressed through language, and creation, thereby emphasizing the necessity to pay regard to language, context, and process. In Swedish education, poststructuralism has never been an ideal expressed as a political solution to education, but has more functioned as an extern source of criticism and influence. The course book is used 2013, in a course called *Plurality and learning*, which all students at TE at Uppsala University take.

Table 3: Describing the problem, plurality, and the role of education from a perspective cherishing a pedagogy of difference

	Pedagogy of difference
Problem?	Taking for granted that democracy and justice exists merely by politically claiming that a society is democratic and just – is problematic since it overlooks what takes place in everyday life
	Socialization as the road to establish a just and democratic society is insufficient since it is based on commonality, unity, and similarity, thereby failing to pay regard to plurality
	Interpreting the moral aspects of democracy as submitting to rules stimulates passivity rather than encouraging awareness and sensitivity to people's actual life condition, p. 9, 13
Difference	Plurality means the *radical difference between people* (not norms) - The Other
	Plurality as difference exists and need to be paid regard to in order to promote democracy and justice, p. 50f
Role of education?	Ethics and justice should not be based on socialization or knowledge about people – but take its beginning in openness to the situation of the Other. Using *communication* between Others as a site for learning and re-learning Encouraging a sense of *responsibility for Others,* p. 55ff

Säfström (2006) is critical to the way society is treated as just and democratic based merely on political frameworks in ways that overlook the flow and consequences of people's everyday lives. Moreover, he argues that there are problems with the fact that democracy, justice, and moral come to be infused with issues of socialization since not all socialization is harmless and that the very process of socialization creates exclusion. Besides, he maintains that an educator, who solely argues that children should submit to rules of conduct risk pacifying pupils' ability to be sensitive to the needs of unique people. Whereas plurality in both behaviorism and inter-culture is about norm-abbreviation, plurality in Säfström's context is about a radical difference existing between people ever since birth. Like Lahdenperä (2010) he stresses the need to base education on communication, not between individuals representing their family or group culture, but as unique individuals. Rather than using "knowledge about others" as a point of orientation, he encourages a responsibility for others' life situation, which lacks a firm platform.

4. A comparative discussion

The main focus in the paper is the role of future teachers. There are tendencies in society today, both nationally and internationally, to claim that TE is insufficient and wishy-washy, since it lacks solid methods that tell teachers what actually works and what does not (Cohran-Smith: 2004, Edling: 2013). Evidence-based research stems from medicine, not education, and comes with certain features, which stress the significance of the majority, sameness, normality, regularity, and stability (Biesta: 2008). Consequently, what happens to teachers' professional work, when they are obliged to pay regard to and oppose inter-personal violence, which is a phenomenon based on the way minorities, plurality and difference is treated in society? The very phenomena of oppression and structural violence (violation, bullying and so forth) *exist because difference is considered as disgusting, bad, evil, or/and dangerous* (c.f. Weedon: 1999, Young: 1990, Butler: Kumashiro: 2000, Freire: 1997, Bauman: 1999).

The text-books and their description of plurality analysed are already used at TE in Uppsala. All three text-books explicitly convey that they want to make the world more just and reduce bullying, racism, discrimination etc. However, their explanations of the problem and plurality differ and so do their understanding of how educators should act in their day-to-day work. What the results of this paper indicates is that without TS's ability to interpret,

analyze, and value the content of the text-books there are risks that: they tend to adhere to an idea that one theory is more preferable than others because it is evidence-based, they overlook the particular problem that the different text-books aims to address, they are not able to discuss pros and cons with the specific content based on research targeting different forms of violence, and without the general ability to see things differently, understand, analyze, and value the flow of relations and contents they unavoidably come in contact with, teachers may risk acting in ways that increase violence rather than diminish it.

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Complexity *and* Complicity:
Quality(s) and/or Effectiveness in Teacher Education

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Abstract

This essay has three purposes. The first is to examine teacher education discourse related to teacher "quality" in order to better describe the manifest as well as the latent conditions (Apple, 1979) for what counts as the "knowledge of most worth" (Spencer, 1931). The second purpose is to analyse what is inscribed in state and federal policy documents (*Blueprint for Reform*, 2010) in order to establish what is the "official" definition and ideology behind "the effective teacher" (Aspen Institute, 2007) or "teacher effectiveness." The third purpose is to review how teachers speak to and speak about their own professional practice and/or praxis.

Current reform efforts from the federal government monitor and sanction teacher education based on "evidence/data", "professionalism", and/or "accountability." The federal government has created a climate of surveillance in which teacher education, indeed all of higher education, now fall under an "evidentiary warrant" or what (Cochran-Smith, 2006) suggests is using evidence as the basis for evaluating teacher performativity, or performance is all that counts and must be measureable.

The aim of this essay is to provide an impression based on teachers' lives, their working conditions, and the experience(s) of teacher work. While education reform efforts have often been "imagined by others" (Pinar, 2004), placed under neoliberal condition(s) of surveillance, control and "shared sacrifice and austerity" (see Peter Taubman's *Teaching by Numbers*), there are also reform efforts afoot that are driven by faculty and teachers in collaboration.

The other critical supposition I make is that while the manifest official neoliberal discourse prevails, it quite transparently and increasingly is found to be lacking in addressing educational and social problems and challenges, especially when compared and contrasted with the "complexity" or the "complex" (Doll, 2012) cultural work represented in the lived, day-to-day experiential learning of many a classroom, how teachers talk and reflect on their practice and praxis. Outside of the classroom, the failings of neoliberalism are represented in popular resistance to administrative directives.

Another interesting insight into how pre-service teachers, in the act of becoming teachers of record, consider their roles in ill-defined, semi-structured settings. Finally, quite interesting and instructive is how the student/teacher/teacher candidate discourse emerges, alternately inscribed in and between course projects and/or classroom assignments, discussion posts, anecdotes and other conversations concerning public education, teaching and learning challenges.

Using textual/conversation/discursive analysis as a tool, specifically deconstructing the "official" texts then moving fairly generally to deconstructing teacher texts (conversations, postings, and other anecdotal artefacts represented in assignments) this essay provides insight concerning the political economy of current education reform, and the relationship between that reform (steeped in corporatism) and teachers and students' imagination(s), creativity, innovation, and progressivity through curriculum development.

Keywords: teacher education, education reform, professionalism

1. Introduction

The period spanning 2002 to 2014 could best be characterized in the United States as one of "shock and awe" wherein the public good was smashed due to two undeclared wars, widespread financial speculation and a subsequent crash of the real estate market which caused a bail out of epic proportions shouldered disproportionately by the average American taxpayers of the financial industry. Indeed it is not secret that this period was coupled with tax breaks for the wealthiest and the continued amassing of large fortunes by the so-called FIRE[i] industries even throughout the collapse and recovery.

Public education had already been placed under audit in the form of the *No Child Left Behind* in 2002, with schools being characterized as having failed, and by 2008, with the reauthorization of the law having stalled in congress, the economic crises added to the underlying problem of growing disparity of financial resources, urban neglect and decay. With the election of President Barack Obama, the ARRA (American Restoration and Recovery Act) saved some of the teaching jobs which were slated to be cut as local and state revenues collapsed under the strain of the bailout, but the

ARRA also ushered in a new paradigm in which funding to the schools would be shifted from that which was based on need to one which became a lottery called *Race to the Top*. Indeed under this era of *Race to the Top*, many of the nation's schools felt like they were "running for the money"[ii] and occupied by a largely hostile force.

It is also a period where certainty has given way to a great deal of *complexity*, a term I specifically borrow from curriculum theorist William Doll. Doll's notion is an interesting one, taken literally I believe, is that modernism is ebbing if not collapsing around us and society, especially in the form of the schools is signalling in many ways that what worked in the modern period, no longer does so. Stated another way, Doll artfully noted that the Tyler Rationale's "time has passed."

One example is that the beginning of the end of modern ways of assessment and evaluation can be imagined: no more shared, intended learning outcomes; the collapse of the massive standardized testing culture, and sanctions for failing to meet the behavioural *objectives* . . . the features of the same audit culture as I mentioned above. In its place is expected to be, and apparently widely encouraged by business and government a naked competition for diminishing resources, a veritable race to the bottom.

Doll's characterization of *qualities*[iii] . . . is interesting and generative, bringing alternately to mind "quality" (as in the curriculum) "qualified" (as in the "highly qualified teacher") and the "qualitative" (as opposed to the quantitative). But Doll's use of the term suggests that by *qualities*, in place of behavioural objectives, what we are witness to is not a divergence, or clear break from the past, but the beginning of a struggle between what is observable, and what are *competencies*.

The call for even more assessments, yet another attempt to nationalize the curriculum, and the raising once again of vouchers, merit pay, and attacks on teacher unions . . . is evidence not of victory of the worst anti-education excesses, but indicate, rather, a desperate attempt to rekindle ideas whose time have also passed. An even more recent call to place the entire higher education system under audit for demonstrating graduate success in order to receive financial aid indicates the tip of the iceberg for continuing the downward spiral toward education catastrophe.

2. Commercial Club Curriculum

In *Defending Public Education from Corporate Takeover* (Price, 2013) the argument is that commercial club or "civic groups" have always been behind the major educational reform efforts. Largely pursuing a path of curriculum developed by and for the interest of big business, the words "commercial club curriculum" serve as a metaphor and a reality. The story of the Commercial Club of Chicago (founded 1877) begins in the late nineteenth century when industrial titans of the age set about to create a "dual-track" school system; one for the workers and the other for the managers, organized and managed under tight-fisted mayoral control. The industrial titans themselves would send their children off to posh private schools on the East Coast. Justified under this social engineering design was the rationalization that progress called for an effective sorting mechanism, and this mechanism would be the standardized test. Administrative progressives exerted their authority and control using "scientific management" principles of the day, shifting teachers around and aiming to maximize time, space and resources along the principle of teaching as a profession, teacher education by elite pedagogical institutions.

Counter to the administrative progressives, as described below . . .

> . . . administrative progressives at the top of the higher education chain were tasked with assigning the curriculum and administering from the central office of the superintendent. Teachers deemed unqualified would be displaced from their neighborhood schools and directed to secure further education at Teachers College (at a cost the progressive administrators surely must have known was more than working-class women of diverse ethnic backgrounds could afford). A new "scientific management" curriculum was settled upon and the high-school educated teacher was replaced by a university-educated, credentialed teacher.

. . . were the early teacher unionists and the pedagogical progressives (the developmentalists), radicals in their day, for offering that the child should be the "centre" of curriculum and pedagogical formation and that teachers had a say in their working conditions:

> the distinguishing characteristic of the progress made in education in the last fifty years has been the demand for the freeing of the child. (Murphy, 1990)

In spite of unionists, pedagogical progressives and other critical educator, for much of the modern period curriculum development, classroom instruction, education practice, policy and reform has been "dreamt of by others" (Pinar, 2004) . . . the purview of business stakeholders, and social engineers interested in shaping the future.

For example, the Commercial Club of Chicago still publishes reports (*Still Left Behind*, 2009, analogous to the Cooley Report of 1912), still runs the board of education, remaining the vital force behind the radical restructuring of the CPS school system with the closure of 50+ schools before the fall school start, 2013.

2.1. No Child Left Behind (NCLB)

> . . . two sides were drawn with competing education reform agendas. In *Sticks, Stones, and Ideology: The Discourse of Reform in Teacher Education,* Marilyn Cochran-Smith and Mary Kim Fries provide an illuminating template depicting the political divisiveness between the two sides of educational reform: "professionalization" of the teaching profession and alignment with standards and . . . "deregulation" . . . opening up the teaching profession to alternative teacher training organizations, or what has come to be called "alternative certification." Emerging from this deep divide was . . . NCLB.[iv]

With NCLB the standardized test would be used not only to judge student performance, but as a literal report card on the school itself, thereby justifying that while education was largely a "state" matter administered to by local authority and initiative, with the federal government effectively determining winners and losers, with reconstitution and ultimately closure of schools the penultimate consequence of failing to move the children to the next level. The audit culture that has come down, labeling schools, teachers and kids as failures and sanctioning and shaming, has done irreparable harm to the morale, conditions and the experience of many schools, communities and families.

The key language of No Child Left Behind is founded in this passage:

> . . . the law calls for . . . teachers to "have the necessary subject matter, knowledge and teaching skills in the academic subjects [to be able] to help students meet challenging State student academic achievement standards."[v]

2.2. Race to the Top/Common Core

The *Race to the Top* initiative punishes schools and teachers, it ties teacher effectiveness being to pay-for-performance schemes, encouraging cheating (in Atlanta for example) and abuse of the validity and integrity of testing.

Race to the Top undermines public education by privileging charter school experiments over the neighborhood school. Indeed as results kept rolling in that charter schools are clearly not performing as well as the average public school (CREDO, 2009), there are also the disturbing segregative effects of charterization (especially of special education-designated students who are overrepresented in public schools compared with the charters). The Obama administration ratcheted up the stakes under Race to the Top, with more tests, and even tests for teachers, as well as cutting funds to the schools that were over tested and under resourced. In a cruel display, Obama and Duncan cheered the closing of schools, the indiscriminate firing of teachers, social workers and custodial staff, all under the guise of a "tough love" or "no excuses" approach. All the while, the brainchild of the National Governors Association (NGA) and the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) conspired to place the entire nation under "Common Core" State Standards, really a national curriculum, to raise the standards and expectations of students in schools across the nation. The Obama administration used waivers from the unpopular NCLB law to "leverage" compliance, undermine tenure, link pay for performance, and lift caps on charters, force states to accept Common Core State Standards (or a reasonable facsimile). The whole point of Race to the Top was to replace "needs based" funding with "incentives". Race to the Top ushered in an era of competition, but not amongst equals, and greed in the interest of not being closed . . . truly a race to the bottom.

Race to the top changes the "qualified" to "effective" as in Highly Effective Teacher, see the *ESEA Blueprint for Reform* 'rewarding' excellent teachers, providing funds to support and track those teachers, and expanding on the pathways for teacher preparation:

> **Effective teachers and principals.** We will elevate the teaching profession to focus on recognizing, encouraging, and rewarding excellence. We are calling on states and districts to develop and implement systems of teacher and principal evaluation and support, and to identify effective and highly effective teachers and principals on the basis of student growth and other factors. These systems will inform professional development and help teachers and principals improve student learning. In addition, a new program will support ambitious efforts to recruit, place, reward, retain, and promote effective teachers and principals and enhance the profession of teaching. (A Blueprint for Reform, 2010).

As stated by Price and Ross, this is a significant departure from the notion of professionalism, of the higher education community determining who is qualified and shifting that responsibility over to the federal government. While the reauthorization of NCLB stalled (one version has moved out of the House but is yet to be taken up in the Senate) . . .

> . . . one of the suggested 'reforms' of the law did catch on, that would be the call by *the Aspen Institute*[vi] to expand 'choice' and 'flexibility' options,[vii] and largely to add a 'E' for effective into the HQT equation, such that the federal

government would then support an HQET. Other professional organizations including the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) have joined suit, aiming to get the Congress to mandate an 'E' for 'Effective' into the nomenclature of teaching. (Price and Ross, 2011, p. 8)

2.3. Complicated Conversations: Teachers and Curriculum

I used a convenience sample in the broadest sense of the word, reflecting not on empirical evidence, but drawing from a diverse range of experience and experiences working with teacher education faculty and with teacher candidates over several years in a very complex organization that calls for much role re-evaluation and "shape-shifting" in order to endure the continual, on-going demand(s) of education under neoliberalism. In so doing I suggest that despite the danger of complicity with what rightly so is often characterized as the corporatist project for education which appears increasingly to reduce social space, critical thinking and complicated conversations around curriculum, there *nonetheless remain* and *continue to emerge* novel situational, temporal and conditional opportunities to reframe the role of the faculty, teacher education, and public education, let alone possibilities for students to learn and grow. I argue that we as curricularists need lead the way in the new era to reconceptualise curriculum with a focus on qualities rather than intended learning objectives.

Three interesting anecdotes among many, many abound. The first is from a elementary, male teacher, from an urban high needs school during discussion in the FND 510 *Social Justice Perspectives on the History and Philosophy of Education*, a introduction/survey course for many of our teacher education candidates/students at our college of education; the second is a reflection from a survey from one of our teacher candidates having completed a civic engagement/service learning project in the field of the New Orleans Louisiana Recovery School District; and the third is from one of my teachers of record, who, having graduated from an residential partnership program (the partner to my university being the Academy for Urban School Leadership) found herself on a picket line protesting, among other things, reduction in force (RIFs) and school closings that would dramatically impact her own class and students.

First, the male teacher; having completed a review of different philosophies, he fully appreciated the conditional, temporal, and situational nature of knowledge:

> My philosophical stance on education is in encapsulated in bits and pieces of the various models, however, I primarily believe my view on education tends to lend itself most to the Post Modernist stance. I believe that knowledge should be viewed through a critical lens, and post modernism shares the same perspective as critical theory. All knowledge can be deconstructed [in order to] determine whether or not the constructs of such knowledge are in alignment with our beliefs.

The second example is taken from one of the teachers from amongst the many who had returned from our NOLA-NLU service learning trip, setting up classrooms, putting in dry wall, logging into and creating library learning systems, providing tutorials to day care workers, and essentially working to "recover" students devastated by Hurricane Katrina and the lingering aftermath:

> In the end, you recognize that you have the choice of knocking persistently, asking for favors, savoring snow balls, and singing in the rain with new friends, and that this place and time and circumstance are only temporary, the waiting perhaps made more bearable and easily tolerated just because you know you can leave soon and go back to your more comfortable home and life. It dawns on you that this has been a blessed time and most welcomed experience shared with a wonderful and spirited team—and yet there is this little voice telling you that those people who live in this neighborhood don't always have a choice of whether or not to wait or to leave. Knowing that, you understand that you can't really go back to the way you were before.

The third teacher having graduated from a program that supports the idea of "turning around" schools herself protesting the continued planned school closures, which led her into teaching in the first place. Her paradox is described here:

> I'm out her because I think it is wrong that schools are being closed. I don't think that any school should be closed. Personally I'm a teacher, I've got 26 kids in my classroom with varying and special needs and to suggest that a school with 20 kids is underutilized (as was the case, by the unelected Chicago Board of Education) is ridiculous because that seems like a perfect number, it would allow me to move kids [forward in achievement] incredibly.

Without being too quixotic, these simple discourses/anecdotes share common features of complexity; they are grounded in the teacher's own belief system, and in their different contexts, they "evidence" a recognition of the need to actively engage in the struggle(s) over knowledge. Critical educators like teachers such as these, find themselves at the nexus of a new era, one where they will need to consider issues of advocacy and efficacy inscribed into and along with effectiveness discourse. They will need to be fully present while "navigating" education reform efforts, often not of their own making.

3. Conclusion

This essay, along with the other essays in this presentation, has attempted to describe the context under which teaching and teacher education finds itself today; guilty (of failing to effectively teach) until proven innocent (or successful at meeting its mission, and effectively moving forward teaching and learning and enacting in our teacher/learners the knowledge, skills and dispositions so that they can impart the same on their students). Beginning with the Commercial Club Curriculum years, the public school system has been compromised, altered in such a way as to literally serve as a dual-track system where kids are fairly early on sorted into two categories: vocational and administrative. Broadly speaking, and despite much resistance by civil rights and social justice groups to reform the system so that it serves the broader interests of empowerment, enfranchisement, and upward social mobility, to often the system has served to reinforce lines of division between the haves and the have nots. Curriculum matters; the idea that curriculum construction can be participatory and in the broadest interests of meliorating society is not new and needs to be reinvigorated today when the expanse of wealth and "opportunity" rather than the "achievement" gap has never been greater . . .

The essay continued to point out that major "current" education reform agendas such as NCLB and RTT have determined that the federal government is increasingly interested in and in the business of surveillance and monitoring of the entire education (curriculum, teaching and learning, assessment) "industry" and won't go away soon. In other words, curriculum matters have become not only areas of profit and plunder for large scale education service corporations and contractors, but is now of primary interest to the neo-liberal regulatory state.

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[i]. This term is attributed to the shift in the industrial economy to a service one wherein the middle-class is largely and negatively impacted, see for example: "At the city scall, Sassen has done a lot of researches of the FIRE influences to the Global Cities, such New York, London and Tokyo, since 1984.[4] She and a group of scholars like Feistein, argued that FIRE aggravated social inequality and polarization of these cities." http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/FIRE_economy#cite_note-4

[ii]. Hence the name of the chapter "Racing to the Top, Running for the Money" in my book *Defending Public Education from Corporate Takeover*.

[iii]. (uttered during his keynote address before the *International Association for the Advancement of Curriculum Studies,* 2012 in Rio De Janeiro, Brazil)

[iv]. Price, T. and Ross, H. "Race to the Top, Road to Where?" 2011 p. 7

[v]. Ibid.

[vi]. Charged by the federal government with suggesting changes to Congress for reauthorization of NCLB. See their document, findings, at: Commission on No Child Left Behind (Aspen Institute). 2007. *Beyond NCLB: fulfilling the promise to our nation's children*. Washington, D.C.: Aspen Institute.

[vii]. Ibid. Although reversing the order of the law's sanctions, reversing the order of 'choice' and 'supplemental services.'

Everyday Life Studies: a dialogue between theories, policies and the *thinking practicing* within curricula

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Introduction

My contribution for this Symposium is to problematize and reemphasize the notion of practices either to suggest the advantages of Everyday Life Studies as a way of understanding the social phenomena observed in schools' daily life as well to discuss how the way of doing research and teacher's education can be improved by a new paradigm that understands the non-hierarchical relation between knowledges[i] as social emancipation. Thereunto I will present some ideas we have been developed in the last several years of our research on curricula and teacher's education within everyday life in schools.

We investigate everyday life and the curriculum-as-a-lived experience (Aoki, 2005, p. 199-217) through continuous interaction between researchers and teachers. This relationship is based on partial, but valid, knowledge of fundamental pedagogical principles, often in contrast to standardized, scientifically accepted practices. The teacher–researcher relationship is also based on mutual respect and inventive interaction through nearly daily conversations about pedagogy and through learning together about teaching techniques, practices, and theories of curricula.

As a complicated conversation (Pinar, 2012, p. 195), curriculum takes place not only in schools, but in society as well. Understanding the dynamic of the people as a net and assuming the researcher as part of the network of the teacher, that could be viewed as the subject of the research in other paradigm, we choose to understand research and practice as an everyday life ongoing processes. That means we are trying to move past the scientific and technical understanding of education and we accept premises about the complexity (Morin, 1980; Alves, 2001; Doll, 1993) that can produce academic knowledge of the practices of everyday life in schools.

How? We listen to teachers' stories; ask for written and oral narratives, such as through free writing (Schneider, 2003, p. 22), alert for blame and proud gossips (Elias, 2000, p. 34) within the everyday life of schools (and the word "within" is deliberate to explain how immersed and committed we shall be). Why? Because we have a political commitment to teachers in acknowledging their work, their *thinking-doing[ii] within[iii] curriculum*. Because, like Howard Becker[iv], we know whose side we are on (1967).

1. Why listen to the stories that the teachers tell about their practices within classrooms everyday life?

We argue that ordinary teachers have been mischaracterized as passive consumers of ideas, only copying and reproducing knowledge. We argue, following Certeau (1994, p. 58), that ordinary people can subvert the rituals and representations which institutions seek to impose. With no clear understanding of everyday life, social science is bound to portray teachers as nonartists (meaning noncreators and nonproducers), passive and subject to received culture. Indeed, such a misinterpretation is condensed in the term "consumer." In Certeau, the concept "user" is offered instead; the concept of "consumption" is expanded to include the phrase "procedures of consumption," and later transformed into "tactics of consumption."

Appreciating teachers as producers of knowledge and inventors of tactics, we as researchers have to attend to the hidden voices as polyphony (Marcus, 1998, p. 135) or, as we learn from Aoki, we have to be wise enough to hear all the layered voices of teaching (2005, p. 187-165). We strongly believe that by conducting research in a partnership with teachers we can overcome the isolation of the Cartesian ego (Süssekind, 2010, p. 157; Aoki, 2005, p. 291-301) that results in the invisibility (Santos, 2000, p.12) of teachers and students (Süssekind, 2010, p. 147; Oliveira, 2003, p. 38). Together we seek social emancipation. In this context, social emancipation and cognitive justice are understood as a set of endless processual ongoing battles which means that social knowledge is a permanent negotiation, a communicative action, and that in the understanding of the world there is no place for fixed or aprioristic hierarchies.

2. Why everyday life as a premise and not simply a method?

What research methods enable us to pursue everyday life in schools? We encourage and promote conversations and free writing and "ask permission to be within" the everyday life of schools (Ferraço, 2003, p. 27) as the three major methods of conducting research in schools. Research itself becomes a *complicated* conversation, without recipe, method or protocol. There are clues, tips like follow the people, follow the plot and follow the allegory as we were told by postmodern ethnography (Marcus, 1998). Thus it is important to "ask permission to be within" the everyday life of schools (Ferraço, 2003, p. 27).

Research is nothing but "doing things together" (Becker, 1986, p. 2; Certeau, 1994, p. 95). All work proceeds with the voluntary participation of teachers and students. Such work is about establishing relationships, sharing knowledge, building wisdom, and being attentive to the layering of voices (Aoki, 2005, p. 187-198) as thoughtful and watchful classroom teachers want to relocate the authority of knowledge, and work less from logic than from experience (Dewey, cited by Doll and Trueit, In Pinar, 2012, p. 18).

Multisited and polyphonic studies are the premises for understanding and interpreting what the everyday life *practicers* say, do, feel and hide as ways of subverting, inverting, and reinventing and also obviously resisting the forces seeking to gain control of the everyday life within schools. The practices of teaching that we tell are considered rich and unique, and some are identified as emancipatory (Oliveira, 2003, p. 67), because all communicative action serves to transmit and renew cultural knowledge, in a process of achieving mutual understandings and moral consciousness (Habermas, 1984, p. 231). The sharing of social practices among teachers coordinates actions towards social integration and solidarity. Finally, communicative action among researchers, students, and schoolteachers is the process through which people form and live their identities and, as Habermas points out, at the theoretical level the requirements for achieving a rational consensus can be identified; while at the practical level of discourse, the concern is with interests that can be 'universalized.' Thus, Everyday Life Studies involve researching and sharing the experience of knowledge as premises.

Some questions to improve this conversation about epistemology and methodology could be thinking like: Do the students build their identities as teachers by hearing, experiencing, and telling their own stories? How do teachers and pedagogy students reinvent curriculum within everyday life classroom? What is in their narratives about practices within curriculum?

First, we believe that the narratives written by students about their observations and their dialogues within schools, as a frequent writing exercise can be more than a rich resource for research, it is also a curriculum practice for teacher's education. Second, we fight for a horizontal relationship among teachers and professors and between schools and universities, subverting the hegemonic idea that the academy invents knowledge and the school is a space of reproduction. Along these lines, Doll argues that we must listen to our students and be especially attuned to the situation that we are experiencing together. He seems to stand up, as we do, for the belief that if we understand and learn from the situation in which the students and the teacher are embedded, "[w]e can conclude that orality requires interaction which itself enables transformation" (2012, p. 203).

This means that we, as researchers within everyday life curriculum practices, advocate that the research that draws on stories and narratives as free writing, conversation, and "ask[ing] permission to be within" the everyday life of schools (, p.26, 2003) has a strong methodological and epistemological potential as a way of understanding curriculum in a contemporary perspective. It also means that teacher education is a field of knowledge and self-development that could be vastly improved by the practicing of free writing, self-narratives, and conversations as less- hierarchical methods of research and training. Beyond the improvement of education , they offer the possibility of changing the way we think about ourselves and reinforce the ties between the notions of memory, narratives, and knowledge nets. Thus, both in the classroom and in our research we work with narratives to improve the pedagogical and curricular process, informed by the perception that we are *subjectivities net* brought together by the multiple daily complexity we live in. To justify our work, we draw upon the ideas of Boaventura de Sousa Santos (2004) and the Alves (2001) extension of Michel de Certeau's theory, which argues that school *spacetime* can be understood as permanent invention of the *practicioners within everyday life of schools* and also as *knowledge nets* arising from the complexity and reflexivity of the classroom and the contemporary world (Pais, 2007).

In underlining the contribution of the narratives to the weaving of social emancipation and democracy (Oliveira, 2003 and Santos, 2001) the everyday life studies in curriculum researchers take as a premise that reality does not exist by itself; it exists in the narratives. The interpretation of the narratives also creates reality and in this sense the young researchers doing their on-the-job education were stimulated to follow plots and listen to stories within the everyday

life of schools, looking for interactions and using Ginzburg's indiciary paradigm (1989, p. 143) and the concept of culture as a permanent negotiation (Bourdieu, 2003; Geertz, 1973 and 2001).

Through the stories and narratives we can share practices and reinvent academic knowledge and social practices simultaneously. At the same time, we overcome the hierarchies that create a paradigmatic abyss (Santos, 2010, p. 31) between the producers and those who are defined as the reproducers of ideas and socially considered valid knowledge. The edge of this abyss might seem invisible, but its presence can be felt in all aspects of social organization, knowledge construction and daily school practices, materials, and curricula. Against this line and to prevent the consigning into the abyss of the minorities, the colonized, the South, all the nonscientific ways of understanding the world (and, also, the "bad" students) an epistemology of postcolonialism, cosmopolitanism, and unblindness is deployed.

By all these meanings we understand the school's everyday life as a spacetime of thinking and doing, replete with a multiplicity of social and academic knowledges that is always being reinvented by conversation. Also, the quotidian is a privileged field, in terms of understanding the complexity of social phenomena and knowledge as sharing the collectivity and uniqueness and not as individual property—but as a condition of existence of human beings. That's why we acknowledge the work of teachers in everyday life and think that we should listen to them more often and carefully. In our view the teacher's narrative is the art of thinkingdoing within curriculum, it is as a unique and thoughtful way of building the world in everyday life. As Aoki says, It is more than knowledge; it is wisdom (2005, p. 209-211). We also concur with Pinar, who said: "[T]he teacher is in this sense an artist; complicated conversation is her or his medium" (2012, p. 193).

Teacher's narratives lead us to a better understanding of the idea of 5of voices in the classroom and the importance that Aoki attributes to unfolding them with a "pedagogical listening" (Aoki, in Pinar and Irwin, 2005, p. 17-23). In addition, for Pinar

> We teachers are always, to some extent conceived by the others, by the expectations and fantasies of our students and demands of parents, administrators, policymakers, and politicians, to all of whom we are sometimes, the "other." We are formed as well by their and our internalized life stories. (2012, p. 194)

The acknowledgements of the narratives, in this particular case but not exclusively, also makes it possible for the classroom to be a landscape (Aoki, 2005, 199-218) characterized by polyphony and multiplicity, which constitutes emancipatory practices within curriculum (Oliveira, 2003, p.16). In this sense, curriculum is a palimpsest (Pinar, 2012; Certeau, 1994).

Above all, the narratives provide many plots and stories that we can follow in order to understand and improve the practices within curriculum and the processes of teacher education. These narratives are full of complexity and clues about what knowledge is and what it is not. Also, the narratives can be interpreted as spaces of knowledge and its absence (Augé, 1994, p. 71). By following some clues we can learn more about ourselves and also improve our understanding of the alterity within the everyday life of schools.

> This founding is precisely the primary role of the story. It opens a legitimate *theater* for practical *actions*.[v] (Certeau, p.125)

Certeau here calls our attention to the role of the stories/narratives as a field of social practice/action. The story is a *spacetime* of interaction, like a theater. And what looks more like a theater than a classroom?

Each story, each narrative brings with it its storyteller and its memories (Garcia and Alves, 2001, p. 17), and also its historicity and context. We could quote Pinar, Doll, Giroux, Alves or others—they will give us a similar description through which to understand the complexity, dynamism, relationality, and historicity of curriculum. For Aoki, curriculum is a lived-experience, in which there is an indissociable relation between *episteme* and *sofia* and a deep ocean of "not yet" and multiplicities and possibilities (2005, p. 157-165). For Oliveira, teachers and students are *thinkingpracticing within curriculum* and can produce social, moral, and emancipatory knowledge (2003, p.3). For Ferraço, it is a permanent negotiation, almost a noisy auction (2003, p. 16). Pulling the strings of our subjectivities net (Alves, 2001; Santos, 2004) and bringing up the multiple daily contexts we live in—weaving the nets of the others—we lived the teacher's education curricula as an experiences (ref. to curriculum-as-lived-experience: Aoki, 2005, p. 157-165). So, as a narrative on experiences, curriculum is a theater of practices (Süssekind, 2010, p. 155).

Some can argue that stories that Everyday Life Studies tell could look harmless and naïve. They can be treated as nothing but they are steeped in the deep and ordinary human power in which the interaction lies. For Doll, interaction enables transformation. For Habermas, communication extends into emancipation. For Pinar, curriculum is conversation; it is *currere* and is complicated. For us, curriculum as conversation is also at the same time both

Goffmann's face-to-face interaction (1982) and Certeau's ordinary *bricolage.*[vi] And because of that it is as good as invisible to scientific reason, which throws all curricular practices into the abyss of no-knowledge.

Finally, we argue that there is a political intention when we use the notions of the ordinary, the net of knowledge, *practicers*, the theater of actions, and so forth. Thinking within nets and telling stories have been tactics used by the *practicers* of everyday life (Certeau, 1994). When somebody tells you a story, both you and the person are having a unique experience of learning, thinking, and transforming the world.

3. Finishing a never-ending conversation

We engage in the debate on the "newness" of Everyday Life Studies and the risks of dissociating theory from practice by a specific reading of the concept of everyday life on which the field rests. We argue that our studies in Brazil resolve this problem by developing epistemological notions and coining terms such as "curriculos *pensadospraticados"*—which we translate as *thinkingpracticing within curricula*, or, the understanding of the inseparability of policies and practices because of their ongoing entanglement through a deepening and redirection of Ball's policy cycle formulation (2001). In this sense, the term seeks to reemphasize "practice" in all its complexity at the center of theoretical debate in the field of curriculum and thus more effectively outflank both the traditional theories that treat practice as a "black box" and even the privileges that Ball attaches to the cycles of influence[vii].

Thus, we suggest thinking about how relations between the field of curriculum and *practices within curricula* themselves need to be understood and refined in order to understand the identity and role of the teacher as thinker, consumer, and practitioner in the sense attributed to those words by Michel de Certeau (1994) in their full dimension of dynamism. Wherefore, teachers weave knowledge and create culture and their stories are full of knowledges about curricular practices, teacher's identities and teacher's education. That's why we believe that teacher education is a field of knowledge and self-development that could be vastly improved by the emphasizing the practice as valid knowledge about curriculum and teacher's education. Also, we suggest that those improvements could be reached practicing the free writing, self-narratives, and conversations as less- hierarchical methods of research and specially training.

There has been a great deal of consideration of curriculum as an official document that prescribes items of cultural transmission and enhances our understanding of schools as places of reproduction and transmission. Furthermore, scholars have investigated its relation to the understanding of school *spacetime* as a cultural and everyday life invention. The tensions and complementarity of these perspectives testify, not only in our opinion not only a new understanding of *evidence*, to the depth, quality, and uniqueness of the research done by Brazilian scholars and William F. Pinar (2011) in the area of curriculum.

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[i] Scientific knowledge is not the only one, not even the better one. According to Santos, there is a relationship between the Modern Science and other knowledges based on: hierarchy, blindness, monoculture and epistemicide (2001, 2011).

[ii] The notion of thinking-doing from Oliveira (2007, p. 68) tell us about the importance of recognize in the work of the teachers as an permanent invention, creation, subversion and weaving of cultures, knowledges and policies for education.

[iii] We are applying the neologism practices within curricula.

[iv] In his famous article he stands up for the "side" that we researchers of society belong politically when we do, supposedly, not political but scientific research.

[v] In the original work in French and in the Portuguese version, the words "action" and "story" will appear as "practice"/"narrative" and *prática/narrativa*. That's why we are going to keep the words practice and narrative.

[vi] Or patchwork.

[vii] We mean that S. Ball, in 2001, acknowledged the role of the teachers, and in a way, the importance of the practices with his "cycles" but for us, this is not enough.

Teacher Educators' Teaching of Professional Judgment –
Grounds for Discussion

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Abstract

The purpose of this contribution is to make some grounds for discussion regarding teacher educators' task of helping their students to enhance their professional judgment in times when calls for evidence-based practice in education tend to steer focus away from it. The first part contains some conceptual remarks regarding judgment and its relation to evidence. The second touches upon the conditions in which teachers in many countries try to practice their judgment are addressed. Thirdly, the role of teacher educators is discussed in light of a model that visualizes conflicts regarding trust and importance of issues such as social justice. In the end questions of what teacher educators committed to social justice can or should do regarding professional judgment given the circumstances concludes the text.

Keywords: evidence-based; teacher education, teacher judgment; professional judgment; teacher professionality

The purpose of this contribution is to make some grounds for discussion regarding teacher educators' task of helping their students to enhance their professional judgment in times when calls for evidence-based practice in education steer focus away from it. In the first part I make some conceptual remarks regarding judgment and its relation to evidence. I continue by briefly visiting the conditions in which teachers in many countries try to practice their judgment, and end with a few somewhat provoking thoughts regarding teacher educators and the role they can or should have given the circumstances.

1. Evidence and judgment

In the neo-liberal reform climate addressed by Price in the paper above, centralized reform initiatives aimed at insuring "productivity gains" policy-makers even mandate so called "teacher proof curricula" (see e.g. Apple, 1990), in order to prevent any bad judgments from teachers. Apple argues that the pressurized conditions under which teachers work also influenced the standardization, which contributes to de-professionalization (Apple, 2004).

The evidence discourse emerged from the medical field and has spread to other fields such as social work and education (Krejsler, 2013). Biesta (2007) criticizes the calls for evidence-based practice in education on several points, raising concerns that scientific control over educational practice may stand in tension with democratic control, where evidence-based education favors a technocratic model in which it becomes very difficult to discuss value issues. He means that if discussions are not brought further than what constitutes the most effective education, then the questions of what it should be effective for or who should have a say in what counts as effective does not become an issue (Biesta, 2009; Bogotch, Mirón, & Biesta, 2007) which threatens the democratic foundation of educational practices. That is, there may be more "effective" ways to educate students such as electric shock treatment, but these are commonly viewed as inappropriate based on moral, not scientific, arguments.

The question of the incommensurability of the natural and social sciences has been recurrent (e.g. Bruner, 1996; Polkinghorne, 2004; Van Manen, 1990), and more specifically in relation to teacher knowledge (e.g. Clark & Peterson, 1986; Connelly, Clandinin, & Ming Fang, 1997; Doyle, 2006; Grimmett & Erickson, 1988). Moreover, according to Biesta (2007) the implementation of evidence-based practice builds on a "*causal mode of professional action*" (p. 7) in which a certain intervention always leads to the same result. This basis, he avers, does not take into account that education is not a process of physical interaction, education is symbolically mediated and depends on mutual interpretation which always holds the possibility for misunderstanding (see also Biesta, 2004). Building on complexity theory and the idea of *emergence*, knowledge emerges from the student's interaction with the environment which means that what the student actually learns cannot be *controlled* beforehand (Osberg & Biesta, 2010).

Temporally, 'evidence' can only refer with certainty to what has worked in the past, not what will work in the future (see Biesta, 2007). Another concern is that the significance of the present becomes marginalized in discussions of professional judgment. As I have discussed elsewhere (Frelin, in press) teachers' discretionary judgment is exercised in the everyday jumble of the classroom in which the present is ever-changing. Drawing on Beckett (1996) and Beckett and Hager (2002) I build an argument where the present is highlighted, because as it changes every action or non-action, like a hesitation, changes the situation and may make previous bases for judgment obsolete. Using examples of teachers' accounts of making judgments, I introduce the distinction between *knowing* and *sensing*, which roughly translates to what the teacher knows from before, about the context, group and/or child, as differing from what takes place between the teacher and the child, the often non-verbal communication that is unique for the particular moment in which the teacher makes the judgment:

By analytically distinguishing between knowing and sensing, the significance of the unique present as part of a professional judgment is underlined. It is suggested that, from a temporal perspective, knowing is used to describe the bases of judgment that are brought to the present moment (knowledge learned in the past), while sensing is used for the bases of judgment formed in the present moment (the unique encounter involving sight, hearing and other senses) (Frelin, in press).

In closing: The pressure for efficiency and evidence is part of a larger movement in education that has had profound consequences for the educational sector, affecting relationships from macro to micro level in ways that are, paradoxically, not particularly educational.

2. Judgment in context

Research on teacher knowledge and expertise largely agrees that experience in making informed judgments about various issues is important (Björklund, 2008; Borko, Bellamy, & Sanders, 1992; Hoekstra, Beijaard, Brekelmans, & Korthagen, 2007; Kagan & Tippins, 1992; Leinhardt, 1990). In order to be able to discuss and understand the particulars of teachers' professional judgment, student teachers need theoretical concepts that can guide them, as indicated by Liljestrand in his paper, regarding complicated issues such as how to promote justice and democracy. It can even be that it is particularly in the situations where there are no straight-forward problems or answers that judgment is particularly necessary (see e.g. Carr, 2000, see also Schön, 1983). The judgments that teachers make in the process of solving a problem determine the kind of problems that are constructed, which solutions are applied and who is perceived as responsible for the problem (Frelin, 2010). That is, the "conversation with a situation" that Schön refers to is political.

Whereas the assumption that teachers need to be able to exercise good judgment is rather unproblematic, the issue of to what extent they are actually allowed to practice it is far more complicated. When the educational sector is reformed using corporal logic under the influence of powerful actors such as the OECD and World bank (Ball, 2003) and taxpayers are demanding value for money in a time of shrinking public finances, teachers work is intensified (Apple, 2007; Hargreaves, 2000; Lindblad & Goodson, 2011). That is, when teachers have to spend all their energy on coping they cannot practice reflection, discussion and professional development which would sharpen their judgment. And in this downward spiral the need for standardized curricula, textbooks and tests seems natural.

The space for professional judgment can vary (Webb, 2002), although for many teachers, and in several ways, it has become narrowed in the contemporary educational climate. Teachers' possibilities for exercising judgment becomes challenged when they, for example, are pressured to disregard educational opportunities that emerge in the moment because they do not meet standardized curricula demands (Au, 2011; Wills, 2006), or refrain from touching a student despite their sensing that it would be educationally beneficial to do so (Newberry & Davis, 2008). Teachers also, in order to protect themselves against reproach, tend to manage their risk taking (Andrzejewski & Davis, 2008; Lindqvist & Nordänger, 2011; Lindqvist & Nordänger, 2006). Moreover as Biesta (2007) notes, the assumption that evidence-based "what works"-approaches can replace situated judgment denies practitioners the right to act otherwise if they judge that such a line is educationally undesirable (for an example, see Craig, 2010). Practicing judgment takes space and time, as Süssekind addressed above, and when the organizational conditions work against it teachers are left juggling daily dilemmas with insufficient means.

In closing: As part of a larger de-professionalization trend in times of New Public Management and privatization of schools, teachers' autonomy is being circumcised in ways that are problematic from an educational standpoint.

3. Teacher education

Teacher education and educators have been under systematic attacks (e.g. Edling, 2012) when they insist on providing teacher students with tools to actually think and critique, to exercise judgment; one underlying logic for the attacks being that any content that does not adhere to a very narrow definition of science and evidence is disqualified from higher education curricula and syllabi.

In order to facilitate the discussion I suggest the following model, which can be used for several cases. Here, it is applied to teacher educators and the issue of professional judgment for promoting complex issues such as social justice. The questions asked are: (1) do the involved (here: mainly university management and students) trust the teacher educators and (2) is the issue considered important?

Figure 1: A model for discussion.

Trust	Yes	No
Important	Yes	No

If all involved in teacher education there is no conflict, however, if the the involved have different issue or of the ability of teacher becomes dilemmatic. Given a educators are ordered to teach regarding issues that require answer both questions yes or no lines are crossed, so to speak, or if opinions of the importance of an educators to teach the situation situation in which teacher only evidence based methods delicate professional judgment that cannot be evidence based, and only to certain extent evidence informed, the teacher educators are themselves required to use their professional judgment for tackling this dilemma. As I have asked elsewhere: is it more professional to try to handle the complexities generated by external circumstances than to object to these very circumstances? (Frelin, 2013).

Moreover, considering the future work situation for the new teachers, especially those committed to working with students for whom schools should be able to make the most difference, but who are consigned to scripted and constricted lessons (unless they dare to fly below the radar) - what good does it do to open them up to learning how to be wise teachers if the first thing they must do is disregard from it? When they are required to disregard their felt responsibilities in favor of their given responsibilities (cf Edling & Frelin, 2013)? Are they in fact better served by learning only how to be successful rule followers based on the best possible evidence?

Providing that the answer to this question is no, how can teacher educators address this dilemma and teach their teacher students how to work within it?

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