

International trends in preparation of early childhood teachers in a changing world

Edited by

Józefa Bałachowicz
Krystyna Nowak-Fabrykowski
Zuzanna Zbróg



WYDAWNICTWO AKADEMII PEDAGOGIKI SPECJALNEJ

**International trends
in preparation
of early childhood teachers
in a changing world**

International trends in preparation of early childhood teachers in a changing world

Edited by

Józefa Bałachowicz
Krystyna Nowak-Fabrykowski
Zuzanna Zbróg



Wydawnictwo
Akademii Pedagogiki Specjalnej

Warszawa 2017

Recenzowała
Prof. dr hab. Joanna Madalińska-Michalak

Projekt okładki
Anna Gogolewska

Ilustracja na okładce
iStock/lvcandy

Redakcja, korekta
Zespół

Publikacja dofinansowana przez
Akademię Pedagogiki Specjalnej im. Marii Grzegorzewskiej
ze środków na działalność statutową

Copyright © by Wydawnictwo Akademii Pedagogiki Specjalnej
Warszawa 2017

ISBN 978-83-64953-84-2

CONTENTS

Prologue	7
----------------	---

SECTION 1 TEACHERS EDUCATION – CHOSEN ISSUES

<i>Krystyna Nowak-Fabrykowski</i>	
1. Current Trends in Teacher Education and Evaluation in the USA	19
<i>Kirsti Vindal Halvorsen</i>	
2. Reorienting Teacher Education by Building Partnership in a Changing World: Multiple Perspectives	33
<i>Józefa Bałachowicz</i>	
3. The Idea of Sustainable Development as a Context for Modifying the Discourse on Early Childhood Education in Teacher Training: a Polish and Norwegian Project's Value Added	54
<i>Marzenna Nowicka and Ewa Skrzetuska</i>	
4. Training of Early Childhood Education Teachers in Poland, Changes in Training and Employers' Expectations	79
<i>Zhivka Ilieva</i>	
5. Primary and Pre-Primary Teacher Education in Bulgaria	105

SECTION 2 STUDENT TEACHERS – RESEARCH REPORTS

<i>M^a Elena Gómez Parra, Dalila Lino, Esra F. Molu and Cristina A. Huertas Abril</i>	
6. Play, Education, Toys, and Languages (PETaL): an International Master's Programme for the Education of 21 st Century Early Childhood Teachers	121

- Íris Susana Pires Pereira and Flávia Vieira*
- 7.** The Critical Role of Writing in Inquiry-Based Pre-Service Teacher Education 136
- Mary Young and Duncan Reavey*
- 8.** Embedding Global Citizenship in Initial Teacher Education 162
- Zuzanna Zbróg*
- 9.** Research into the Dynamics of University Students' Social Representations of Early Childhood Education – Change and Stability 184

Section 3
PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT
OF PRESCHOOL AND EARLY YEARS SCHOOL TEACHERS

- Suzanne Gatt and Charlotte Zammit*
- 10.** The Challenges of Implementing Inquiry Science in Primary Schools 207
- Sue Lyle*
- 11.** Narrative Understanding as the Primary Meaning Making Tool and the Capacity of Young Children to Engage in Abstract Conceptual Thinking in the Context of Story and Play 224
- Stefan T. Kwiatkowski*
- 12.** Between Submission and Independence – Locus of Control as a Factor Determining the Choosing of The Teaching Profession and Teacher Efficacy 250
- Epilogue 285
- Józefa Bałachowicz, Krystyna Nowak-Fabrykowski and Zuzanna Zbróg*
- Biography of Authors 293

Józefa Bałachowicz
Krystyna Nowak-Fabrykowski
Zuzanna Zbróg

PROLOGUE

Global socioeconomic and cultural change pose new challenges for schools and the preparation of children for living and working in a constantly changing world. It is therefore extremely important to have professional teacher training that will help teachers to be open-minded about new paradigms and create adequate educational practices. *What should the professional preparation be? How should such professional preparation be understood, and in what light? How should the professional development of preschool and early childhood educators be supported to ensure that these teachers will be reflective practitioners, that they will be responsible learners regarding the teaching profession, and that they will continue their learning to initiate changes and partnerships with children and for children? How can teachers be prepared to work in a multicultural society? How can they be prepared to be caring teachers?*

By inviting contributions from academic teachers of preservice teachers, we hoped to foster scientific discussion and reflection in the international community that would include an interdisciplinary, panoramic view of the reality of future (educated) teachers from the perspective of international research as well as detailed analyses of the problems faced by teachers of young children in the specific cultural contexts of individual countries. We believe that a discussion of problems related to the education of young children's teachers from international perspectives will provide an opportunity to understand the complexity of the process's determinants. On the one hand, readers of this monograph can per-

ceive problems that are not perceived when only looking through the lens of local cultures, and the contributions can also inspire solutions through projects and actions that are realistic and feasible for other countries. To change how teachers are educated, opportunities need to be recognized, and yet the various entanglements and systemic barriers that are perceived from the sole perspective of one's own country may seem incomprehensible.

In addition to specific educational issues related to different cultural contexts, certain themes in this collection are common to all countries because they are associated with dynamic global change. Here we refer, among other things, to the faster pace of development of modern technology, which has changed the learning profiles of both children and adults, pedagogical knowledge and knowledge about the reality they live in, and above all, the democratization of education. Questions such as the following seem to be ever present: *What role do professional studies have in preparing future teachers for change, and what should students learn during these studies? How should the practices of higher education be changed so that future teachers will change prevalent school practices? How can we develop the dispositions necessary for teachers to be ethical and professional?* Besides knowledge and skills, the new generation of early childhood teachers must also have a disposition to care (Nowak-Fabrykowski, 2011) and be able to follow the profession's ethical code (Feeney, Freeman & Pizzolongo, 2012). These teachers must be able to help children develop prosocial behavior (Nowak-Fabrykowski, 2013; Nowak-Fabrykowski, Gursky *et al.*, 2016) that will help them to live and work with a diversity of people.

If we want to make a profound change in the area under investigation, all of us (academics, in-service teachers, and future teachers) must participate in the efforts made towards a paradigm shift, or changes in assumptions: from transmission to transformation, from behavioral to constructivist approaches, from teaching information towards a paradigm of learning in a social context (Darling-Hammond & Brensford, 2005). These will come from a change of orientation in the current approach to teacher education: from functionalist and technological to humanist and personalist, from passive to reflective teachers.

There is presently an emphasis in teacher preparation on teaching the implementation of developmentally appropriate practices (Copple & Bredekamp, 2009), based on the philosophy that children are active learners who learn through play and who demonstrate what they know in multiple ways (Gardner & Perkins, 1989). Teachers who implement these practices are considered to be guides (Stra-

chota, 1996) who ask real questions and help children to also ask questions and solve problems. These teachers implement a constructive philosophy of teaching in their classrooms (DeVries *et al.*, 2001).

Although learning through play is emphasized in Developmentally Appropriate Practice and stressed by researchers and organizations like the National Association for Education of Young Children and the Association for Childhood Education International, it is too seldom implemented in today's early childhood classrooms beyond preschool. Even though researchers such as Anderson, Spainhower, and Sharp (2014), Piaget (1960), Salomon (2010), Samuelsson-Pramling and Johanson (2006), and Sterling-Honing (2007) have demonstrated the link between play and creativity that is necessary for achieving in the modern, constantly changing world, many early childhood teachers still prefer to use worksheets rather than manipulatives and open-ended activities.

In many countries, early childhood teachers continue to practice the transmission of ready-made knowledge, perceiving that students should absorb information and also that they should be polite, sit obediently on benches, and learn primarily by listening to the teacher and following instructions. Changing the educational model to one in which students are perceived as active researchers, responsible for constructing their own knowledge, self-directed, motivated, and curious (asking questions and seeking answers) requires changes in the college preparation of teachers as well as changes in the practices they employ in preschools and schools. The new educational model requires a change in the child's mind and the child's learning, and active participation in his or her development.

Modifying or transforming the model of work in a preschool or school is a tedious, lengthy task that is dependent on ongoing learning and support from educators and methodological advisers and the openness and enthusiasm of school and preschool directors – clear, schematic, mechanical work to change familiar schema and methods of working, as old traditions and practices are difficult to change. Limitations such as the curriculum or curriculum monitoring requirements, rigid evaluation criteria, and evaluations and other tasks that are imposed on schools have a negative impact on teacher motivation and pedagogical innovation. The teachers are more likely to fear and resist change and instead seek safety in familiar, customary patterns of conduct.

DO WE HAVE FIDELITY IN THE TEACHING AND TEACHER PROFESSION? (NODDINGS, 1986)

However, the experiences of academic teachers and practitioners show that there are many enthusiasts among us regarding transformation, innovators who prove that change, albeit slow, is possible. The strategies we adopt may be slow, involving multiple years and be gradual, systematic, and peaceful, or they may be violent processes that dynamically break with the old model (see Boyd, 2014; Mias, 2011). Recognizing that changing the model of working with children requires a change in the education and training of teachers and, above all, a modification of the educational philosophy of future students, we must discuss the need to revise and update requirements. In recent years, a number of publications have described changes in academic culture, primarily related to the professional development of academic teachers (e.g., Boyd, Szplit & Zbróg, 2014; Vaz-Rebelo *et al.*, 2015), the academic education of future teachers (e.g., Bałachowicz & Adamek, 2017; Boyd & Szplit, 2016) and the professional development of teachers and practitioners (Adamek & Bałachowicz, 2013; Day & Gu, 2014; Fullan & Langworthy, 2014; Boyd, P., Hymer, P. & Lockney, 2015; Prain *et al.*, 2015). The authors of these papers identify the conditions for such changes and their consequences. The rich literature is largely theoretical, analytical, and essayistic, with few empirical studies, including studies of international projects. In this monograph, we try to complement this research. The specificities of educating future teachers of young children in different countries are themselves different due to diverging sociocultural and socioeconomic conditions. This monograph provides a multilateral picture of the process of preparing prospective teachers for the early education teacher profession. At the same time, the differences arising from the different cultural contexts can be a source of inspiration from which we can derive ideas for change by learning from each other. The concepts, ideas, and specific solutions implemented in international projects as well as country-specific empirical research may be the impetus for important changes in individual countries. In addition, varying orientations, models, and approaches to teacher education can also provide theoretical and methodological inspiration for the prospective teachers' early professional career research and for changing pre-primary and early-school practices. This is important; as the examples of some of the OECD's most developed countries (e.g., Finland and Ireland) show, the socioeconomic development of a country is closely linked to the quality and working conditions of its teachers.

The profession is chosen by the best candidates in these countries, and the teaching profession is one of the most sought after and socially respected.

THE NEED TO CHANGE THE EDUCATION SYSTEM FOR POLISH TEACHERS

The issue of teacher education in Poland was recently investigated by the Supreme Chamber of Control (NIK; *Exercising the profession of teacher ...*, 2017). The latest report shows that teacher

education requires a dramatic change and that the teaching profession, as a profession of public trust, should be a special state concern since teachers are educating the next generation of young people. Many serious allegations in this report indicate that:

1. There is a lack of mechanisms and tools for screening candidates for a socially responsible teaching profession. There are no recruitment criteria for pedagogical studies, such as professional predispositions or thresholds for admissions (NIK, p. 7). As a result, unqualified postgraduates are increasingly admitted to teaching positions. In addition, pedagogical studies are perceived to be easy (Smak & Walczak, 2015, p. 30).
2. There is also a lack of procedures during training for monitoring candidates' suitability for training, suggesting a need to change the procedure for obtaining professional qualification by introducing an external state examination to objectively verify that teacher competencies have been acquired. This is especially important now that the number of graduates in teacher education is disproportionate to the needs of schools and kindergartens (NIK, p. 6).
3. The education of future teachers is carried out by many different institutions (universities, polytechnics, pedagogical academies, economics academies, physical education academies, agricultural academies, music academies, higher education institutions, and teacher training institutions). This raises the risk that the education is of insufficient quality and the cost for public institutions is excessive and disproportionate to the number of educators needed, so that many of the graduates do not have an opportunity for employment in schools and educational institutions.
4. The process of training candidates for being teachers is not systematically streamlined or perfected. Higher education institutions do not specifically

provide for the proper preparation of pedagogical practices (*ibidem*, p. 7). As a result, only slightly more than one third of the students completing first- and second-year studies in the academic year 2015/2016 indicated that they felt prepared to pursue a career in the teaching profession. In the students' opinion, changes in the process of training teacher candidates are needed, especially the following:

- an extension of practical classes with a corresponding reduction of theoretical classes (according to 31.5% of the students),
- an orientation of study programs toward gaining practical skills (28.0%),
- an improvement in psychological preparation (14.0%),
- a pedagogical orientation to work in school (14.0%), and
- the support of practitioners both in the classroom and at university (9.4%; *ibidem*, p. 8).

MAIN DIRECTIONS FOR PROPOSED CHANGES

Early school educators and academics working in this field have experienced all the consequences of mass, wide open blocked earlier opportunities for academic education and its marketing (see, for example, Zbróg, 2014, pp. 37–40). Throughout the period of rapid growth in the number of students in Polish higher education institutions, early school education and pre-primary education were among the most popular areas of study. The objections raised in the NIK report on the quality of teacher education are the result of, among other things, universal access to pedagogical studies. Recent proposals for change have referred primarily to a reduction in the enrollment in teacher education and monitoring the number of graduates. Urgent revisions are required in the educational standards for preparation for the teaching profession, most importantly, an increase in the number of hours of practical study required for the first degree. These proposals, which are characteristic of the government report, address very general issues and ignore the essence of teacher education and its adaptation to the changing world. Today's (higher) schools must make a clear shift to education in order to help young people understand and select their values, develop their learning skills, act as members of the community, and shape the future based on the sustainable values of democracy, cooperation, interdependence, and solidarity. What type of teacher will be able to develop an open educational practice? This teacher will probably be

a well-trained professional, guided by a vision of his or her pedagogical activity, capable of responding to variations in local and global contexts, open to dialogue, and able to develop positive attitudes towards the community, with students who construct knowledge and are capable of creative thinking, critical thinking, and their own reflective work—since the teacher understands the value of a child's learning and personal involvement in it and inspires student interest as well as the need for continuous learning (Bałachowicz & Adamek, 2017, p. 210). This is a challenge not only for academics but also for the entire educational community. We are still struggling with the dominance of a behavioral school model based on knowledge transmission, authoritarian and hierarchical relationships, arbitrary goals and effects, a lack of trust, frequently a lack of pedagogical ambition, and escape from long-term action. It is therefore necessary and reasonable to consider changing the situation and to consider ideas for the transformation of future (educated) teachers in the context of both theoretical and practical activities undertaken in different countries.

SUMMARY

The concept of the professional development of preschool and early childhood teachers requires constant analysis and modification. Changing socioeconomic conditions have led to the necessity to undertake new efforts to adequately prepare candidates for the teaching profession, taking into account the needs of young people in a changing world. There are still initiators of school and education reform, teachers who wish to change the still-dominant traditional school model in order to change school culture. We support the view that systemic change requires bottom-up reform, including social awareness of the necessary transformation and deep reflection on whether proposed modifications take the form of realistic change, or are a sham because they are unmanageable within a certain timeframe. The much broader context of deliberations thus requires us to be aware both of what we are able to change in the process of educating future teachers and what cannot be changed in the perspective of several years of preparation during formal studies. This raises further questions about how to improve the professional work of teachers and organize their professional development.

Our intention was to prepare a publication that would require the creative engagement of its authors with a variety of pedagogical experiences, so we sent our

invitation to collaborate to researchers and practitioners from various academic centers and schools. Researchers from the UK, the USA, Portugal, Spain, Turkey, Norway, Malta, Bulgaria, and Poland responded to our proposal. The authors carefully chose their subject matters, considering their research interests, while remaining connected to the subject matter of the monograph. The exchange of ideas resulted in a unified whole, which we have divided into three sections: one theoretical section and two research sections on the education of future teachers in higher education and on the professional development of teachers already working in kindergartens and schools. We believe that the great value of this monograph is that it presents the results of research that is already completed, both large international projects and practical educational activities of a more local nature but no less important, and that is related to daily pedagogical efforts, which are most often accompanied by enthusiasm and passionate commitment to “change the world for the better.” We hope that the proposals for systemic changes as well as studies of the latest trends in early childhood education in different countries will prove an interesting context for reflection and will inspire further scientific reflection and subsequent theoretical and empirical research that will contribute to fruitful changes in early childhood teacher education.

REFERENCES

- Adamek, I. & Bałachowicz, J. (eds.) (2013). *Kompetencje kreatywne nauczycieli wczesnej edukacji dziecka*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Anderson, G.T, Spainhower R. D. & Sharp, A.C. (2014). ‘Where Do the Bears Go?’ The Value of Child-Directed Play. *Young Children*, 69(2), 28-14.
- Bałachowicz, J. & Adamek, I. (eds.) (2017). *Kreatywność jako wymiar profesjonalizacji przyszłych nauczycieli wczesnej edukacji*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo APS.
- Bennett, T. (2016). *Developing Behaviour Management Content for Initial Teacher Training*. London: Departament for Education.
- Boyd, P. (2014). Using ‘Modelling’ to Improve the Coherence of Initial Teacher Education. In P. Boyd, A. Szplit & Z. Zbróg (eds.), *Teacher Educators and Teachers as Learners – International Perspectives* (pp. 51-73). Kraków: Libron.
- Boyd, P., Hymer, P. & Lockney, K. (2015). *Learning Teaching: becoming an inspirational teacher*. St Albans: Critical Publishing.

- Boyd, P. & Szplit, A. (eds.) (2016). *Student Teachers Learning Through Inquiry: International Perspectives*. Kraków: Attyka. Available at: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/311902283>
- Boyd, P., Szplit, A. & Zbróg Z. (eds.) (2014). *Teacher Educators and Teachers as Learners –International Perspectives*. Kraków: Libron. Available at: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/311923034>
- Copple, C. & Bredekamp, S. (2009). *Developmentally Appropriate Practice in Early Childhood Programs*. Washington, D.C.: NAEYC.
- Darling-Hammond L. & Brensford, J. (eds.) (2005). *Preparing Teachers for a Changing World: What Teachers Should Learn and Be Able to Do*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Day, C. & Gu, Q. (2014). *Resilient Teachers, Resilient Schools: Building and sustaining quality in testing times*. London: Routledge.
- DeVries, R., Zan, B., Hildebrant, C., Edmiaston, R. & Sales, Ch. (2001). *Developing Constructivist Early Childhood Curriculum*. New York, New York: Teachers College Press.
- Feeney, S., Freeman, N. & Pizzolongo, P. (2012). *Ethics and the Early Childhood Educator. Using the NAEYC Code*. Washington, DC: NAEYC.
- Fullan, M. & Langworthy, M. (2014). *A rich seam: How new pedagogies find deep learning*. London: Pearson.
- Gardner, H. & Perkins, D. (1989). *Art, mind and education*. Chicago: University of Illinois Press.
- Mias, Ch. (2011). Training and Ruptures. In M. Chaib, B. Danermark, S. Selander (eds.), *Education, Professionalization and Social Representations. On the Transformation of Social Knowledge* (pp. 158-168). London: Routledge.
- NIK. [Exercising the Profession of Teacher]. *Przygotowanie do wykonywania zawodu nauczyciela. Informacja o wynikach kontroli* (2017). Warszawa: Departament Nauki, Oświaty i Dziedzictwa Narodowego. Available at: <https://www.nik.gov.pl/plik/id,13081,vp,15493.pdf>; Accessed: 31.03.2017.
- Noddings, N. (1986). Fidelity in teaching, teacher education, and research for teaching. *Harvard Educational Review*, 56(4), 496-510.
- Nowak-Fabrykowski, K. (2011). *Different Perspectives on Caring: Making Caring a Metacognitive Activity*. New York: Linus.
- Nowak-Fabrykowski, K. (2013). Comparative Analysis of Young Children's Prosocial Behaviors in the United States, Turkey, and Poland (with C. Dincer, E. Lewandowska, M. Şen, A. Wróbel). *International Journal of Early Childhood Education Research*, 2(5), 1-12.

- Nowak-Fabrykowski, K., Dincer, C. & Sen, M. (2016a). The Curricular Expectations and Practice of Caring Among Girls and Boys in the USA and Turkey. *Early Child Development and Care*, 186(9), 1357-1365.
- Nowak-Fabrykowski, K., Gursky, R. & Keck-Warren S. (2016b). Creation of Prosocial Play Experiences Inspired by Noddings's Ideas of Centers of Care. *Issues in Early Education*, 2(33), 66-75.
- Piaget J. (1960). *The Language and Thought of the Child*. New York: Meridian.
- Prain, V., Cox, P., Deed, C., Dorman, J., Edwards, D., Farrelly, C., Keeffe, M., Lovejoy, V., Mow, L., Sellings, P., Waldrip, B. & Yager, Z. (eds.) (2015). *Adapting to teaching and learning in open-planschools*. Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publishers.
- Salomon, A. (2010). Tools to Enhance Young Children's Thinking. *Young Children*, 65(5), 26-31.
- Samuelsson-Pramling, I. & Johanson, E. (2006). Play and learning inseparable dimensions in preschool practice. *Early Child Development and Care*, 176(1), 47-65.
- Smak, M. & Walczak, D. (2015). *Pozycja społeczno-zawodowa nauczycieli*. Warszawa: IBE.
- Sterling-Honing, A. (2007). Ten power boosters for children are early learning. *Young Children*, (September), 72-78.
- Strachota, B. (1996). *On Their Side: Helping Children Take Charge of Their Own Learning*. Greenfield, MA: Northeast Foundation for Children.
- Vaz-Rebelo, P., Swennen, A., Golan, M., van der Klink, M., van Velzen, C. Pedroso de Lima, Vermel, J., Barreira, C., Pessoa, T. & Gomes, C. (eds.) (2015). *Professional development of teacher educators. Bringing together policy, practice and research*. Brussels, Belgium: ATEE (Association for Teacher Education in Europe).
- Zbróg, Z. (2014). *Teachers and Learners: the Professional Development of University lecturers in Poland*. In: P. Boyd, A. Szplit & Z. Zbróg (eds.), *Teacher Educators and Teachers as Learners – International Perspectives* (pp. 37-50). Kraków: Libron.

SECTION 1

TEACHERS EDUCATION – CHOSEN ISSUES

Krystyna Nowak-Fabrykowski

Central Michigan University, Mt. Pleasant, Michigan, USA

1 Current Trends in Teacher Education and Evaluation in the USA

Abstract

This chapter analyses the new requirements currently proposed in the USA for both teacher preparation and evaluation. It presents questions posed by researchers inquiring “Who should teach teachers? Where and how?” and “What are the elements that the teachers’ preparation program evaluation should be based on?” There are four proposed indicators: learning outcomes, employment outcomes, survey outcomes and accreditation. They will be used for rating programs and will be included in the institutional report card- which raised many concerns. The most criticized element is using test-based accountability as the major instrument for teacher evaluation. The proposal made by researchers as the most efficient method of improving teacher’s performance is not multiple evaluations, but rather professional development initiatives such as: the creation of learning communities that promotes working in collaboration, determining students’ needs and applying research findings into practice.

Key words: teachers education, evaluation, criticism.

INTRODUCTION

There are many new requirements in both teacher preparation and evaluation programs that raise much criticism and controversy.

Under the current title II reporting system, *a teacher preparation program is defined as a State-approved course of study, the completion of which signifies that an enrollee has met all of the State's educational or training requirements for initial certification or licensure to teach in the State's elementary, middle, or secondary schools. A teacher preparation program may be either a traditional program or an alternative route to certification program, as defined by the State. It may be within or outside an IHE* (Duncan, 2013).

According to Carey (2015, p. 8) teacher's reforms that started in 2011 *were really the attack on teachers and their ability to bargain over evaluations, seniority, tenure and discipline and discharge. He criticizes legislators that believe in improving quality of education by forcing out teachers they labeled "ineffective"*. The dismissal of tenured teachers was possible after three consecutive years of poor evaluation.

A NEW LANDSCAPE

In 2013 Cochran-Smith raised 5 important issues in teachers' preparation. She called it a new landscape:

1. Unprecedented attention to teacher quality: teacher education is a policy problem, not a learning problem; it is focused on school issues only; bottom line is economy and democracy.
2. Shifting notion of accountability (from input to outcomes). Assessment seen as input in the structure of designed courses. The prevalence is the shift of Reductionist view of teaching and learning. Students' score is often related to tests scores. Teacher education is seen as value –added. However, there is also a lack of data how graduates are doing.
3. Increasingly diverse school population. There is a change in population of students that is not taken in consideration as for example 44% more students in 2009. As predicted in 2035 majority of students will be students of color. There is also a growing number of students with ELL and 13-14 % of students with disability. The focus should be put on "diversity" not "adversity". There is also high attrition rate especially of minority teachers.

4. Another question is: Who should teach teachers? Where and how? There are teacher preparation programs like: Teach for America, Teach First, University of Phenix, The New Teachers Project, on-line programs and the Boston Teacher residency.
5. There is a big emphasis on practice and clinical settings that creates a gap between preparation and the realities of single-minded ideas of practice – questions about the value of theory and beliefs (perceived as unrelated).

On December 3, 2014, when the U.S. Department of Education proposed new Teacher Preparation Regulations of the Higher Education that require states to assess and rate every teacher preparation program every year with four Performance Assessment Levels (exceptional, effective, at-risk, and low-performing), and states must provide technical assistance to “low-performing” programs. “Low-performing” institutions and programs that do not show improvement may lose state approval, state funding, and federal student financial aid (Kumashiro, 2015).

In the new proposal, the Teacher Education Assistance for College and Higher Education (TEACH) Grant Program funding would be dependent on teacher preparation program quality.

The existing TEACH Grant program provides grants of up to \$4,000 annually to eligible teacher candidates who agree to work in high-need fields and schools for not less than four academic years within eight years after completing their courses of study. If the teacher does not fulfill this promise she /he must take a loan with interest to repay the awarded amount.

In the new regulation the Teach Grant will be awarded to teachers called “effective” and will eliminate accessibility of this grant to all teachers even as data demonstrates that 38 programs in the USA are identified as “low-performing” and 22 programs are “at-risk,” . The candidates from these programs could not benefit from this grant.

The new requirements demand that starting October 1, 2017 each institution of higher education reports to the State and general public on the quality of its teacher preparation using an institutional report card. From April 1, 2018, and annually thereafter, each State that receives funds under the HEA must report to the Secretary and the general public and from April 2019 and annually each State must assess the performance of each teacher preparation. What are the elements in this reporting that evaluation will be based on?

They are based on 4 indicators: learning outcomes, employment outcomes, survey outcomes and accreditation.

1. Learning Outcomes

The first required indicator of academic content knowledge and teaching skills would be student learning outcomes “Student learning outcomes” is defined as *data on the aggregate learning outcomes of students taught by new teachers trained by each teacher preparation program in the State*. The State would choose to calculate the data on student learning outcomes using measures of student growth defined as *achievement in tested grades and subjects* and *student achievement in non-tested grades and subjects* would also be included. The measures include students’ performance, such as students’ results on pre-tests and end-of-course-tests, objective performance-based assessments, student learning objectives, student performance on English language proficiency assessments, and other measures of student achievement, that are rigorous and comparable across schools and consistent with State requirements. In general, the assessment of students’ growth will be based on “multiple valid measures” as well as observations based on rigorous teacher performance standards and other measures of professional practice.

2. Employment Outcomes

The second indicator would be employment outcomes that include for new teachers and recent graduate’s teacher placement rate in high-need schools and teacher retention. The high –need schools means that the percentage of students aged 5 through 17 live in poverty and are eligible for a free or reduced-price school lunch.

The teacher retention means that the new teacher and graduate who have been hired in full-time teaching positions and have reached a level of tenure or other equivalent measure of retention within five years of being granted certification.

3. Survey Outcomes

The third indicator of the academic content knowledge and teaching skills of new teachers produced by a teacher preparation program would be “survey outcomes” that include: “teacher’s survey” and “employer’s survey”. A “teacher survey” would

be designed to capture perceptions of whether new teachers who are employed as teachers in their first year of teaching in the State where the teacher preparation program is located have the skills needed to succeed in the classroom.

The employer survey would be defined as a survey of new serving in full-time teaching positions for the grade level, span, and subject area in which the teachers were prepared that is designed to capture their perceptions of whether the preparation that they received was effective.

4. Accreditation

The fourth indicator of academic content knowledge and teaching skills of a program's new teachers would be a determination of whether the teacher preparation program is accredited by a specialized accrediting agency recognized by the Secretary for accreditation of professional teacher education programs, produces teacher candidates with content and pedagogical knowledge, with quality clinical experiences and met rigorous entry and exit qualifications.

Also Kumashiro (2015) points to a series of "vital policy concerns" raised by the proposed regulations. They include:

- They underestimate the cost and burden of implementing them "quite high," but also "unnecessary."
- With no foundation in evidence, they blame individual teachers – rather than root systemic causes – for the gap separating educational outcomes of affluent and white students from those of economically disadvantaged students and those belonging to racial minority groups.
- They rely on an "improperly narrow" definition of what it means for teachers to be ready to teach.
- They bank on test-based accountability and value-added measurement of teachers in analyzing data about teacher performance – even though those measures and tools have been "scientifically discredited."
- They are premised on inaccurate explanations for the causes of student achievement and underachievement, and as a consequence will discourage teachers from working in high-needs schools.
- They will likely limit access to the teaching profession, especially for prospective teachers of color and from lower-income backgrounds, by chocking off federal financial aid.

THE NEW IDEAS

In Michigan, incoming State Superintendent Whiston (2015) explained the legislature that if we want better student outcomes in the classroom state has to focus **on training, evaluating and empowering teachers**. In order for the classroom to be top priority, he emphasized that the state has to make **sure teachers are prepared with best practices and research through more professional development opportunities**. For him, it must recognize that the teacher in the classroom is the local expert and deserves **higher salaries**. *“Districts will need to be able to pay teachers more in the long run to continue recruiting the best teachers. If education is our highest priority, why aren’t we paying our teachers as a highest priority?”*

If the focus is to remain on the classroom, he stresses the need to **reduce the amount of testing** students face. Whiston (2015) recommends finding a test that would serve both state accountability and local curriculum needs. He said, *We are testing too much. It would be a better approach if you took some of that testing time and allowed teachers to focus more on teaching.*

TEACHERS EVALUATION AND THE DIFFERENT POSSIBILITIES FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Carey (2015, p. 9) quotes data from an August 2015 Gallup Poll stating that more than 40 states evaluate teachers and principals how well their students perform on standardized tests. However, 63 percent of parents with children in public schools oppose linking teacher’s evaluation to their students’ test scores.

The tools for evaluation of teachers such as Charlotte Danielson’s Framework for Teaching, Marzano’s Teacher Evaluation Model, The Thoughtful Classroom and 5 Dimensions of Teaching and Learning were piloted during the 2013-2014 school year in 14 schools.

After the pilot study The Michigan Council for Educator Effectiveness worked for 18 months to develop their skills and, recommendations and publish document suggesting to base the evaluation of teachers’ performance on two key aspects of their work: (1) their practice and (2) their students’ growth. The observation on practice of teaching must be done with one of the used in the pilot study. It could be done by an administrator or a peer colleague who will

be trained how to use this instrument. To measure student's growth the document, recommend to *produce value-added modeling (VAM) scores for educators on state-provided assessments in the core content areas.* (www.mcede.org.)

Newly popular now for teacher professional development are various workshops that could be taken by the teacher in place of a graduate degree which can lead to permanent professional certification.

Ohio's new professional development standards require professional learning opportunities for all educators (Newhall, 2015). The Ohio Department of Education (2015) published a document explaining the seven standards that they must meet. The stressed it put continuous improvement, determining students' needs, sharing goals and aligning them with the standards.

They point to the leadership quality of teachers who advocate and create support systems for professional learning. They stress the importance of the professional resources that will stimulate effectiveness of teaching and learning by prioritizing, monitoring and coordinating them. The standards require collecting data on professional learning that increases teachers' effectiveness and evaluate professional learning. The Learning Designs must integrate theories, research and models. It recommends applies research on changes and aligns its outcomes with educator performance and student curriculum standards.

SUMMARY

The many concerns in teacher's preparation and evaluation should be further analyzed and recognized by the politicians and policy makers that create the regulations. The main goal of every initiative should be to facilitate teachers' work and stimulate their practice. Multiple evaluations are not improving practice just tired out already overloaded teachers. The new initiatives should take into consideration teachers' and students' needs that are related to the different socio-cultural factors and economic.

It is estimate that the total annualized cost of the new regulations in teachers' preparation would be between \$42.0 million and \$42.1 million over ten years.

As Cochrain-Smith, stresses teaching is too complex to use scores as evaluation, values and teachers' beliefs are important to practice. The major tasks to improve teachers' preparation and evaluation are to resolve teacher education identity crisis by providing different experiences that would promote collabora-

tion; initiate collaborative anti-poverty efforts (since 20% of children live in the USA in poverty); innovate to navigate by creation of new programs; work within and against systematic evaluation; prepare teachers for justice as core in education and make it clear that teachers professionalism is a key. The last point that she made is to work on teacher's attrition.

Still test-based accountability is a major instrument for teachers' evaluation that is an arguable measure since the teachers may have children that came to his/her class with low scores and even if they grew academically they may not meet the desired score results at the end of the year.

To improve the practice of teaching, teachers can take professional learning opportunities (Newhall, 2015). The required standards set for professional development opportunities are the needs for creating learning communities, working in collaboration, determining students' needs and applying research findings into practice.

The teacher education programs should first of all base the curricula on the current research findings and the needs of students, the rigorous programs should prepare teachers to be life-long learners, motivated and having power to decide how to apply developmentally and culturally appropriate practice in their school environment.

REFERENCES

- Cochran-Smith, M. (2013). The New Landscape of Teacher Education: Trends and Challenges. Keynote address at the Status of Teacher Preparation: A Call to Action in Michigan. *Eastern Michigan University*, November 1.
- Carey, R. (2015). It took four years to change the way Michigan teachers are evaluated and enact true education reform for teachers and students. *Voice*, 93(2), 8-15.
- Duncan, A. (2014). Teacher Preparation. *The Dailey Journal of the United State Government*. Available at: <https://www.ed.gov/news/press-releases/us-department-education-proposes-plan-strengthen-teacher-preparation>.
- Kumashiro, K. (2015). *NEPC Review: Proposed 2015 Federal Teacher Preparation Regulations*. Available at: <http://nepc.colorado.edu/thinktank/review-proposed-teacher-preparation>.

- Newhall, J. (2015). Ohio's new Professional Development Standards offer opportunities for learning based on educator's real needs. *Ohio Schools*, 94(8), 12-13.
- Whiston, B. (2015) New state superintendent asks, 'If education is our highest priority, why aren't we paying our teachers as a highest priority?' *MEA Voice on Line*. (June 16)

APPENDIX 1

Definitions of the terms as proposed by Duncan, A. (2014)

Proposed § 612.2(d)—An “at-risk teacher preparation program” is defined as a teacher preparation program that is identified as at-risk of being identified as low-performing by a State based on the State's assessment of teacher preparation program performance under proposed § 612.4.

Proposed § 614.2(c)(1)—Each State must establish, in consultation with a representative group of stakeholders, the procedures for assessing and reporting the performance of each teacher preparation program in the State. The information reported must include the weighting of indicators to be used, the method of aggregating programs, State-level rewards or consequences for designated performance levels, and opportunities for programs to appeal.

Proposed § 612.2(d)—An “effective teacher preparation program” is defined as a teacher preparation program that is identified as effective by a State based on the State's assessment of teacher preparation program performance under proposed § 612.4.

Proposed § 612.2(d)—Data, measuring the teacher placement rate, the teacher placement rate calculated for high-need schools, the teacher retention rate, and the teacher retention rate calculated for high-need schools on the effectiveness of a teacher preparation program in preparing, placing, and supporting new teachers consistent with local education agency (LEA) needs. For purposes of assessing employment outcomes, a State may, in its discretion, assess traditional and alternative route teacher preparation programs differently based on whether there are differences in the programs that affect employment outcomes, provided that the varied assessments result in equivalent levels of accountability and reporting.

Proposed § 612.2(d)—An “exceptional teacher preparation program” is defined as a teacher preparation program that is identified as exceptional by a State

based on the State's assessment of teacher preparation program performance under proposed § 612.4.

Proposed § 612.2(d)—A “high-need school” would be defined as a school that, based on the most recent data available, is in the highest quartile of schools in a ranking of all schools served by a local educational agency, ranked in descending order by percentage of students from low-income families enrolled in such schools, as determined by the local educational agency based on a single or a composite of two or more of the following measures of poverty: (a) The percentage of students aged 5 through 17 in poverty counted; (b) the percentage of students eligible for a free or reduced price school lunch under the Richard B. Russell National School Lunch Act; (c) the percentage of students in families receiving assistance under the State program funded under part A of title IV of the Social Security Act; (d) the percentage of students eligible to receive medical assistance under the Medicaid program. Alternatively, a school may be considered a “high-need school,” if, in the case of an elementary school, the school serves students not less than 60 percent of whom are eligible for a free or reduced price school lunch under the Richard B. Russell National School Lunch Act; or in the case of any other school that is not an elementary school, the other school serves students not less than 45 percent of whom are eligible for a free or reduced price school lunch under the Richard B. Russell National School Lunch Act.

Proposed § 612.2(d)—A “low-performing teacher preparation program” is defined as a teacher preparation program that is identified as low-performing by a State based on the State's assessment of teacher preparation program performance under proposed § 612.4.

Proposed § 612.2(d)—A “new teacher” is defined as a recent graduate or alternative route participant who, within the last three title II reporting years, has received a level of certification or licensure that allows him or her to serve in the State as a teacher of record for K-12 students and, at the State's discretion, for preschool students.

Proposed § 612.2(d)—A “recent graduate” is defined as an individual documented as having met all the requirements of the teacher preparation program within the last three title II reporting years.

Proposed § 612.4—States must report annually on programs with 25 or more new teachers (program size threshold). At a State's discretion, it can choose a lower number as the reporting threshold (lower program size threshold). For any teacher preparation program that produces fewer than the program

size threshold or the lower program size threshold, the State must annually report on the program by aggregating data by using one of three prescribed methods. If aggregation under these methods would not yield the program size threshold or the lower program size, or if reporting such data would be inconsistent with Federal or State privacy and confidentiality laws and regulations, the State is not required to report data on that program.

Proposed § 612.3—Institutional reporting begins in October 2017 based on the 2016-2017 academic year.

Proposed § 612.4—Pilot State reporting begins in April 2018 based on data for new teachers in the 2016-2017 academic year. Full State reporting begins in April 2019 based on data for new teachers in the 2017-2018 academic year.

Proposed § 612.2(d)—“Student growth” is defined, for an individual student, as the change in student achievement in tested grades and subjects and the change in student achievement in non-tested grades and subjects between two or more points in time.

Proposed § 612.2(d)—“Student learning outcomes” are defined, for each teacher preparation program in a State, as data on the aggregate learning outcomes of students taught by new teachers and calculated by the State using student growth, a teacher evaluation measure, or both.

Proposed § 612.2(d)—“Survey outcomes” are defined as qualitative and quantitative data collected through survey instruments, including, but not limited to, a teacher survey and an employer survey, designed to capture perceptions of whether new teachers who are employed as teachers in their first year of teaching in the State where the teacher preparation program is located possess the skills needed to succeed in the classroom.

Proposed 612.2(d)—“Teacher evaluation measure” is defined as, by grade span and subject area and consistent with statewide guidelines, the percentage of new teachers rated at each performance level under an LEA teacher evaluation system that differentiates teachers on a regular basis using at least three performance levels and multiple valid measures in determining each teacher’s performance level. For purposes of this definition, multiple valid measures of performance levels must include, as a significant factor, data on student growth for all students (including English language learners and students with disabilities), and other measures of professional practice (such as observations based on rigorous teacher performance standards or other measures which may be gathered through multiple formats and sources, such as teacher portfolios and student and parent surveys).

Proposed § 612.2(d)—“Teacher placement rate” is defined as the combined, non-duplicated percentage of new teachers and recent graduates who have been hired in a full-time teaching position for the grade level, span, and subject area in which they were prepared. States may choose to exclude (1) new teachers or recent graduates who have taken positions in another State, in private schools, or that do not require State certification or (2) new teachers or recent graduates who have enrolled in graduate school or entered military service.

Proposed § 612.2(d)—“Teacher preparation entity” is defined as an institution of higher education or other organization that is authorized by the State to prepare teachers.

Proposed § 612.2(d)—“Teacher preparation program” is defined as a program, whether traditional or alternative route, offered by a teacher preparation entity that leads to a specific State teacher certification or licensure in a specific field.

Proposed § 612.2(d)—“Teacher retention rate” is defined as any of the following rates, as determined by the State: (1) Percentage of new teachers hired in full-time positions who have served for at least three consecutive school years within five years of being granted a level of certification that allows them to serve as teachers of record; (2) percentage of new teachers who have been hired in full-time teaching positions that reached a level of tenure or other equivalent measures of retention within 5 years of being granted a level of certification that allows them to serve as teachers of record; or (3) 100% less the percentage of new teachers who have been hired in full-time teaching positions and whose employment was not continued by their employer for reasons other than budgetary constraints within five years of being granted a level of certification or licensure that allows them to serve as teachers of record.

Proposed § 612.3—Restates general statutory requirement for annual reporting. Under a revised reporting calendar, beginning in October 2017 requires each institution to submit the institutional report card in October of each calendar year covering data from the prior academic year. Also requires each institution of higher education that is required to report under the statute to prominently and promptly post the institutional report card information on the institution’s Web site and, if applicable, on the teacher preparation program’s portion of the institution’s Web site.

Proposed § 612.4—Restates general statutory requirement for annual reporting. Under a revised reporting calendar, beginning in April 2018 requires each State to submit the State report card in April of each calendar year covering data from the prior academic year. Also requires each State that is required to report under the statute to prominently and promptly post the State report card information on the State's Web site. Also requires States to report: (1) Beginning in April 2019, meaningful differentiations in teacher preparation program performance using at least four performance levels—low-performing teacher preparation program, at-risk teacher preparation program, effective teacher preparation program, and exceptional teacher preparation program; (2) disaggregated data for each teacher preparation program of the indicators identified pursuant to § 612.5; (3) an assurance of accreditation by a specialized organization, or an assurance that the program produces teacher candidates with content and pedagogical knowledge and quality clinical preparation who have met rigorous teacher candidate entry and exit qualifications; (4) the State's weighting of indicators in § 612.5 for assessing program performance; (5) State-level rewards or consequences associated with the designated performance levels; (6) the procedures established by the State in consultation with stakeholders, as described in § 612.4(c)(1) and the State's examination of its data collection and reporting, as described in § 612.4(c)(2) in the report submitted in 2018 and every four years thereafter, and at any other time a State makes substantive changes to the weighting of the indicators and its procedures for assessing and reporting on the performance of each teacher preparation program in the State.

Proposed § 612.5—For purposes of reporting under § 612.4, a State must assess for each teacher preparation program within its jurisdiction, indicators of academic content knowledge and teaching skills of new teachers from that program. The indicators of academic content knowledge and teaching skills must include, at a minimum, (1) student learning outcomes, employment outcomes, and survey outcomes, and (2) whether the program is accredited by a specialized accrediting agency recognized by the Secretary for accreditation of professional teacher education programs or provides teacher candidates with content and pedagogical knowledge and quality clinical preparation and has rigorous teacher candidate entry and exit qualifications.

Proposed § 612.6—States must make meaningful differentiations of teacher preparation programs among at least four performance levels: (1) Exceptional, (2) effective, (3) at-risk, and (4) low-performing. In identifying low-perform-

ing or at-risk teacher preparation programs, the State must use criteria that, at a minimum, include the indicators of academic content knowledge and teaching skills from 612.5, including, in significant part, employment outcomes for high-need schools and student learning outcomes. At a minimum, a State must provide technical assistance to improve the performance of each low-performing teacher preparation program in its State.

§ 686.11—The proposed regulations would add to the current regulations that for a program to be TEACH Grant- eligible, it must be a high-quality teacher preparation program. That means that it must be a teacher preparation program that is classified by the State as effective or higher, or if it is a STEM program, at least sixty percent of its TEACH Grant recipients must complete at least one year of teaching that fulfills the service obligation under § 686.40 within three years of completing the program. Under the proposed definition for high-quality teacher preparation program, the levels of program performance as reported in State report cards in both the April 2019 and the April 2020 State Report Card for the 2020-2021 title IV HEA award year would determine TEACH Grant eligibility for the 2020-2021 academic year. Subsequently, beginning with the 2021-2022 title IV HEA award year, a program's eligibility would be based on the level of program performance reported in the State Report Card for two out of three years. The State Report Card ratings from April 2018 (if the State exercised its option to report the ratings using the new indicators) and April 2019 would not immediately impact TEACH Grant eligibility. Instead, the loss of TEACH Grant eligibility for low-performing or at-risk programs would become effective July 1, 2020.

Kirsti Vindal Halvorsen

University of Agder, Kristiansand, Norway

2 Reorienting Teacher Education by Building Partnership in a Changing World: Multiple Perspectives

Abstract

This chapter explores building partnership as a strategy for reorienting teacher education. The literature review shows that the strategy has been used in countries such as the US, Australia, and England for two decades, but it has a short history in Norway. This multi-case study analyses two Norwegian partnership projects. The one-year primary school project seems to be influenced by unpredictability, which gave rise to uncertainty, but also creativity and enthusiasm. The five-year preschool project is interpreted as a context where motivation is promoted by a democratic approach based on collaborative creativity and interdependency. It is viewed as a case of sustainable educational development, nurturing solidarity by building on new research that regards small children as subjects with the right to participate in issues that concern them. The partnership has involved reorienting the current preschool practice and the content of the last year in the teacher education program.

Key words: teacher education, partnership, education for solidarity.

INTRODUCTION

Some years before the millennium shift UNESCO mandated a commission to prepare a report on the future of education, chaired by Jacques Delors (Elfert, 2015). The situation is that “neoliberalism” is on the rise, but at the same time there is a hope for revitalisation of international cooperation and a renewed interest in human rights” (Elfert, 2015, p. 90). Carneiro was a member of the commission. He subsequently describes two sets of values in education: “the inclusive-led homo socialis” and “the competitive-led homo economicus” (Carneiro, 2015). These sets of values point towards education based on humanism versus neoliberalism.

The title of the Delors Report is “Learning: The treasure within” (Delors *et al.*, 1996). It emphasizes the moral and cultural dimension of education, and stresses a future educational imperative “none of the talents which are hidden like buried treasure in every person must be left untapped” (Delors *et al.*, 1996, p. 21). To realize this vision the commission recommends holistic learning throughout life in a learning society. The report values learning based on the four pillars of education: learning to do, learning to know, learning to be and learning to live together. These recommendations can be used to indicate the main concerns of partnership in teacher education.

Partnership in teacher education is ideally a form of learning society based on collaboration between universities and schools. However, partnership in teacher education embraces a complexity of issues. It involves learning to be a partner, learning to live together in partnership, learning to know the field of knowledge linked to theory and practice, and learning how to support the student teachers’ professional development. The need for partnership is specifically recommended as a strategy to solve problems in the two following reports.

The report “Teachers Matter” (OECD, 2005) points to the problem of the distance between the theoretical and practical parts of teacher education programs. Many novice teachers experience a reality shock when they are confronted with the challenges that face them in the classroom. Teachers have to cope with increasingly complex demands in a changing world. The report recommends building partnerships to counteract these problems. Two decades of research show that well-developed partnership in teacher education has the potential to provide a high degree of support to student teachers in their professional development (Darling-Hammond, 2010).

The report “Shaping the future we want” (UNESCO, 2014) has a broader perspective than “Teachers Matter” since it is built on the premises of the UN decade of education for sustainable development (2005-2014). The report recommends partnership as a strategy to promote education for sustainable development. It states that one of the most important challenges in our time is to reorient teacher education towards the issue of addressing sustainability. The concept of sustainability embraces three interacting pillars: environment, economy, and cultural diversity.

Sustainable versus unsustainable values are in this chapter seen as an important aspect of cultural diversity. From that perspective, it is a problem that formal education is in general “based on competitive principles, on instrumental rationality and on reproducing unsustainable values” (Gadotti, 2010, p. 225). An illustration of unsustainable values is the attitude described as “It’s us *against* other men” (Bateson, 1972, p. 492). Sustainable core values are solidarity, interdependency, democracy, and collaboration (Gadotti, 2008). To cast light over these complexities the question that is explored is: How can we understand the process of reorienting teacher education by building partnership in a changing world, viewed from multiple perspectives?

To give an answer to this question of exploration I use a four-fold strategy. The first part is to present the educational context within which the partnership idea is created. The second part is based on a study of the partnership literature. The third part discusses how partnership can support student teachers’ need for professional development. The fourth part is a multi-case study of Norwegian partnership in a primary school and a preschool. In sum, this chapter is an analysis of different types of partnerships that will be further investigated and pursued as a research project that builds on my PhD thesis (Halvorsen, 2014b).

EDUCATIONAL CONTEXTS THAT CATALYSE THE CREATION OF THE PARTNERSHIP IDEA

The partnership idea was created in the US in the beginning of the 1990s (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2005). It was catalysed by new educational research that gave rise to a paradigm shift in teacher education. The shift was away from viewing teaching as a craft and towards valuing teaching as a reflective practice.

Teaching as a craft is often seen as transmission of knowledge from the teacher to the pupils, and is based on behaviouristic ideas. This teacher-centred

education is described as one where teaching is telling and learning is listening (Korthagen, Loughran & Russel, 2006). The relation between teaching and learning is viewed as a kind of simple, linear input-output mechanism. From this perspective, the preparation of student teachers is mainly in the form of training to use “effective” methods. The preparation of student teachers can be viewed as teacher training. This traditional teacher-training model is documented in the US (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2005), Australia (Mayer, 2014) and England (Furlong *et al.*, 1996). Deng (2004) from Singapore claims that teacher training has been the dominant model for a long time in many Asian countries.

The challenge with teaching as a craft arises because practices easily become habits and hard-programmed ideas. Habits tend to be removed from the field of critical examination and reflection (Bateson, 1972). The problem is that teacher training may become too simplistic and lack the opportunity to develop a deep understanding of teaching as a complex, uncertain, intellectual and moral practice (Deng, 2004). A catalyst for change would require the professional development of student teachers, cooperating teachers and teacher educators (Halvorsen, 2014b).

The radical paradigm shift seems to be catalysed by new ideas of learner-centred education based on constructivist perspectives and a focus on the dynamic between teaching and learning. The dynamic in the classroom is described as a process where teacher and pupils create meaning together (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2005). Current educational research is focused on the dynamic in classroom, and built on the idea that teaching and learning are systemic recursive processes. In a parallel way, Bateson (1972) points out that no teacher can be “good” in a vacuum; it is the interplay between teachers and pupils that may be more or less sustainable. The changed understanding of education implies that student teachers have to learn to understand the social interplay in the classroom by reflecting on what happens. The ideal is that they become able to reflect on their practical experience based on scientific knowledge as a valid way to enhance their professional development (Deng, 2004; Korthagen, 2001; Parsons & Stephenson, 2005).

It is the paradigmatic shift described above that has inspired educational researchers in the US, and about 100 of them constitute the Holm’s group (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2005). The Holm’s group argues for the need for a radical shift in teacher education, and they have created the partnership idea. The Holms group introduced the idea in the US in the beginning of the 1990s. Not long afterwards, partnership was made an obligatory requirement in teacher education in England (Furlong *et al.*, 1996).

PARTNERSHIP IN TEACHER EDUCATION: A LITERATURE STUDY

The triple aim of partnership is: building a professional competence base in the educational system, strengthening the cooperation between schools and universities, and scaffolding the professional development of student teachers (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2005). The premise of partnership is that theory and practice represent two unique fields of knowledge, and since the one cannot be reduced to the other, it is of crucial importance to bring the perspectives together in dialog (Furlong *et al.*, 2008).

The implementation of the idea in the US has given rise to established partnerships between universities and chosen innovative professional development schools. The experiences with “professional development partnerships” have functioned as a catalyst in the US and implementation on a great scale (Callahan & Martin, 2007). The development soon promoted reorientation of schools and universities (Darling-Hammond, 1997). Retrospectively, we can look back today on two decades of research on partnership in the US and England. The research shows that partnerships between universities and well-developed schools can give a high degree of support to student teachers’ professional development (Darling-Hammond, 2010).

On the other hand, there seems to be a resilient cultural inhibitor towards building partnership, with deep historical roots in educational systems. It is the traditional privileged power position of universities in relation to schools. This power tradition has been documented in a time span of two decades (Little, 1993; Hess, 2000; Zeichner, 2010; Halvorsen, 2014b). A negative consequence of this power relation is the arousal of tensions in dialogs between the teacher educators from universities and the cooperating teachers from the schools (Hess, 2000). In a worst-case scenario, it ends with a breakdown of the relationship (Bullough & Draper, 2004). It is impossible to build well-developed partnership between teacher educators from universities and cooperating teachers from schools when academic discourse is viewed as the authoritative knowledge about teaching and learning (Zeichner, 2010).

There is no quick-fix solution for developing partnerships across the cultural diversity of schools and universities (Magolda, 2001). It may be about breaking habits of asymmetrical relationship, which have been learned in the past, often in an intuitive way (Bateson, 1972). But, there is also a time problem that partnerships have to deal with. Research shows that lack of time to cooperate inhibits the devel-

opment of a partnership (Hess, 2000). It is indicated that the process of partnership building can require three years before the desired results are manifested, and five to ten years to build a well-developed partnership (Lemke & Shabelli, 2008). Korthagen *et al.* (2006) described a process of fifteen years of continual discussion in partnership. The dialogs took up different views on teaching and learning. They were concerned with how teacher educators and cooperating teachers support the student teachers' professional development based on common values.

Developing partnerships must build on reciprocal respect, trust, and a common inquiry aimed at professional development (Cochran-Smith, 2003; Edens *et al.*, 2001; Halvorsen, 2014b). In general well-developed partnerships are recognized as close-learning fellowships (Callahan & Martin, 2007). They are described as symbiotic partnerships, and characterized by their ability to develop common aims, targets of development, and values. Sometimes they build a social partnership identity founded on their common values (Callahan & Martin, 2007). "The collaborative school-university research partnership" (Baumfield & Butterworth, 2007) is a special case of reorienting educational institutions. Both the teacher educators from the universities and the cooperating teachers from the schools enact the role of researcher. It is a radical form of collegiality aiming at enhancing competence in teaching and learning. The research is based on interpreting findings and developing new knowledge. However, building a partnership like that demands radical shifts in structures, roles, and relations, both on the part of the universities and the schools. To succeed with bringing about change, partnership has to build on common values and sense of inquiry focused on professional development. The question about who wins or loses cannot be an issue in a partnership (Baumfield & Butterworth, 2007). Sustainable partnership can be related to the mission of education. It seeks to develop all our talents to the full and to realize our creative potential to work for the common good (Delors *et al.*, 1996). Promoting the mission through sustainable partnership may be catalysed by flexibility when defined an unrealized possibilities (Bateson, 1972).

The impact of flexibility in the teaching profession is put on the agenda due the increasing demands that teachers have to cope with on account of the changes in society (OECD, 2005). At the same time, it seems that the teachers' flexibility and creativity are inhibited by neoliberal educational policies based on extensive standards and testing regimes. The neoliberal agenda is documented from several countries. Illustrations are presented from the US (Cochran-Smith, 2005), Australia (Mayer, 2014) and England (Furlong *et al.*, 2008). A narrative from England

shows how the Ministry of Education first catalyses development of partnership in the teacher education system, and then inhibits it.

In England, partnership was introduced as an obligatory requirement in the beginning of 1990s (Furlong *et al.*, 1996). After a while a power battle emerged between the politicians and academic teacher educators that lasted for a decade. The point at issue hinged on who was to have the power of defining what partnership is (Furlong *et al.*, 2008). The battle ended when the English authority moved partnership down on their priority list (Campell *et al.*, 2007). At the same time the national authority increased the practical part of teacher education so it has become two thirds of the programs at the expense of the theoretical part (Furlong *et al.* 2008). In extreme cases teaching is seen as a craft in school-based teacher training programs (Maandag *et al.*, 2007). Partnership was no longer needed in school-based programs with the aim of enhancing the Ministry's extensive standards and testing regime. In contrast, well-developed partnerships have the potential to meet the student teachers' need for professional development (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Halvorsen, 2014b; Korthagen *et al.*, 2006).

STUDENT TEACHERS' NEED FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Viewed from the perspective of student teachers, their needs can be influenced by their earlier life as pupils in classrooms. As pupils they have observed their teachers and created an idea or concept of what a "good" teacher is and does. The phenomenon is described as apprenticeship of observation (Flores & Day, 2006; quoting Lortie, 1975). Research shows that student teachers may assess their development in teacher education with the frame of the admired qualities of their model teacher in mind, and be satisfied when they learn to copy those qualities (Halvorsen, 2014a). This can result in a superficial form of learning, and be linked to research showing that teacher education often has little effect on novice teachers' performances in classrooms (Flores & Day, 2006; Korthagen, 2001). This may be seen as learning *about* teaching in their education. In contrast, learning *for* professional development is a deeper and more profound kind of learning that changes naive beliefs about teaching that have become habits (Bateson, 1972). Korthagen (2001) gives an illustration of the complexity of deep level learning among student teachers.

Korthagen points out the impact on student teachers' beliefs, habits, values, etc., that have been acquired in their earlier life, and is especially based on their

experiences at school as pupils. He uses the concept of gestalt, as constituting a conglomerate of beliefs student teachers have in their minds when they embark on teacher education. These beliefs may be more or less consciously perceived. Practice in schools in teacher education can trigger the student teachers' gestalt, and give rise to conscious recall of earlier memories and feelings. The recall of earlier narratives is important because it is during teacher education they can get the opportunity to reflect on them using academic theories, and in that way develop a profound professional understanding (Korthagen *et al.*, 2006).

Without such learning for professional development, there is a risk that novice teachers make sense and act in classrooms based on their naive beliefs. It may enhance the reality shock many novices experience when they eventually become full-time responsible teachers (Flores & Day, 2006; OECD, 2005). I have suggested that the student teachers need help to deconstruct their naivety in exchange for the reconstruction of responsibility as a preparation for their future profession (Halvorsen, 2014a). Why this is important is described by Deng (2004).

Deng points out that student teachers need help to understand the impact of teaching as a complex, uncertain, intellectual, and moral practice. He argues that classroom teaching is a moral concern involved in promoting social justice for all. That is why the student teacher must learn to relate academic theory to their practical experience so they can gain a profound professional understanding of the complexity and uncertainty in specific classrooms contexts. The aim of teacher education is to help them so that they are able to exercise professional judgement and flexibility. Two decades of research have shown that well-developed partnerships have the potential to scaffold the student teachers' professional development to a high degree (Darling-Hammond, 2010). At the same time, the Norwegian Department of Education points out that building partnerships is necessary in order to raise the quality of teacher education.

PARTNERSHIP BUILDING IN TEACHER EDUCATION: A NORWEGIAN MULTI-CASE STUDY

The Norwegian educational system is characterized by reforms in schools and teacher education programs from the millennium shift until the present day. From 2003 a reform gives children the right to be in preschools from one year of age until six years of age. The new preschool curriculum and Department of

Education directives have from 2006 (KD, 2006) included the Convention of the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989). This puts at stake the lack of professional knowledge concerning education for small children and children's rights to participate on issues that concerns them. The rights of the child necessitate a radical shift from a traditional and authoritarian teacher role towards a democratic and supportive role (Bae, 2006).

After preschool children start elementary school at six years of age, which is followed by ten years of obligatory elementary school and junior high school. The three years at senior high school are voluntary. The Norwegian reform in primary and secondary schools has given rise to a new common core curriculum. It was implemented in 1997 and is still the valid core curriculum. The overarching aim is to support the development of the integrated human being as embedded in our changing world. "The ultimate aim of education is to inspire individuals to realize their potential in ways that serve the common good; to nurture humaneness in a society in a state of development" (KUF, 1997, p. 40). These visionary aims call for high quality in the teacher education programs.

Teacher education in Norway embraces the three main programs related to preschool, elementary and junior high schools, and senior high school. The programs have an integrated or concurrent structure with a theoretical and a practical part each semester. A national evaluation in 2002 discloses a common problem across the programs: the well-known gap between theory and practice. With that background in mind, the new national curriculum for the programs has a common mission statement (UFD, 2003). It describes three learning arenas: 1) theoretical study, 2) the practice field and 3) *collaboration, inquiry and reflection*. The third arena is new, and the curriculum states: "Those higher education institutions that have responsibility for teacher education must collaborate with the practice schools to develop a holistic teacher competence" (*ibidem*, p. 7).

The Norwegian national authority supports local teacher education programs that establish partnership projects by providing economic incitements. This has given rise to bottom-up processes in the form of small-scale experimental projects. I selected three partnerships projects as research objects for my PhD thesis with the title "Partnership in teacher education, viewed from an ecological perspective" (Halvorsen, 2014b). The three cases represent the three main teacher education programs. To simplify matters, I call them the pre-school, the primary and the secondary case. In this chapter I will focus on the preschool and the primary cases, as a multi-case study (Stake, 2006).

The primary case is situated in the first year of a four-year general teacher education program for elementary and junior high school teachers. The national curriculum is very detailed. The partnership has been developed throughout most of the one and a half years that the study was conducted. In contrast, the preschool case is situated in the final year of a three-year teacher education program for preschool teachers. The national curriculum is open for local initiatives and creativity with the aim of promoting different kinds of specialization. In this case, the area is specialization in pedagogy related to small children between one year and three years of age. The partnership has developed over five years.

I have re-interpreted the preschool and primary school cases as a multi-case study and used cross-case analysis (Stake, 2006). The analytical perspective of the re-interpretation is based on the core sustainable values of democracy, collaboration, interdependency, and solidarity (Gadotti, 2008). I link the concept of solidarity to the visionary mission of education, which is to develop all our talents to the full and to realize our creative potential for the common good (Delors *et al.*, 1996). The mission mirrors the ultimate aim of Norwegian education. "It is to inspire individuals to realize their potential in ways that serve to further the common good; to nurture humaneness in a society in development" (KUF, 1997, p. 40). Together the international mission of education (Delors *et al.*, 1996) and the ultimate aim of Norwegian education (KUF, 1997) are the essence of my understanding of "*education for solidarity*". I explore this perspective more deeply in the presentation of my findings below.

The findings of the multi-case study are connected in the form of a narrative presentation (Czarniawska, 2009). The beginning of the narrative is concerned with the impacts of democracy, followed by the values of collaborative creativity and interdependency, and ending with an overarching perspective of education for solidarity.

The beginning of the narrative is based on a finding that indicates the tension between *asymmetrical relations versus democracy as the basis for change*. A symmetrical relations are seen as embedded in the traditional privileged power relationship that exists between universities and schools (Halvorsen, 2014b). A contrast to this exists in a democratic approach. It embraces the partners' freedom of autonomous expression, reciprocal respect, and trust while actively participating in partnership building. Common to both cases are local teacher educators who take the initiative to promote the partnership projects, but they do it in quite different ways.

The context of the primary case is characterized by reduced time for planning the partnership project. After some discussion between the leader of the project and the teacher educators, they agree to implement a partnership model. The aim is to engender a closer dynamic between theory and practice by introducing a structural change during three of the weeks of teaching practice each semester. The change is to split up the first week and spread it out as a one-day practice unit over five weeks, followed by a two-week practice period. The project leader *informs* the cooperating teachers about the new partnership model at a traditional meeting before the practice placement period of the student teachers in the springtime. In the next autumn semester, the partnership model is implemented (Halvorsen, 2014a). But the cooperating teachers have not been invited to participate on issues that affect their practice in schools, and this creates some uncertainty about how to implement the idea in praxis.

In the preschool case the teacher educators use the freedom granted by the open national curriculum to *invite* the cooperating teachers to a creative workshop. The teacher educators break the tradition of just informing the cooperating teachers about practical and theoretical matters. Instead they discuss with the cooperating teacher what could be a common target of professional development. "Then the collaboration accelerated" according to a teacher educator (Halvorsen & Smith, 2012, p. 244). A cooperating teacher points out: "The best thing about the project is the close collaboration with the teacher educators. We have become much more important now, than we were earlier" (ibid). The democratic approach seems to promote the partners' motivation and their abilities to learn to live to get her while building the partnership in a sustainable way. Their focus for professional development is to promote the rights of children to participate about issues that concern them, and where their opinion must be heard (UN,1989). It is a democratic approach aimed at supporting sustainable development among small children (Pramling Samulesson & Kaga, 2008). The partnership included the student teachers in the processes of reorienting educational practice. The partnership is pioneering a break in habits, based on new research and understanding of small children as thinking and competent subjects. As mentioned earlier, the rights of children have necessitated a radical shift from a traditional and authoritarian teacher role towards a democratic and supportive role (Bae, 2006). That shift is not a one-woman show since it takes a village to raise a child, to cite an African proverb.

The middle of this narrative is based on findings that indicate a reorientation from *the traditional separatist model to a collaborative model based on*

interdependency. The tradition in Norway is in general characterized by little contact between the teacher educators and the cooperating teachers. This Norwegian tradition looks like the English separatist model. Division of responsibility characterizes it where the teacher educators are responsible for the theoretical part of the programs and the cooperating teachers take care of the practical part (Furlong *et al.*, 1996). The contrast is a collaborative partnership that shares together the responsibility of supporting the student teachers' professional development across theory and practice (*ibidem*). An ideal way of reorienting a teacher education program seems to be a change from a traditional separatist model towards a collaborative model built on interdependency between the partners. But that demands breaking habits, which can give rise to emotional distress due to frustration (Hirsh, Mar & Peterson, 2012). This can trigger the partners' unwillingness to take risks while facing the uncertainty of whether they are going to succeed or not (Ponticell, 2003). At the same time, there are no quick-fix solutions for developing partnerships across the professional cultures of schools and universities (Magolda, 2001). The findings based on the primary case are best suited to illustrate the fragility of a newly started partnership project.

During the first year, the context of the project is characterized by frustrations, uncertainty and unpredictability (Halvorsen, 2014a). New unexpected challenges unfold within the project and new solutions are tried out. A collective narrative reports that novice student teachers feel like guinea pigs in the partnership project. The guinea pig can be seen as a persona articulated in the narratives, where the persona operates as a legitimate social identity (Czarniawska, 2009). Some student teachers accepted this new identity as guinea pigs; others rejected it since they did not want to identify themselves as being in a victimised position. At the same time the university expects the student teachers to take responsibility and be able to take care of themselves in a self-reliant way. The new learning context puts at stake the student teachers' habit formation over thirteen years in their earlier role as school pupils. It seems that many of them need a steep learning curve to adjust from their roles as pupils to becoming responsible student teachers. It is in this context of frustration and unpredictability that a cooperating teacher puts forward an idea.

Her idea is to create a historical play in an old schoolhouse, which is welcomed by some of the teacher educators (Halvorsen, 2014a). It gives rise to a three-month project within the partnership, based on interdependent and collaboration. It involves children and teachers from a primary school, a class of stu-

dent teachers and teacher educators. Together they create meaningful and playful learning contexts. The unfolding episodes seem to nurture the enthusiasm of the partners and the student teachers. An episode that gives rise to enthusiasm is a catalyst for further partnership development (Little, 1997). The dynamic of enthusiasm in the partnership is illustrated below.

The teacher that proposes the idea: *I really believe in creating enthusiastic moments in teaching that give the pupils the opportunity to fully understand the theme.*

Teacher educator: *We have had very good discussions with the cooperating teachers based on equity and respect...we knew that everybody was important if we were to succeed.*

Student teacher concludes: *It was fun all the time... everything is possible (in the future) if you just find the right person to cooperate with.* (Halvorsen, 2014a, p. 19-20).

The quotations indicate that partnership building can promote a learning fellowship where the partners enhance the quality of each other's work. This kind of interdependency is recognized by everybody who gets the opportunity to contribute to the fellowship that arises in the process of creating the historical play. It is an illustration of the value set of the "inclusive-led homo socialis" (Caneiro, 2015). The concept of inclusion refers to the experience of belonging and being a part of the fellowship, according to Jørgensen (2006). He shows that in this kind of solidarity each participant is respected as equal and appreciated for their contribution to the fellowship. A sense of belongings can be promoted if democracy and inclusive collaboration inform the partnership (Zeichner, 2010). This kind of solidarity is further explored in a five-year development in the preschool case.

The end of this narrative presentation is based on findings that indicate the possibility of promoting *education for solidarity through teaching practice partnerships*. Education for solidarity is a contrast to competitive education that is based on the neoliberal agenda with its extensive standards and testing regimes. The need of education for solidarity is to support the belief of human beings as subjects, and prevent viewing them as objects or means for economic service, according to Jørgensen (2006). He points out that it is a question of creating an inclusive society and not an exclusive. Moreover, it seems to be urgent to start in early childhood. "It is in the early childhood period that children develop their

basic values, attitudes, skills, behaviours and habits, which may be long lasting” (Pramling Samuelsson & Kaga, 2008, p. 12).

The findings from the five-year preschool case are best suited to illustrate the impact of education for solidarity in partnership practice. The reason is, as stated above, that it takes time to create a learning fellowship across the cultures of schools and universities. The context of the preschool case is characterized by a closely interrelated and creative collaboration in the triad constituted by teacher educators, cooperating teachers, and student teachers. The case indicates that they are willing to take the risk of breaking old habits due to their strong common commitment to support the rights of small children to participate on issues that concern them, such as learning:

Teacher educator: *If children are to be able to influence the content of the learning activities, then you can't make plans based on detailed models.*

Cooperating teacher: *Both the student teachers and we ourselves have been observing what caught the curiosity of the children, and then we put forwards ideas of what we could do.*

Student teacher: *It was very frustrating to go out in the open landscape without a plan, but the response we got from the children was very motivating.* (Halvorsen & Smith, 2012, p. 245).

At the same time, there maybe a need for deep levels of learning among student teachers in order to change their naive beliefs about small children, which they have learned during their own schooldays.

All the beliefs we had about small children were detached and then put together in a new package by means of practice narratives and relevant theories by the teacher educator. During the preschool practice, we create our own practice narratives, analyse them, and put alternative interpretations up against each other. I am very glad I have gained such experiences. (Halvorsen & Smith, 2012, p. 246).

In the preschool case they have regular reflective dialogs in the triad between teacher educators, cooperating teachers and student teachers. They use videos that show episodes of interplay between the cooperating teacher, the student teachers, and the children. Together they analyse the episodes from the perspective of the small children's rights to participate and how it influences their learning. The

interplay of curiosity in the triad embraces the teacher educators' research on small children, the cooperating teachers' innovation in practice and the student teachers' project task in the preschool. They learn to live together in partnership by focusing on their common altruistic endeavour to promote the wellbeing of the small children in an innovative way. The preschool case can be seen to have developed a symbiotic partnership identity (Callahan & Martin, 2007). The triad's close collaboration gives rise to praxis reorientation in the preschool and in the specialization year of the teacher education program, based on solidarity that supports children's rights to participate.

CONCLUSIONS

The question explored in this chapter is: How can we understand the process of reorienting teacher education by building partnership, viewed from multiple perspectives? The answer is built on a study of literature on partnership and a multi-case study constituted by two pioneering partnership projects in Norway.

Two decades of research show that well-developed partnerships can have a high potential to support student teachers' professional development (Darling-Hammond, 2010). An illustration is the radical reorienting of teacher education on the model of "The collaborative school-university research partnership" (Baumfield & Butterworth, 2007).

However, two decades of research also document the problems associated with the traditional privileged power position of universities in relation to schools (Little, 1993; Hess, 2000; Zeichner, 2010; Halvorsen, 2014c). When academic discourse is viewed as the authoritative knowledge base concerning teaching and learning (Zeichner, 2010), it is impossible to build a partnership based on reciprocal respect, trust, and common values (Cochran-Smith, 2003).

When it comes to the student teachers, it is likely that novice student teachers have in mind a conglomerate of beliefs about teaching that are built on naive sense making about teaching, that they have acquired in the past. These earlier beliefs may be triggered during the practical part of teacher education, and the student teachers need help to reflect on the episodes by using academic theory (Korthagen *et al.*, 2006). This is important for gaining a deep professional understanding of teaching as a complex, uncertain, intellectual, and moral practice (Deng, 2004).

Teaching as a moral practice is in my opinion based on the core sustainable values of democracy, collaboration, interdependency, and solidarity. It is from that perspective I have re-interpreted a part of the multi-case study from my PhD thesis. The reinterpretations indicated that the following strategies are important to build a sustainable partnership.

In the preschool case the teacher educators use a *democratic approach* by inviting the cooperating teacher to discuss what can be a common inquiry for professional development. Such an approach seems to enhance the partners' motivation for establishing partnership.

The further development seems to be catalysed by the strategy of *collaboration based on interdependency*. In the primary case a cooperating teacher put forward an idea that was welcomed by some of the teacher educators. The idea catalysed three months of extensive team effort where they enhanced each other's work. They knew that everybody was important if they were to succeed. It gave rise to enthusiasm in the partnership, which was a contrast to the episodes of frustration that had unfolded in the first year of reorienting the program.

The final development has evolved over five years in the preschool case with continual adjustments. The reorienting processes are interpreted as a strategy of *education for solidarity* founded on the strong altruistic commitment in the partnership. It is based on enhancing the rights of small children to participate in matters that concern them, and where their opinions are deemed significant. The interplay of curiosity in the triad embraces the teacher educators' research on small children, the cooperating teachers' innovation in practice, and the student teachers' project task in the preschools. The dynamic of the partnership reorients the praxis of the preschool and the third year of specialization in the preschool program.

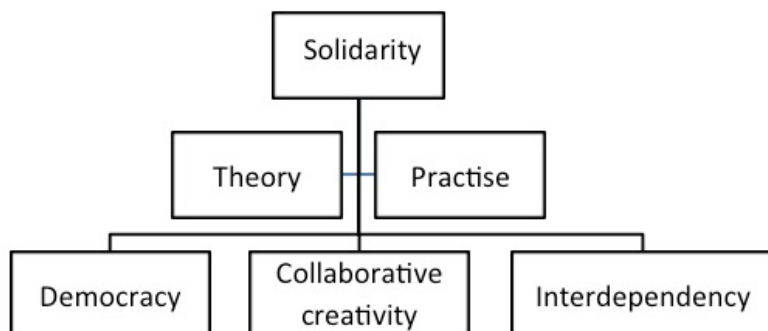


Figure 1. A model of partnership building enhancing education for solidarity in a sustainable way

The multi-case study indicates that the foundations of sustainable partnership are built on the interplay of democracy, creative collaboration, and interdependency. These core values open the doors for deep involvement in dialog and experimental practice that brings the perspectives of theory and practice together. The aim of the preschool case seems to build a new professional knowledge base that promotes education for solidarity. The aim is linked to an educational imperative, namely to develop all our talents to the full and to realize our creative potential for the common good (Delors *et al.*, 1996). The value of the findings is that it is shown to be possible to develop a partnership promoting education for solidarity. The model below shows a hierarchical presentation of the values involved.

The model indicates that building partnership with the aim of promoting education for solidarity is not only about linking theory to practice when seen from a broader sustainable perspective. On the contrary, it means knowledge production is viewed as a part of holistic, professional, and sustainable development in teacher education. The development is catalysed by partnership built on democracy, creative collaboration and interdependency, and the driving force is the value of education for solidarity. To my knowledge, a holistic perspective is rarely raised in the literature on partnership. Therefore, there is a need for more research on partnership a strategy for reorienting teacher education in a changing world, threatened by unsustainable challenges.

REFERENCES

- Bae, B. (2006). Perspektiver på barns medvirkning i barnehage. *Temahefte om barns medvirkning*. Oslo: Kunnskapsdepartementet.
- Bateson, G. (1972). *Steps to an ecology of mind*. New York: Ballantine Books.
- Baumfield, V. & Butterworth, M. (2007). Creating and translating knowledge about teaching and learning in collaborative school-university research partnerships: An analysis of what is exchanged across the partnerships, by whom and how. *Teachers and Teaching*, 13(4), 411–427. DOI: 10.1080/13540600701391960.
- Bullough, R. V., Jr. & Draper, R. J. (2004). Making sense of a failed triad: Mentors, university supervisors and positioning theory. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 55(5), 407–420. DOI: 10.1177/0022487104269804.
- Cochran-Smith, M. & Fries, M.K. (2005). Researching teacher education in changing times: Politics and paradigms. In M. Cochran-Smith, & K. Zeichner

- (eds.), *Studying teacher education: The report of the AERA panel on research and teacher education* (pp. 69-109). Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Cochran-Smith, M. (2003). Learning and unlearning: The education of teacher educators, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 19, 5–28. DOI: 10.1016/S0742-051x(02)00091-4.
- Callahan, J. L. & Martin, D. (2007). The spectrum of school-university partnerships: A typology of organizational learning systems. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23, 136-145. DOI:10.1016/j.tate.2006.04.038.
- Campell, A., McNamara, O., Furlong, J., Lewis, S. F., & Howsen, J. (2007). The evaluation of the National Partnership Project in England: Processes, issues and dilemmas in commissioned evaluation research. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 33(4), 471-483. DOI:10.1080/02607470701603308.
- Caneiro, R. (2015). Learning: The treasure within – Prospects for education in the 21st century. *European Journal of Education*, 50(1), 101-112. DOI: 10.1111/ejed.12110.
- Czarniawska, B. (2009). *Narratives in social science research* (2nd Edition). London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2010). Teacher education and the American future. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 61(35), 34–47. DOI:10.1177/0022487109348024.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (1997). *Doing what matters most: Investing in quality teaching*. New York: National Commission on Teaching and America's Future.
- Delors, J. et al. (1996). *Learning: The treasure within*. Report to UNESCO of the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century. UNESCO publishing. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0010/001095/109590eo.pdf>; Accessed: 06.09.2016.
- Deng, Z. (2004). The role of theory in teacher preparation: An analysis of the concept of theory application. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 31(2), 143-157. DOI:10.1080/1359866042000234232.
- Edens, K., Shirley, J. & Toner, J. (2001). Sustaining a professional development school partnership: Hearing the voices, heeding the voices. *Action in Teacher Education*, 23(3), 27-32. DOI:10.1080/1359866042000234232.
- Elfert, M. (2015). UNESCO, the Faure Report, The Delors Report, and the Political Utopia of Lifelong Learning. *European Journal of Education*, 50(1). DOI: 10.1111/ejed.12104.

- Flores, M.A. & Day, C. (2006). Contexts which shape and reshape new teachers' identities: A multi- perspective study. *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 22(2), 219–232. DOI: 10.1016/j.tate.2005.09.002.
- Furlong, J., McNamara, O., Campell, A., Howson, J. & Lewis, S. (2008). Partnership, policy and politics: Initial teacher education in England under New Labour. *Teacher and Teaching*, 14(4) 307–318. DOI: 10.1080/13540600802037728.
- Furlong, J., Whitty, G., Whiting, C., Miles, S., Barton, L. & Barrett, E. (1996). Re-defining partnership: Revolution or reform in initial teacher education? *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 22(1), 39–55. DOI:10.1080/02607479650038418.
- Gadotti, M. (2010). ESD and Education for all: Synergies and potential conflicts. *Int. Rev. Educ.*56. 221-224. DOI: 10.1007/s11159-010-9158-8.
- Gadotti, M. (2008). What we need to learn to save the planet. *Journal of Education for Sustainable Development*, 2(1), 21-30. DOI: 10.1177/097340820800200108.
- Halvorsen, K.V. (2014a). Building teacher identity in a new partnership project: Multiple perspectives. *Journal of Studies in Education*, 4(1), 10-24. DOI: 10.5296/jse.v4i1.4655.
- Halvorsen, K. V. (2014b). *Partnerskap i lærerutdanning, sett fra et økologisk perspektiv*. Doctoral thesis, Faculty of Psychology, University of Bergen, Norway.
- Halvorsen, K.V. & Smith, K. (2012). Utvikling av partnerskap i en førskolelærerutdanning, sett fra et økologisk perspektiv. *Norsk Pedagogisk Tidsskrift*, 96(3), 238-246.
- Hess, E.K. (2000). *Facilitators of and the barriers to the collaboration process in PDSs*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans.
- Hirsh, J.B., Mar, R.A. & Peterson, J.B. (2012). Psychological entropy: A framework for understanding uncertainty-related anxiety. *Psychological Review*, 119(2), 304-320. DOI: 10.1037/a0026767.
- Jørgensen, P.S. (2006). Solidaritet: Utopi og nødvendig handling. *Nordisk sosialt arbeid*, 26(4), 352–364.
- KD (2006). Rammepplan for barnehagens innhold og oppgaver. Oslo: Kunnskapsdepartementet. Available at: <https://www.regjeringen.no/globalassets/upload/kilde/kd/reg/2006/0001/ddd/pdfv/282023-rammeplanen.pdf>; Accessed: 31.08.2016.
- Korthagen, F.A.J., Loughran, J. & Russel, T. (2006). Developing fundamental principles for teacher education programs and practices. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22(8), 1020-1041. DOI: 10.1016/j.tate.2006.04.022.
- Korthagen, F.A.J. (2001). *Linking practice and theory: The pedagogy of realistic teacher education*. Mahwah, N.J.; Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

- KUF (1997). *The core curriculum for primary, secondary and adult education in Norway*. Oslo: The Royal Ministry of Education, Research and Church Affairs. Available at: http://www.udir.no/upload/larerplaner/generell_del/Core_Curriculum_English.pdf; Accessed: 31.08.2016.
- Lemke, J.L. & Sabelli, N.H. (2008). Complex systems and educational change: Towards a new research agenda. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 40(1), 118–129. DOI: 10.1111/j.1469-5812.2007.00401.x.
- Little, J. W. (1993). Teachers' professional development in a climate of educational reform. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 15(2), 129–151. Available at: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1164418>; Accessed: 20.08.2016.
- Magolda, P. (2001). Border crossings: Collaboration struggles in education. *Journal of Educational Research*, 94(6), 346–358. DOI: 10.1080/00220670109598772.
- Maandag, D.W., Deinum, J.F., Hofman, A.W.H., & Buithink, J. (2007). Teacher education in schools: An international comparison. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 30(2), 151–173. DOI: 10.1080/02619760701275552.
- Mayer, D. (2014). Forty years of teacher education in Australia: 1974–2014. *Journal of Education for teaching*, 40(5), 461–473. DOI: 10.1080/02607476.2014.956536.
- OECD (2005). *Teachers Matter: Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers*. Available at: <http://www.oecd.org/education/school/34990905.pdf>; Accessed: 12.12.2013.
- Parsons, M., & Stephenson, M. (2005). Developing reflective practice in student teachers: Collaborative and critical partnerships. *Teachers and Teaching*, 11(1) 95–116. DOI: 10.1080/1354060042000337110.
- Ponticell, J.A. (2003). Enhancers and inhibitors of teacher risk taking: A case study. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 78(3) 5–24, DOI: 10.1207/S15327930PJE7803_02
- Pramling Samuelsson, I., & Kaga, Y. (2008) (eds.), *The contribution of early childhood education to a sustainable society*. Paris: UNESCO. Available at: <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001593/159355E.pdf>; Accessed: 09.03.2016.
- Stake, R.E. (2006). *Multiple case study analysis*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Zeichner, K. (2010). Rethinking the connections between campus courses and field experiences in college- and university-based teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 61(1-2) 89–99. DOI: 10.1177/0022487109347671
- UFD (2003): Rammeplan for lærerutdanning. Kapittel 1, Oslo: Utdannings- og forskningsdepartementet.
- UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989). Available at: <http://childrensrights.ie/childrens-rights-ireland/un-convention-rights-child>; Accessed: 09.03.2016.

UNESCO (2014). *Shaping the future we want*. UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2005-2014), Final report. Paris: UNESCO. Available at: <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002303/230302e.pdf>; Accessed: 09.03.16.

3 The Idea of Sustainable Development as a Context for Modifying the Discourse on Early Childhood Education in Teacher Training: a Polish and Norwegian Project's Value Added

Abstract

The author of the article early childhood teachers presents the modification of the discourse on child education and its introduction into the teacher training curriculum as part of a project carried out by a team from The Maria Grzegorzewska University in Warsaw, Poland, together with the University of Agder in Kristiansand, Norway. The idea of sustainable development was the main criterion for examining the pedagogical principles of education, which made it possible to “saturate” the discourse with previously unnoticed values for the democratization of school culture, and to show new practical solutions. Four perspectives were adopted to present the context of the interpretation of the idea of sustainable development: a historical perspective, an educational policy perspective, a theoretical perspective, and a practical perspective. The historical perspective shows differences and continuity in the approach to child education; the educational policy perspective refers to the educational reform after political transformations in Poland; the theoretical and practical perspectives relate to the pedagogical interpretation of the idea of sustainable development and the presentation of trends in the theory and practice of early elementary education, and their introduction into the curriculum for future early childhood teachers.

Key words: educational policy in Poland, sustainable development, child education discourse.

INTRODUCTION

In Poland, *the idea of sustainable development* is rarely mentioned in discussions on the possibility of changing the model and culture of child education. *The idea of sustainable development* is usually associated with environmental education, with extended content introduced into curricula aimed at developing students' environmental awareness. Initially, we used a similar approach in our project entitled *Environmental education for sustainable development in teacher training*¹, carried out by a team from² The Maria Grzegorzewska Pedagogical University in Warsaw, Poland, together with the University of Agder in Kristiansand, Norway. We related this project to the issues of ecology and its purpose was to raise the awareness of preservice teachers in early childhood education programs about environmental protection, to implement the idea of "education outside the classroom" and to show practical solutions and opportunities for environmental education outdoors (Korwin-Szymanowska, Lewandowska, Tuszyńska, 2015; Korwin-Szymanowska, Lewandowska, Witkowska-Tomaszewska, 2016). However, the multidimensionality of the idea of sustainable development enabled us to recognize new theoretical and practical possibilities for modifying the teacher education curriculum.

The need to critically assess education students' previous experiences gained in school and to modify their thinking about school, child learning and teachers' duties is a constant problem in the education of future teachers. Traveling the road from the view of school oriented at instruction as reproduction to the concept of school as a space for social learning and constructing meanings is extremely difficult but necessary. Changing school is a multi-layered and long process, where the teacher plays a fundamental role. I share the view that the way teachers perceive the world and their place in the world, as well as their students' and parents' place in the world determines the way they will be creating their educational practice (Bałachowicz, 2009). Educating future teachers for creating a new school that will be based on democratic values, social learning, student participation and community building is a prerequisite for participation in social transformations. Though undervalued in Poland, ample opportunities to modify

¹ The project was co-funded by Norway and Poland in accordance with the contract no. FSS/2014/HEI/W/0017/U/0029 (Poland).

² The team was composed of: J. Bałachowicz, L. Tuszyńska, K. V. Halvorsen, A. Korwin-Szymanowska, E. Lewandowska, Z. S. Nitak and A. Witkowska-Tomaszewska.

child education are in the interpretation of the idea of sustainable development, which we tried to introduce into early childhood teacher training.

Kirsti V. Halvorsen, a research fellow at the University of Agder in Norway, who had carried out innovative projects with teachers before, was our partner in the project and helped us to perceive the value of outdoor nature activities provided in a spirit of democratic education.

A joint, comprehensive publication would be necessary to describe the team's activities and present the project's intended and "added" outcomes. I will focus my attention only on the reinterpretation of the theoretical model of early elementary education, which was the subject of my previous research. A reexamination of this model in the light of the idea of sustainable development enabled me to highlight the personalistic and democratic values of education and show new contexts of teacher actions. In other words, setting the subject of the analysis in new contexts and within a new discursive framework revealed shortcomings and opportunities for designing the teacher education curriculum that went unnoticed before, while taking education students' projects "outside the classroom," arranging new, different contexts of learning in a constructivist perspective enabled students to develop their individual, open vision of their future teaching practice. I adopt four perspectives to present the context of the interpretation: a historical perspective, an educational policy perspective, a theoretical perspective, and a practical perspective. The historical perspective shows differences and continuity in the approach to child education and teacher training; the educational policy perspective refers to the educational reform after political transformations in Poland; the theoretical and practical perspectives relate to the pedagogical interpretation of the idea of sustainable development and the presentation of trends in the theory and practice of early elementary education. At any rate, in order to provide critical reflection, it is necessary to assess and identify barriers that bring theoretical and methodological chaos and hinder the modification of the child education model in the professional development of future teachers.

SCHOOL AS AN INDOCTRINATION TOOL

In Poland under socialism, it was generally believed that school was the most important central educational institution that should be built in accordance with the visions the state and the dominant political forces had. The character of the

school's functioning, educational practice and teacher training was determined by the structuralist functionalist paradigm and an adaptive understanding of instruction. The model of a centrally planned education and expected outcomes focused mainly on teachers' skills in delivering the curriculum. Education was modeled on instructive teaching methods, classroom organizational charts and normative and repressive educational measures that dominated the philosophy of teaching. Pedagogy was focused on objectives, tasks and educational methods that aimed at collective instruction and education.

Children were regarded as individuals that could be easily taught what was politically programmed and expected by adults. "In early childhood, children submit easily to various educational interventions. It is a period that promotes learning as never again. Children are happy to learn and they do not analyze the way they acquire knowledge. Therefore, they are able to learn in an entirely mechanical way and also to learn to think properly and logically while solving problems. Normal, healthy children work, study and obey instructions willingly" (Wilgocka-Okoń, 1985, p. 150). This opinion expressed by Barbara Wilgocka-Okoń reflects the view of children that functioned in the official educational discourse, the understanding of their role as students and their position in the educational system. Children were treated as objects rather than agents; the need to manage their minds and their subordination to top-down educational expectations aiming at their standardization were clearly visible. It is true that pedagogy gave attention to students' great cognitive potential, but, in practice, it was to be used to increase teaching-learning efficiency and not to develop children's independence and participation in learning. It was recognized that children needed to be supervised, and it was recommended that teachers manage the teaching-learning process in a benevolent way to develop in students predetermined patterns of behavior. Teachers focused on instruction, so they were experts, instructors and classroom managers for their students; they were a means of conveying and performing educational patterns expected by the authorities. Education at that time was teacher-centered, not child-centered.

At that time, Polish pedagogy clearly focused on the institutional processes of instruction and education. That was closely related to the form of academic research conducted, which was based on the positivist paradigm; especially in school-centered pedagogy, there developed didactics that defined instruction methods derived from instrumental rationality. Teachers were prepared to work in a specific system of adaptive instruction as it was thought that "school is a mechanism in which appropriate experts perform specialist tasks – in accord-

ance with the requirements of their roles – in an interdependent way; these tasks altogether determine the achievement of the ultimate goal” (Schulz, 1992, p. 59). In this mechanism, teachers were a means of conveying knowledge and experts at fulfilling precisely defined social and professional goals. They were prepared to accomplish the same goals for all students, who were regarded as “a collective object of education” (Schulz, 1992, p. 61). Teachers’ work effectiveness was determined based on their ability to deliver the curriculum and impart knowledge as well as on the directiveness of their educational interventions.

American studies on teacher education show that until the eighties of the 20th century, teacher education was understood as a training problem (Cochran-Smith, Fries, 2013). A processual, behavioral – process-product – approach to instruction dominated, an instructive teaching style with the use of teaching methods that determined the assimilation of knowledge. Students’ knowledge growth was the measure of teachers’ work effectiveness. Similarly, it was assumed in Polish schools that each “teaching situation” and each activity of children produced expected results in the form of knowledge growth, and teachers’ work effectiveness was expressed in teachers’ ability to pass on knowledge, shape children’s behaviors as students and impose identity patterns that were implemented and controlled by the institution as part of the educational mechanisms of settling into the social system.

EDUCATIONAL POLICY FOLLOWING THE POLITICAL TRANSFORMATION IN POLAND

The first Solidarity authorities after the political change in 1989 were in favor of creating a society governed by democratic laws and rules and went for decentralization and demonopolization. However, the period of education decentralization and socialization was short and those processes were brought to a halt in 1993 when a post-left-wing grouping returned to power in Poland (Śliwerski, 2015). From then on, the briefly introduced opportunities to socialize education were gradually withdrawn and centralization returned – also thanks to the successive right-wing and neoliberal political forces.

The first comprehensive reform of the educational system, introduced in 1999, was to be a tool aiming to blur the lines among the schooling systems of the most economically developed countries being the members of the Organiza-

tion for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (Czaputowicz, 2013). The reform was carried out without an axionormative basis, without broader participation of educators, rejecting their views concerning the democratization of school culture and the constructivist fundamentals of educational practice. Similarly, to other Western countries, the primary focus was on instruction and results monitoring by means of standards and external examinations (Alexander, 2005; Pring, 2012). The Polish schooling authorities adopted the neoliberal principle of adapting the educational system to the challenges of globalization. The improvement of education quality was intended and the abandonment of encyclopedic instruction in favor of the development of each student's individual potential, giving equal educational opportunity to young generations and delegating many powers to schools in management and curriculum implementation (Konarzewski, 2001), but the neoliberal principle adopted to develop a social and conceptual framework for education did not solve the existing problems or satisfy the needs relating to the shaping of the new socioeconomic order.

After all, if societal change is perceived in purely economic terms, in terms of conflicts and the struggle for survival, the full picture of changes is lost, humanistic aspects and values are lost, and the individual is reduced to the role of an economic subject, an "investment." This issue was clearly presented by French sociologist Alain Touraine (2007, pp. 20-21), who emphasized that a society cannot be reduced to a production line or a system of exchanges. He did not see any chance to resolve the crisis without a constant reference to the concept of individual empowerment. It is similar in the case of the Polish educational system, its political and historical entanglement, the merger of new and old patterns in thinking about schooling. The focus on the outcomes of knowledge transmission, without any concept of supporting individuals' development and their subjective functioning, left education in the old rut of objectified instruction. The official educational discourse came to include economic terms, the category of standards, outcome measurability, high-quality performance, outcome testing, education management and other concepts describing the neoliberal understanding of education as a service and as preparing people for the labor market. This language and school's effects are described differently: in a positive way – from the angle of PISA results, and in a negative way – from the angle of perceived school dehumanization (e.g. Alexander, 2005; Bałachowicz, 2009; Klus-Stańska, 2010; Pring, 2012; Śliwerski, 2009; Żytko, 2014). The deliberate exclusion of pedagogy from the process of reforming education and the continual "shattering of the agent" in the social discourse have negative consequences for the whole society

(Kwieciński, 2013; Bałachowicz, Witkowska-Tomaszewska, 2015; Nowakowska-Siuta, Śliwerski, 2015). After the political change in Poland, school could not extend beyond the context of its cultural experience and previously adapted practices. The sluggishness of neobehaviorism, the absolutism of didactics over the scientific theoretical and methodological orientation in research on learning and the implementation of this research to practice and teacher training consolidated the model of schooling that was already inapplicable (Klus-Stańska, 2010). So, we expect people to be creative, enterprising, free, responsible, socialized, tolerant, to have a lifelong learning attitude, to manage the challenges of globalization and, paradoxically, we maintain a system of education that – despite transformations – inertly follows “Ford’s model early childhood education” (Bauman, 2006), which became out of date a long time ago.

Early childhood education was subjected to the same actions. Old solutions based on the behavioral model and on the formation of individuals that would be subject to imposed standards and disciplined lay behind new catchwords such as integrative learning, descriptive assessment, or educational packages. Qualitative research conducted under my direction (Bałachowicz, 2009) and Polish national research carried out between 2006 and 2011 on the academic context of third-graders’ skills (Żytko, 2014) found that in early elementary education practice, teachers use mainly instructive communication with their students, they focus on formal aspects of children’s language use, there is a lack of dialogue, discussions are not encouraged, judgments are imposed, etc. Teachers’ statements are dominated by a conservative and adaptive discourse of children and childhood, a view of children as “a system with gaps,” “a system with deficits,” which justifies the use of educational practices that do not promote democratization and child empowerment in the learning process. That is why Zbigniew Kwieciński’s statement (2013) concerning school is still relevant: “(...) the main issue in the development of Poland is a pedagogical question: How to help the Poles to form a community of people who are autonomous, able to cope not only with the confusing and fast changes of postmodernity on an individual basis, but also to cooperate at all levels for a collective vision of development that preserves our national identity but also includes us in the international community?”

My synthetic answer to the above question begins with the following statement: Child education requires that axionormative bases and new paradigms be emphasized and a new educational rationality be constructed. We need to perceive education as the new context of a democratic society’s expectations and capabilities requires, education that will aim at societal change, at the development

of individuals and the community; in practice, though, there is no commonly accepted vision of such education. The chaos and rival educational discourses, and in early elementary education – the successive government’s reversing structural and curricular changes and raising again the age that children begin compulsory preschool and school education are the best evidence of that. Setting the existing discourse on child education in a different perspective makes it possible to introduce a different language and different thinking about school. Such heuristic values for the reinterpretation of the child education model are brought by the idea of sustainable development, which additionally expands the discourse on early elementary education not only at the micro perspective level, but it also provides natural opportunities during classes with education students to set child education goals and the curriculum in the wider context of values and problems in social and economic life, in the context of the merging of political and educational problems. A holistic approach to child education makes it possible to “look ahead” and “see” the individuals’ and community’s needs.

THE IDEA OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AS THE HOPE FOR CHANGING THE CHILD EDUCATION DISCOURSE

An idea is a keynote that sets the course of action, it is a conception, an opinion, a definition of values, of imagined and desired states. Ideas are born and they die, but in order to bear fruit, they require a huge human interpreting and ingraining effort (Czarniawska, 2010, p. 168). An idea whose “time has come” can disseminate fast, travel from local to global spaces and back, expanding its content or changing it. I think that this metaphor of “a traveling idea” can also be related to the idea of sustainable development, its travel in individual and collective awareness, in time and space. This travel can also be linked to the growth of the scope and content of the idea of sustainable development, to its moving around in different areas of knowledge and its integration. It also concerns the theory and practice of education (Bałachowicz, 2016).

Sustainable development is an ambiguous term, even though it has been used in international documents, legal acts, and scientific literature for years; it has been translated differently, it is impossible to define it unambiguously. The fact it is a socially constructed term is reflected in the diversity of definitions and in its problem area becoming wider in the course of time (Hopood, Mellor & O’Brien,

2005). “The first stage consisted mainly in Western society becoming aware of the threats resulting from expansive industry, warnings came, a debate took place and a preliminary assessment of the causes of the threats was conducted. The next stage involved first reforms relating to natural resource management and lasted up to when “the limits to growth” were defined for the second time (Meadows, Meadows & Randers, 1991). The stage of social, cultural and economic transformations grew stronger especially at the turn of the centuries and it is still being implemented with varying degrees of intensity and varying results in different areas of life, including in education” (Bałachowicz, 2016, p. 13).

The concept of *sustainable development* was first mentioned in the UN report *Our Common Future* in 1987 and in Agenda 21 (Tuszyńska, 2015), setting the care of the environment as one of the basic conditions for further development of the world, besides economy and welfare. A fuller humanistic dimension of the concept of the sustainable development idea was framed in the above-mentioned report, prepared under the direction of Gro Harlem Brundtland. Since then, it has been customary to define sustainable development in the following way: “sustainable development is development which meets the needs of current generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (Pawłowski, 2009). Above all, sustainable development concerns relationships between people, between current and future generations, and relationships between people and their environment. This interpretation has a thoroughly moral and pedagogical dimension as it touches the basis of pedagogical thought and action, i.e. serving for inter- and intragenerational integration, care of the environment in which we live, and successful human development (Bałachowicz, 2016, pp. 13-14).

As a result of Agenda 21, a national strategy for environmental education was adopted in Poland. The strategy was described in the document called *Through Education to Development. A National Strategy for Environmental Education* (2001, p. 8), which emphasized that education concerns all the challenges of sustainable development. Its goals were framed as follows:

- To develop society’s full awareness of and arouse interest in interrelated economic, social, political and environmental issues.
- To enable each person to acquire knowledge and skills necessary to improve the state of the environment.
- To create new behavior patterns and develop attitudes, values and beliefs in individuals, groups and societies that take into account concern for the quality of the environment.

The goals of education for sustainable development (ESD) quoted show that the interpretation of the idea is limited to environmental education in the document mentioned above. ESD was similarly interpreted in school activities as part of the Decade of Education for Sustainable Development, even though ESD interests included such values as: ethics, democracy, peace, social justice, safety and economy. Addressing these issues, school communities continue to perform short-term actions, and adults engage in co-managing and protecting the environment in their districts to a small extent (Tuszyńska, 2008), even though we have seen some grassroots initiatives aiming at air protection recently. These remarks show that pedagogy has a lot of catching up to do in the area of supporting society in shaping the environment for living and in taking responsibility for its quality. The form of civilization is not only the expansion of science and technology, but above all, it is the development of education and culture, of social relationships and mutual care; therefore, the focus should be shifted toward “the quality of people” and also toward the relationships between people and the world they contribute to.

Apart from detailed analysis of the social construction of the meaning of sustainable development, which is described in many publications, e.g. in John Blewitt's *Understanding Sustainable Development* (2015), the emancipatory perspective on the idea of sustainable development is of heuristic importance to me, its orientation to the future that combines the environmental, economic, social and cultural dimensions in a processual and balanced way and that is reflected in the theory and practice of education to the largest extent. In the civilization approach, the idea of sustainable development occupies the role of a change agent, of a “new progress” agent where the importance of justice – intergenerational and interpersonal justice – is taken into consideration. With reference to early elementary education, the interpretation of the idea highlights above all the values of a community-based and creative life, the values of an open and democratic society that cares about natural living conditions, its future and development opportunities for future generations.

LEARNING: THE TREASURE WITHIN – DISCOVERING TOGETHER THE VALUES OF EDUCATION FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

In order to establish together the values which, we selected and included in the theory and practice of training for future teachers as part of the project, we used the report to UNESCO of the International Commission on Education for the 21st Century, prepared under the direction of Jacques Delors, entitled *Learning: The Treasure Within* (1998). The publication did not receive due recognition in the Polish official educational discourse – perhaps, among other things, because it differed from the preferred, standard-oriented education.

Education understood as treasure, which is clearly highlighted in the title of the above-mentioned publication, can evoke different associations, but the book's main message is expressed in the thought that education is that tool of human action that expands human potential and opens up new possibilities, aims at developing mankind and each and every human being. The starting point for such thinking is a new understanding of the concept of development: “Broadly speaking, in modern times, development cannot be equated only with economic and technological expansion, but it has to take into consideration ethical, social and environmental dimensions. It is linked to understanding the human right to a healthy and productive life in harmony with nature and to defining people as the agents of sustainable development while simultaneously respecting future generations’ right to development. Therefore, education has to abandon the narrow understanding of development, including also the understanding of instruction as knowledge transmission only; it has to understand human development as a process aiming at expanding human potential – the potential of individuals and the whole society while taking into account the concern for the natural environment” (Bałachowicz, 2015, p. 28).

As a result of the interpretation of the meanings presented in *Learning: The Treasure Within*, I express the paradigms and new categories of learning in the following way:

- **Learning to know**, i.e. to acquire tools to understand oneself and the world, search for knowledge and wisdom, to learn learning tools in order to learn all lifelong;
- **Learning to do**, to use one’s knowledge in everyday life, to be able to have impact on one’s environment, to take creative and responsible actions;

- **Learning to live together**, to use one's knowledge, merits and skills to understand others, participate and cooperate with others in all the spheres of human activities, to build citizenship in the world full of correlations;
- **Learning to be**, to use one's knowledge, merits and skills for personal development, aiming to seek value, self-improvement, the development of aesthetic dimensions in one's life, immersion in culture, learning for oneself;
- **Learning to be innovative**, to transform oneself, local communities and the global society;
- **Learning to live in a sustainable way**, to develop a reflective attitude to life, to shape one's environment, relationships with it, and one's lifestyle in a sustainable way (Bałachowicz, 2016, pp. 33-34).

The foundations of lifelong development and the execution of one's plans in the future are laid by elementary education. Elementary education is a "fundamental education," that is why it is understandable that its goals are formulated as a kind of "dowry to life." It is not only about elementary academic skills such as reading, writing or counting, but about situating the basis of child socialization in a democratic society, learning how to face the difficult challenge of choosing the values that set the direction for "negotiations" with the world and oneself. We need child education that is understood as a social space which provides conditions for sustainable development that focus on materializing such values as: autonomy, participation, dialogue, equality, responsibility, solidarity, which form the foundation of thinking about democracy as a principle of social life organization and as a way of expressing human individual and community potential.

TOWARD A TRANSFORMATIVE MODEL OF EARLY ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Analyses of international reports on education, international commitments and open societies' experiences irrefutably show that changing the present model of education, its fundamental redefinition is an essential condition for implementing education for sustainable development. Trends in this redefinition are described coherently in the area of scientific discourse (e.g. Klus-Stańska, 2014; Bałachowicz, Witkowska-Tomaszewska, 2015), but their reinterpretation in the light of the idea of sustainable development makes it possible to highlight important elements in constructing pedagogical rationality.

Showing the basic direction of changes in education in alliance with the idea of sustainable development, Bob Jickling and Arjen E.J. Wals (2008, pp. 7-8) highlight tensions between the traditional, transmissive model of education and the need to educate autonomous and self-determined individuals as members of a democratic society. They note that the reproduction of existing social roles and knowledge by the educational system does not promote anticipatory and innovative learning; that is why education has to reject the transmissive paradigm of education, traditional instruction strategies in favor of a transformative education based on active learning. The direction of these changes can be shown graphically in the following way (Figure 1).

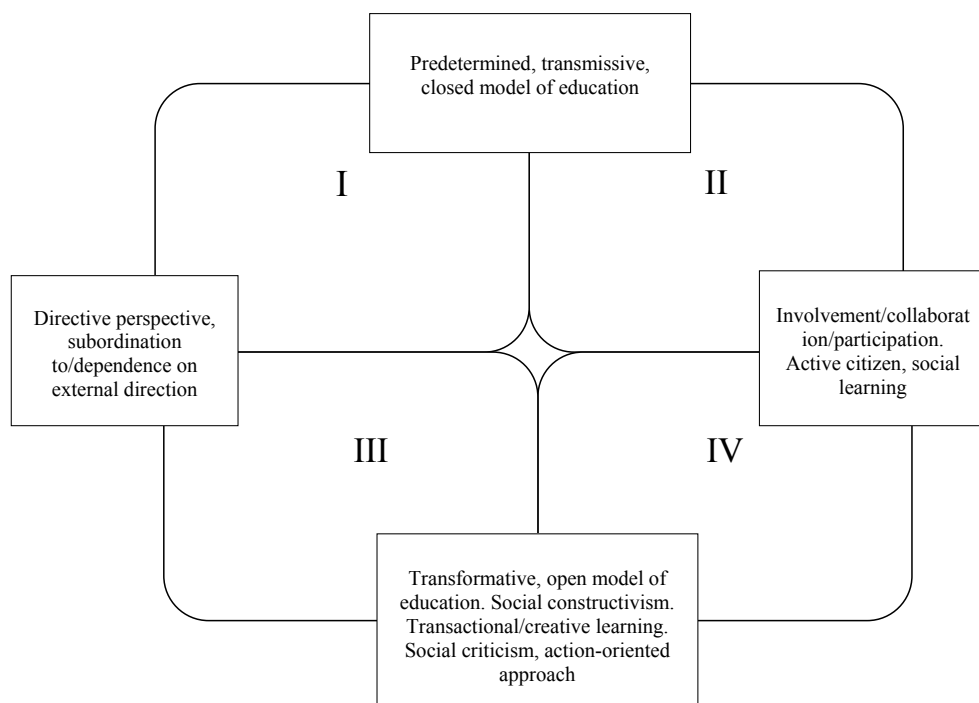


Figure 1. Education models and patterns of directing child learning (Bałachowicz, 2015, p. 47).

The first trend can be presented vertically – departure from transmissive education, maintenance learning in favor of open, flexible, transformative education oriented at social and creative learning. The second trend can be presented horizontally – from directive education that standardizes behaviors to education

that prefers involvement, participation and individual efforts aiming at self-creation and social action. In other words – from teachers’ power and control over students’ learning to delegating power and control to students. Once both trends are integrated in practice, the emancipatory values of education are activated, young people are being equipped with cultural tools aiming at self-regulation, autonomy, ability to achieve goals, establishing partner relationships, building up social networks, taking responsibility for oneself and one’s lifestyle.

Based on the findings of my former research on educational practice and their interpretation, I describe fields 1 through 4 shown in Figure 1, using descriptions of teachers’ individual representations of child education and their styles of constructing educational practice (Bałachowicz, 2009). Broadly speaking, the styles of teachers’ practical activities that I identified combine school socialization goals, patterns in including young people in social life, in constructing knowledge and in managing child learning. The essence of and differences between these styles can be described on the basis of a “disciplinary” paradigm or a participatory and delegating paradigm. They show school socialization mechanisms, especially mechanisms developing/blocking autonomy and self-management. When the fields shown in Figure 1 are analyzed one by one, it is possible to describe educational conditions for developing/blocking child independence, but only the combination of field 4 properties – that is the constructivist social learning model and child involvement – embodies the essence of an open model – acknowledging the child to be a social actor, a full, autonomous, free and responsible person who is able to cope with autonomy and confidence in “directing his or her direction.”

I described in details the directions of changes in interactions in the early elementary grades and the styles of teachers’ educational activities in the book *Style działań edukacyjnych nauczycieli klas początkowych: między uprzedmiotowieniem a podmiotowością* [Styles of educational activities in early elementary teachers: Between objectification and agency]. It turned out that the open education style, which was rarely present in practice, can use a whole range of practical activities based on participatory and democratic communication in managing the learning process. We were familiar with this trend in thinking and it did not require to be ingrained anew in the rationality of child education reinterpreted in the light of the idea of sustainable development. This was also confirmed by the analysis of the findings of research on educational strategies used under the ESD Decade. Dominant learning styles in educational practice were open as well and were based on student participation; these were discovery learning, problem-based learning, critical-thinking-based learning, collaborative learning, and

interdisciplinary learning (*Shaping the Future We Want, UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2005-2014) Final Report*). It was confirmed again that the pedagogical interpretation of the idea of sustainable development provides greater opportunities to transform child learning and teachers' educational practice in an innovative way, to reject traditional instruction in favor of the constructivist paradigm of education, to develop autonomy, respect for student participation and collaborative learning, to use innovative and anticipatory learning (e.g. Botkin, Elmandjra & Malitza, 1982).

I support the description of the proposed understanding of the transformative education model with William A. Corsaro's (2005) theory of "interpretive reproduction." Explaining the new approach to the understanding of socialization processes, Corsaro underlines the children's role in their development, acknowledges them as social actors, people who take an active part in social processes of self- and culture-creation. The child does not grow up as a solitary individual, isolated from others, but as a social actor who joins in a number of activities embedded in sociocultural circles, who negotiates, shares and creates culture with adults and peers. Children do not internalize social norms and culture so much as they actively join in creating culture and change it, leaving their "modifying tracks," through the interaction between child culture and adult culture. Corsaro also notes that children simultaneously take action in two worlds which are interwoven with each other – in the world of adults and in the world of children, where they make choices, try to understand, assimilate, adopt and construct social meanings, norms and values. They thus create their own world and socialize each other, and at the same time, creatively participate in creating the world of adults. Therefore, the term "interpretive reproduction" refers to the innovative and creative aspect of child participation in society, to children's participation in creating culture and cultural change. Understanding this concept helps to interpret the old, essentialist concept of a developing agent and to adopt a constructivist view of children as social actors, members of a learning "community of minds," agents of experiences and of their reconstruction, active participants of interactions who co-construct meanings, construct their knowledge, their view of the world and their view of themselves in this world.

To describe the view of children from a psychological perspective but also from the perspective of social constructivism, I used, inter alia, Katherine Nelson's (2007) research findings and her *experiential* concept of child development. Also, this way I expanded the curriculum content for education students with elements essential to develop the "child participation" construct, to show the impor-

tance of individual experience and meaning construction in the community of minds (Bałachowicz, 2015b).

Overall, the theoretical basis of transformative education is grounded on the ideas of humanism, personalism, democratism, children's rights, and the paradigms of individual and social constructivism. The relationship between these ideas can be expressed with the use of a metaphor borrowed from Peter Silcock (1999, p. 136): "Each theoretical pillar is structurally related to the others, rather as the pillars of a temple are planned to harmonize architecturally in order to contain a specialized set of activities". Therefore, they need to be presented in an integral and dynamic way in understanding learners, their autonomy and active, prosocial individuality, the cultural and social determinants of development and in organizing education open to local communities. Those ideas are the pillars supporting the reinterpretation of the child education model and early childhood teacher education.

RESTRUCTURING THE PATTERNS OF TEACHERS' VISION FOR EFFECTIVE ACTION

Such a dynamic and constructivist perspective on understanding educational theory and practice assumes that education students will be trained as subjective and responsible architects of education, researchers into their own practice and initiators of cooperative action for learners. Therefore, the concept of teacher education based on a structured knowledge of teaching is being rejected in favor of humanistic and personalistic orientations with teachers' task understood as supporting learning and creating an environment for development that is sensitive to values. Because transmissive teaching dominates in school education, the most difficult issue is to implement a view of school in education students' day-to-day learning that would be different from the one they know from experience, and to help prospective teachers in developing a system of thinking about the complex pedagogical action in a rapidly changing environment. Future teachers should use knowledge *to* understand and construct their practice, they should use knowledge to reflect on *during* their educational activities and to learn *based on* the practice they are creating (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005, p. 385). Prospective teachers have to develop their variously complex vision for pedagogical action as well as tools and resources that will make this action possible. I used

the chapter *How Teachers Learn and Develop* (Hammerness *et al.*, 2005, p. 386) to present this vision graphically, and implemented it for our needs relating to teacher training.

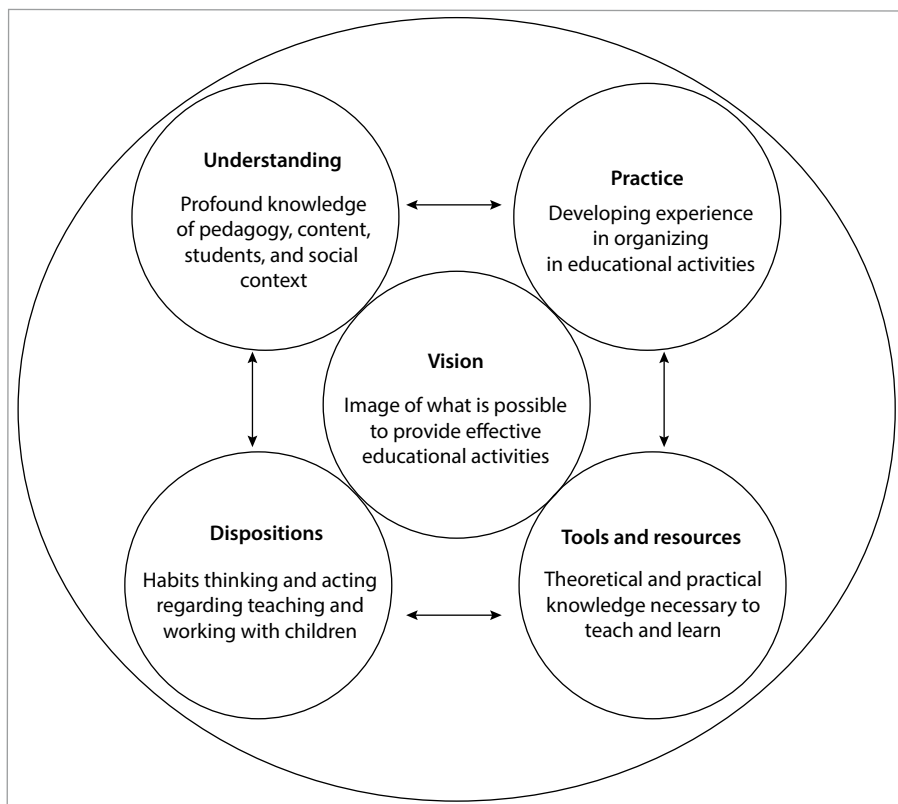


Figure 2. Learning to be a teacher in community. Compiled by J. Bałachowicz based on K. Hammerness *et al.* (2005, p. 286).

The theoretical framework of the vision for one's possibilities for action should be gradually filled up with dynamic and integrated patterns for future, professionally created educational worlds. In Figure 2, they are placed inside four circles: understanding, practice, tools and resources, and dispositions, but it is not an unambiguous and dichotomous division; these patterns should rather be understood holistically – they support and interpenetrate each other.

I organize basic patterns regarding the agents of interactions, child learning, teaching and the social dimensions of educational practice as follows:

- the pattern of the world of human life, a view of the world from the perspective of values, what world the child lives and will live in (“desired and possible worlds” pattern);
- the pattern of learning and constructing the child’s mind – who is a human being in the process of lifelong development;
- the pattern of factors determining developmental changes in children, children’s role as a social actor and their participation in their development;
- the pattern of children’s social roles, children who work together with their peers and adults, create and change culture;
- the pattern of children’s activity levels during classes, the pattern of students’ actions – based on self-regulation and managing their actions;
- the pattern of knowledge management, teachers’ role – students’ role in creating meanings;
- the pattern of communication with the teacher and interpersonal relationships among children (collaborative learning, group work and peer tutoring in particular);
- the pattern of time management during classes, the teacher’s and student’s working rhythm (social and personal time management);
- the pattern of outcome monitoring and evaluation (developmental expectations for children, what is most important, what I demand, how I assess (cf. Bałachowicz, 2009, pp. 155-156).

The category of pattern, schema, social representation is a crucial concept for constructivism. These expressions suggest that they are certain cognitive and enactive representations which determine the ways in which we perceive, name, think, remember, understand and act with reference to a specific area of social reality. A pattern is not a copy of reality but a specific idealization of reality, a mental representation of a socially determined reality (see Zuzanna Zbróg, this monograph). Using patterns is a feature of our daily life, it helps us to understand others, to understand situations and quickly respond to them (Giddens, 2003). These patterns can be described and crystallized in various ways; then, a personal vision of educational practice will be of a different “nature” and will be oriented at different educational values. The most important thing for us is to develop a vision of educational practice where all actions focus on learners with their individual characteristics, abilities and interests, learners who live in an open society and guided by values, participate in its successful development.

LEARNING AND TEACHING STRATEGIES IN EDUCATION FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT – FUTURE TEACHERS’ TOOLS AND RESOURCES

Education for sustainable development offers active learning strategies that can be the backbone of future teachers’ educational tools based on the paradigm of social and cognitive constructivism. They include: experiential learning, storytelling, values education, enquiry learning, appropriate assessment, future problem solving, community problem solving, and learning outside the classroom (UNESCO *Teaching and Learning ...*).

At first, outdoor education included in the environmental education curriculum was the basis of the project carried out in the Early Childhood Education Unit at The Maria Grzegorzewska University in partnership with the University of Agder in Norway. We supplemented it with experiential learning and values education right away. These strategies are described in detail by Ewa Lewandowska, referring to UNESCO resources (Lewandowska, 2016), but the *outdoor environmental education* curriculum and its use in teacher training is presented in *Edukacja środowiskowa w kształceniu nauczycieli w perspektywie praktycznej* [Environmental education in teacher training. A practical perspective] (Korwin-Szymanowska, Lewandowska, Tuszyńska, 2015). Publications of a practical nature propagate education for sustainable development and show various solutions for children’s active learning in nature. There is therefore no need to describe them. What I will focus on is learning outside the classroom from the perspective of change in teachers’ transmissive behaviors.

LEARNING OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM AS A LEARNING SPACE FOR THE TEACHER AND CHILDREN

Showing in practice opportunities to openly plan activities that would benefit children is a value of learning outside the classroom that is important for the early elementary teacher training project. I was fascinated by the story told by Kirsti V. Halvorsen during the first scientific seminar in Kristiansand, which was about changing the vision of teaching practice following observations of children’s behaviors. The story is called “a dead mouse teaching method” and is included

in our joint publication (Halvorsen, 2015, pp. 134-135). The story highlights a teacher's reflection on children's curiosity about a dead mouse they find, and her giving up the subject of learning about trees that she prepared beforehand. The teacher decides that "the children's thoughts and opinions about the dead mouse are much more important to them existentially than learning the names of five broadleaf trees" (Halvorsen, 2015, p. 135). The story also emphasizes the power of narrative in changing our thinking about school, and in dealings with education students – it is used to create different stories about school based on one's own practice.

In learning outside the classroom, the teacher's role as a coordinator of children's learning through experiencing changes, which also leads to teachers learning to build up confidence in children's independence, reflection, and responsibility. Activities outside the classroom provide children with space to discover various learning opportunities, with freedom to learn using the treasury of "loose parts" (pebbles, sticks, branches, grass, sand...), enable them to manage their own actions and how they make use of their time, and competence increases quickly when "first-hand learning" gives instant feedback. Processes of joint attention shared with peers and adults – combination of the physical sphere with the social sphere enhanced with emotions – highlight the ability to isolate new information from the environment and to behave in a specific context (Chawla, 2006). Learning to coordinate social actions, e.g. in building a hut, playing a ball or climbing a tree, emphasizes relational values right away, teaches prudence and free play. Louise Chawla's research findings also show that children's outdoor learning has an impact on the development of environmental attitudes in adulthood (Chawla, 2006).

Observation of children's free action in the outdoors, their initiative, curiosity, and inquisitiveness inspire teachers to transform their own professional roles more confidently. Based on her work with Norwegian teachers, Kristi V. Halvorsen says: "Teachers are attentive to children's initiative, respond positively: they stop and engage in children's discoveries. Children see that their discoveries are so important that even those 'mighty' adults are willing to devote their time to them. In the outdoors, children are often adults' 'mentors' thanks to their ability to notice small and large things" (Halvorsen, 2015, p. 138).

That is different from the principles of traditional pedagogy, in which adults' task is to impart knowledge, shape young people to perform traditional roles, and transmit culture. The advantages of outdoor education can be explained more clearly in terms of "interpretive reproduction" (Corsaro, 2005). Interpretiveness refers to innovativeness and creativity as important aspects of child participation

in society. This approach underlines the children's active role in their own development and their participation in the world of adults and peers. Learning outside the classroom is based on a relational understanding of learning, it is a two-way learning process – also in the direction from children to adults. Children as well contribute to the reproduction, feeding and development of adults' culture (Corsaro, 2005, p. 41). Confidence in children's abilities and observing how they learn outside the classroom provide space for the democratization of school learning.

CONCLUSIONS

In Poland, education for young people is in a quite complex and peculiar situation where signs of both beneficial changes and a deep crisis are seen. On the one hand, structural and curricular reforms have been introduced in the educational system which lead to changes in measurable educational outcomes; and on the other hand, the system of school management and functioning does not match social expectations and aspirations. We have numerous assessments and can answer the questions: What causes this backwardness, what are the reasons for it, and what changes could be suggested? We can describe developmental barriers and why transmissive school culture stays popular, but we have trouble overcoming “the barriers of the past,” “the barriers of *theoreticalness*,” “the barriers of instrumentalism,” “the barriers of a historicity,” which results in our school still being in “a pre-democratic straitjacket.”

Answers to the questions: How to change school, how to change its culture, what strategy of change to adopt (cf. Szymański, Walasek-Jarosz, Zbróg, 2016) are different, but the task of constructing the rationality of democratic child education is still before us. Barbara Czarniawska (2013, p. 65) points out that “rationality is (...) a product of interaction,” helps give meaning to actions and validate them, is a symbolic construct created in interaction through the use of speech and action. Constructing rationality, constructing teachers' intentions and negotiating them – it is also the essence of teacher education. To change school, new content and contexts for these negotiations are necessary, new values and patterns of actions need to be ingrained in teachers' vision of educational practice. The quest for them was inspired by a partnership-based dialogue of researchers in the Polish and Norwegian project. Taking advantage of the new tool to think about changes in child education discourse, i.e. the idea of sustainable development, enabled us

to find a new paradigmatic plane to expand current ideas on child and teacher education, and to find new practical solutions. Moreover, the article attempts to reflect on how to stop difficult historical, cultural and social disputes, and saturate our discourse on school with new values, how to look at children's activity and the changeability of teachers' roles from a different perspective.

REFERENCES

- Alexander, R. (2004). Still no pedagogy? Principle, pragmatism and compliance in primary education. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 34(1), 7–34.
- Bałachowicz, J. (2009). *Style działań edukacyjnych nauczycieli. Między uprzedmiotowieniem a podmiotowością*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo WSP TWP.
- Bałachowicz, J. (2015a). Zmiany współczesnych kontekstów edukacji dziecka. In J. Bałachowicz, K.V. Halvorsen, A. Witkowska-Tomaszewska, *Edukacja środowiskowa w kształceniu nauczycieli. Perspektywa teoretyczna* (pp. 11-62). Warszawa: Wydawnictwo APS.
- Bałachowicz, J. (2015b). Szkoła i dziecko jako projekt społeczny. In J. Bałachowicz, A. Witkowska-Tomaszewska, *Edukacja wczesnoszkolna w dyskursie podmiotowości. Studium teoretyczno-empiryczne* (pp. 17-140). Warszawa: Wydawnictwo APS.
- Bałachowicz, J. & Witkowska-Tomaszewska, A. (2015). *Edukacja wczesnoszkolna w dyskursie podmiotowości. Studium teoretyczno-empiryczne*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo APS.
- Bałachowicz, J. (2016). Idea zrównoważonego rozwoju w teorii pedagogicznej. In L. Tuszyńska (ed.), *Koncepcja zrównoważonego rozwoju w kształceniu nauczycieli klas początkowych* (pp. 11-43). Warszawa: Wydawnictwo APS.
- Blewitt, J. (2015). *Understanding Sustainable Development*. 2nd Edition. New York: Routledge.
- Botkin J.W., Elmandjra M. & Malitza M. (1982). *Uczyć się – bez granic. Jak zewrzeć „lukę ludzką”?* Warszawa: Raport Klubu Rzymskiego, PWN.
- Cochran-Smith, M. & Fries, K. (2013). Researching Teacher Education in Changing Times: Politics and Paradigms. In M. Cochran-Smith, K.M. Zeichner (eds.), *Studying Teacher Education: The Report of the AERA Panel on Research and Teacher Education* (pp. 69-109). New York: Routledge.
- Corsaro, W.A. (2005). *The Sociology of Childhood*. USA: Thousand Oaks, Sage Publications.

- Chawla, L. (2006). *Learning to Love the Natural World Enough to Protect It*. Norsksenter for Barneforskning. Available at: Eec.islandwood.org/files/johnh/.../Chawla_LearnToLove.pdf.
- Czarniawska, B. (2013). *Trochę inna teoria organizacji. Organizowanie jako konstrukcja sieci działań*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Poltex.
- Czaputowicz, J. (2013). *Suwerenność*. Warszawa: Polski Instytut Spraw Międzynarodowych.
- Darling-Hammond L. & Bressford J. (eds.) (2007). *Preparing Teachers for a Changing World: What Teachers Should Learn and Be Able to Do*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Delors, J. (1998). *Edukacja. Jest w niej ukryty skarb*. Warszawa: Stowarzyszenie Oświatowców Polskich, Wydawnictwo UNESCO.
- Giddens, A. (2003). *Stanowienie społeczeństwa*. Poznań: Wydawnictwo Zysk i S-ka.
- Halvorsen K.V. (2015). *Edukacja dla zrównoważonego rozwoju – implementacja wartości do praktyki edukacyjnej*. In J. Bałachowicz, K. V. Halvorsen, A. Witkowska-Tomaszewska, *Edukacja środowiskowa w kształceniu nauczycieli. Perspektywa teoretyczna* (pp. 95-140). Warszawa: Wydawnictwo APS.
- Hammerness, K., Darling-Hammond, L., Rust, F. et al (2005). How Teachers Learn and Develop. In L. Darling-Hammond, J. Bransford (eds.), *Preparing Teachers for a Changing World: What Teachers Should Learn and Be Able to Do*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Hopwood B., Mellor M. & O'Brien G. (2005). Sustainable development: Mapping different approaches. *Sustainable Development*, 13(1), 38-52.
- Jickling B. & Wals A.E.J. (2008). Globalization and environmental education: looking beyond sustainable development. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 40(1), 1-21.
- Klus-Stańska, D. (2010). *Dydaktyka wobec chaosu pojęć i zdarzeń*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Akademickie „Żak”.
- Klus-Stańska, D. (red.) (2014). *(Anty)edukacja wczesnoszkolna*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Konarzewski, K. (red.) (2001). *Szkolnictwo w pierwszym roku reformy systemu oświaty*. Warszawa: ISP.
- Korwin-Szymanowska A., Lewandowska E. & Tuszyńska L. (2015). *Edukacja środowiskowa w kształceniu nauczycieli w perspektywie praktycznej*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo APS.
- Kwieciński, Z. (2013). Edukacja – do naprawy. *Akademia*, 2013, 1(33), 7-18.
- Lewandowska, E. (2016). Od idei zrównoważonego rozwoju (ZR) do idei edukacji dla zrównoważonego rozwoju. In A. Korwin-Szymanowska, E. Lewan-

- dowska, A. Witkowska-Tomaszewska, *Edukacja dla zrównoważonego rozwoju w perspektywie wyzwań społeczeństwa wiedzy* (s. 39-72). Warszawa: Wydawnictwo APS.
- Meadows D. H., Meadows D. L. & Randers J. (1995). *Przekraczanie granic. Globalne załamanie czy bezpieczna przyszłość?* Centrum Uniwersalizmu przy Uniwersytecie Warszawskim, Polskie Towarzystwo Współpracy z Klubem Rzymskim.
- Nelson, K. (2007). *Young Minds in Social Worlds: Experience, Meaning and Memory*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Nowakowska-Siuta, R. & Śliwerski, B. (2015). *Racjonalność procesu kształcenia. Studium z polityki oświatowej i pedagogiki porównawczej*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Pawłowski, A. (2009). *Teoretyczne uwarunkowania rozwoju zrównoważonego*, (old.ros.edu.pl/text/pp_2009-071, PDF).
- Pring, R. (2012). Putting persons back into education. *Oxford Review of Education*. vol. 38, No 6, 747-760: Accesed EBSCO: 05.01.2017.
- Przez Edukację do Zrównoważonego Rozwoju. Narodowa Strategia Edukacji Ekologicznej* (2001). Warszawa: Ministerstwo Środowiska.
- Shaping the Future We Want, UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2005-2014) Final Report*, Paris. Unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002301/230171e.pdf.
- Silcock, P. (1999). *New Progressivism*. London: Falmer Press.
- Schulz, R. (1992). *Szkoła – instytucja – system – rozwój*. Toruń: Wydawnictwo Edytor.
- Śliwerski, B. (2009). *Problemy współczesnej edukacji. Dekonstrukcja polityki oświatowej III RP*. Warszawa: WAiP.
- Śliwerski, B. (2015), *Edukacja (w) polityce. Polityka (w) edukacji. Inspiracje do badań polityki oświatowej*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Szymański, M.J., Walasek-Jarosz, B. & Zbróg, Z. (red.) (2016). *Zrozumieć szkołę. Konteksty zmiany*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo APS.
- Tuszyńska, L. (2008). *Diagnoza stanu edukacji środowiskowej społeczności lokalnych w wybranych regionach Polski*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo UW.
- Tuszyńska, L. (2015). *Nauki o środowisku przyrodniczym*. In A. Korwin-Szymanowska, E. Lewandowska, L. Tuszyńska, *Edukacja środowiskowa w kształceniu nauczycieli w perspektywie praktycznej* (pp. 9-36). Warszawa: Wydawnictwo APS.
- Touraine, T. (2007). *Mysleć inaczej*. Warszawa: PIW.

UNESCO Teaching and Learning for Sustainable Future. Available at: <http://www.unesco.org/education/tlsf>; Accessed: 05.02 2017.

Wilgocka-Okoń, B. (1985). Organizacja pracy i odpoczynku ucznia. In B. Wilgocka-Okoń (red.), *Edukacja wczesnoszkolna* (pp. 137-163). Warszawa: WSiP.

Żytko, M. (2014). Edukacja językowa w szkole – między dążeniem do formalizacji schematu a refleksją nad uczestnictwem w zdarzeniach komunikacyjnych. In D. Klus-Stańska (ed.), *(Anty)edukacja wczesnoszkolna* (pp. 315–344). Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.

Ewa Skrzetuska

University of Life Sciences, Warsaw, Poland

Marzenna Nowicka

University of the Warmia and Mazury, Olsztyn, Poland

4 Training of Early Childhood Education Teachers in Poland, Changes in Training and Employers' Expectations

Abstract

The paper describes the changes in the early childhood education teacher training system in Poland since the 1970s. Modifications of the training were critically examined and the desired changes were outlined. The survey results regarding the expectations the employers – the school directors were invoked in the context of the teacher education model. The results unequivocally demonstrate a lack of coherence between the current trends in the academic teacher training and the dominated by instrumentalism educational school practice.

Key words: early childhood education, teacher training system, university teacher training programme.

INTRODUCTION

Preparing teachers to work with children at the first stages of education in the contemporary Poland has a long history and is rooted in the teacher training system created in the People's Republic of Poland (PRP). Since the 1970s, training at the university level became compulsory for elementary education teachers and later on also for the preschool teachers. Four-year (till 1973) and then five-year university studies, already existing Higher Schools of Pedagogy, and teacher training postgraduate studies for the alumni of Teachers Colleges and Teachers University Studies created a broad spectrum of various ways of obtaining qualifications at the postgraduate level in that profession. The model of teacher training reflected the organisational system of educational institutions of that time, and was closely related to the educational policies defined by the administration of the state. Because in that time the subject teaching model was a standard, including the first primary grades (it did not fully apply to special education), the teacher training was focused on the development of the candidate's skills in the scope of teaching the particular contents as defined in the current curriculum. In that way, they learnt an algorithm of introducing particular curriculum terms and concepts, strict lessons plan, the schedule for the contents to be taught. Training future preschool teachers, which at the beginning was mainly carried out at the post-secondary level, was slightly different. It focused on providing care and knowledge necessary to diagnose the child's level of development, as well as on preparation of children to school by employing various forms of educational games.

That model of early childhood education teacher training was still predominant in the 1990s in spite of the 7 Sept 1991 Act on the Education System that rejected many limitations stemming from the state's educational monopoly and was intended to depoliticise the school and change the way of teaching. Due to grassroots movements, many changes and innovations occurred in schools and many pedagogical novelties modelled on the trends that emerged in the West were introduced. The pressure to democratise the school's activities, to empower the pupils and foster their individualism has increased. The role of parents in shaping the course of education of their children was enhanced. Alternative, private, and social schools appeared. They offered different solutions for the organisation of the school life, what put even more pressure to change the methods of teaching in public schools. Many teachers felt the need to learn other ways of working with children. Teachers gained the additional knowledge and skills mainly in the

form of supplementary education, by taking postgraduate courses, and studies, financed sometimes by the educational administration. In the academic training of teachers, the changes were rather inconsiderable and could be seen in optional subjects or additional selectable modules.

In fact, the reform implemented in 1999, which introduced integrated education for grades 1-3, forced significant changes in the future teachers' university curricula. The modifications consisted in shifting the programmes towards a different model of learning contents, organisation, and a fundamental alteration of behaviour towards pupils and parents. Although it was criticised by many pedagogues as superficial and insufficiently prepared, the reform changed the thinking about early childhood education and brought it closer to the child's way of thinking. Few years later, it could be observed that after introduction of this new method of teaching young children the teachers changed the way they prepared to work. It is worthwhile to take a closer look and those changes and compare them with the employers, i.e. the school directors' expectations regarding the graduates of institutions training future teachers. These are the goals adopted for this study.

TRENDS OF CHANGES OCCURRING IN THE EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION TEACHER TRAINING SYSTEM

Right after the pro-freedom social changes in Poland in 1989, and the rejection of the ideological and orthodox educational doctrine one could observe many phenomena that were intrinsically linked to them.

The first one was the appearance of the movement for schools running their own, authorial educational programmes. Many in-service teachers-practitioners took part in it and they often got support from university lecturers. They were organising author-classes, establishing alternative schools, where they tried new ways of working with children, described the activities empowering the pupils, teachers, and parents. These changes were often introduced due to the requirements expressed by the parents. It was especially the case in the fee-based private schools. The groups started working together. The focus, very often, was put on attaining freer school and bringing new ways of working with the pupil into the academic training. Many studies related to these activities were published (Śliwerska, Śliwerski, 1996; Śliwerski, 1996; Moroz, 1995; Puślecki, 1996, 2002; Kujawiński, 1998; Klus-Stańska, 2003). Various practical solutions functioning in west-

ern pedagogy were disseminated, sometimes in a rather literary way (see Guz, 1994; Miksza, 1996; Śliwerski, 1998). Some experiments gave rise to concerns regarding their usefulness when applied in Poland (see Śliwerski, 2000, p. 115). In that time, the economic situation of the country was very difficult, what did not foster beneficial changes in school, but contributed rather to the fall of some social achievements of the previous period (e.g. the lack of medical or dental care in schools). Infrastructural deficiencies were felt, just like the shortage of educated teachers, or too many pupils in the class.

New trends were reflected in the discussions conducted by the pedagogical and academic communities. In spite of that, the changes of the curricula for future teachers were slow. They were mainly dependent on regulations imposed from above. The Ministry of Education formulated them in a rather vague way. They were of random nature and were often conditioned by the political situation; they rather copied old schemes than invoked new solutions (Lewowicki, 2000, p. 20).

In 1992, early childhood education teacher training was made available at the Master's level, just like it was the case for other education specialisations. One could study in stationary and extramural studies programmes provided by 12 universities and 10 higher schools of pedagogy. In that year, there were 119 324 students enrolled in the teacher training programmes. Their number increased by approximately 80% in 1990-1993 (MEN 1995, pp. 102, 178). The higher education system was not uniform and it changed constantly. Soon, higher schools of pedagogy began to transform into academies, and some of them were incorporated into the newly established universities. It greatly increased the number of places one could study in at the academic level (see Skrzetuska, 2016, p. 57). By 1994, in spite of the stakeholder groups' protests, post-secondary vocational schools for teachers were closed. It was argued that they did not provide full qualifications and the possibility to continue education (see Marek, 2015, p. 97). Since 1990, post-secondary teacher training colleges have been opening. Due to their cooperation with higher education institutions they gave the possibility to obtain a Bachelor's degree. They were directly related to municipalities and the Ministry of Education. They were supposed to be a response to a need for teachers in a particular region, and closely linked to the schools, where the internships took place.

In that time, there was a quite strong criticism of academic training as disconnected from the school practice, and limiting the availability of studying that caused the lack of qualified teaching staff. In the circumstance of baby boom, the response to that shortage was the expansion of public and private Teacher Training Colleges. First, foreign language teacher training colleges (FLTTC) were

being opened, and since 1991 – teacher training colleges (TTC) with various specialisations, including early childhood education, special education, or preschool education. By 1995 there were 16 Teacher Training Colleges (MEN 1995, p. 66). Their number peaked after the year 2000. In 2005/2006 academic year there were 64 public teaching colleges (FLTTC and TTC) and 41 private ones, and in 2006 there were 20 357 students enrolled (see Strzelecka-Ristow, 2016, p. 136). They performed their role to bring closer teacher training to the school practice and allowed to study in one's own place of residence. They were established in many small towns. However, they were the reason of some adverse phenomena, such as the employment of academic lecturers in many institutions. In result, the majority of them had to commute, and therefore the local academic community could not grow. The students had to repeat the last year of studies in order to obtain a Bachelor's degree. This is why, in spite of significant achievements of some of them, teacher training colleges were gradually closed (by 2015; see Strzelecka-Ristow, 2016, p. 141). Some of them were transformed into higher education institutions, some of them disappeared, and teacher training was moved entirely to higher education.

Since June 1997 State Higher Schools of Vocational Education have begun to be established. They were usually opened in small towns and were a significant culture-forming factor. Quite often they offered pedagogical education (Falkiewicz-Szult, 2016, p.91). Their aim was to give a Bachelor's level, more practical training, than the one provided at the universities. In many of them one could study preschool and early school education. In 2011/2012 academic year 18 institutions offered such training (see Marek, 2015, pp. 137-139). These colleges provided more pedagogical internships. They also acquired their own pedagogical staff, what have stabilised their functioning. Some of them opened studies at the Master's level, and many graduates continue their education at the Master's level at other universities.

Simultaneously, private higher education schools started to develop intensively. One could study "pedagogy" there in many various programmes, including preschool and early school education. The first private higher education institution was registered in August 1991 (MEN 1995, p. 208). They usually offered pedagogy studies at the Bachelor's level, sometimes a Master's degree, with a numerous additional specialisations. Many such institutions were established in small towns, and some of them had a nationwide structure with local branches (e.g., operating in six cities Janusz Korczak Pedagogical University in Warsaw established as Teachers College – Society of Popularisation of Culture and Sci-

ence in 1993 by the decision of the Ministry of Education). In the majority of private teacher colleges early school education was offered as a specialisation in the faculty of pedagogy (Weiner 2016, p. 75). However, not all of those private institutions sufficiently maintained the proper level of education to grant teacher certifications. There were pathological cases of not sufficient information about the provided qualifications. Many pedagogy students were misled and were not granted teacher certificate (or even the pedagogical one). These institutions had practically no candidate selection procedure and were very often perceived as ones that “sell” the diplomas without providing necessary competencies (Kwieciński 1999, pp. 16-17). They were a second or a third working place for many academic staff because the salaries of the latter increased slightly during the whole 1990s. It raised the teaching level but did not foster the development of the staff within the institution. Nowadays, many of them undergo a regress due to demography and new regulations that ban academic staff from working full time in several institutions. The largest number of students enrolled in private universities was in 2007/2008 academic year. According to the POLON system, there were 375 registered private higher education institutions in Poland in 2014. Some of them, however, did not recruit anymore.

The above brief review shows that after the social changes the early childhood education teacher training system has undergone significant modifications. Not all of them were advantageous. The instability of the system, a very diverse level of teaching in various institutions, and too small number of academic staff, who often had to commute, did not create conditions to increase the requirements and working out clear criteria defining fundamental competencies to be gained during the studies.

CHANGES IN THE EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION TEACHER TRAINING MODEL AFTER 1999

The 1999 reform changed the whole school structure. It introduced significant modifications in the teaching system and evaluation of children in the first stages of education. Integrated, holistic education was adopted as a basic teaching method for first years of primary education. Fundamental changes of the skills acquired by the teachers required a new model in teacher’s training. Until the reform, in grades one to three a subject-lesson system imposed by

the PRP was still the standard. It did not match the child's age and their way of perception and cognitive development. After the reform students started to be prepared for a different way of organising the teaching – to introduce activation methods, to increase the participation in the environment and learning the surrounding; the preparation for the diagnosis of the pupil's development was expanded (Bałachowicz, 2016, p. 36). The scope of the discussed issues concerning the developmental problems or cultural differences was broaden. At that time, the attention was also turned to the necessity of tighter coupling between early school education and preschool education. The previous demands of specialists to bring closer the methods of working with the child in those two periods had not been reflected by the teaching practice. It was forced only by the public discussion about the change of the traditional age of starting systematic education in Poland. A heated public debate concerning how schools and teacher should be prepared to work with small children lasted few years. It made the educational administration decision-makers aware of the fact that early childhood education teachers should acquire qualifications in both specialisations, i.e., preschool and early school education. Due to the 2012 Regulation of the Minister of Education the majority of universities joint together the two specialisations in 2012/2013 academic year. Hence, the scope of mandatory subjects in the curriculum has expanded, which, together with the division of higher education into two levels – Bachelor and Master degrees. It has brought about an excessive burden onto the student having now too many mandatory subjects, as well as it made impossible to extend optional subjects. It also made organising specialist pedagogical internships more difficult.

The changes stemming from the international treaties adopted by Poland had also an impact on the modification of the training model. The Bologna Credit Transfer and Accumulation System that increased the student mobility and two-stage studies – the Bachelor and Master degrees have started to disseminate at Polish universities since 1999. The Bologna Process presupposed the creation of European Higher Education Area (EHEA), which would allow the recognition of diplomas on the whole continent, so graduates could look for work across Europe with no limitations. After the access of Poland to the European Union in 2004 the student and university staff exchange programmes were established. Their aim was the experience transfer and coordination of the training systems, in result of which a model of the European teacher was supposed to be formed. Such a teacher should possess the necessary knowl-

edge but their training required leaving behind the normative model of the “instructional nature”. They were to gain competencies by autonomously shaping their own professional path on the basis of their own interests and capacities. Furthermore, they were supposed to be able to plan, make choices and take decisions, efficiently construct, organise, and manage the educational processes (see Kusiak, Zdybel, Bednarczuk, 2012, pp. 366-367). The more attention was paid to the communication competencies allowing the teacher to establish proper interactions with pupils and their parents. Next to the didactic competencies, the role of pedagogical, moral, and creativity competencies was emphasized (see Magda-Adamowicz, Żuchelkowska, 2016, pp. 39-40). Such conceived model of teacher training requires actions in result of which the student becomes a reflective intellectual; an assertive person, a good organiser and co-operator.

However, that expected ideal is rather difficult to achieve in the existing social reality. Badly paid teacher profession, especially in the earliest grades, limits the number of people, in particular the ambitious and talented ones, interested in the teacher training studies. The profession of preschool and early education teacher is very much dominated by women. Rarely men work in that role. If it happens, they usually undertake special tasks (physical culture or music teachers). Many people are employed for a fixed, short time defined by the contract. Kindergarten and school groups are too numerous, or there are too many children with special needs, and the school does not provide the sufficient support. Although the changes are taking place, they are introduced too slowly. In many schools one may observe the return to the old, heavily criticised ways of managing the group of children. Such a state of affairs does not motivate early childhood education teachers to introduce new solutions and searches for one’s own ways of dealing with pedagogical problems while working with children.

It does not either motivate students to undertake a in-depth studies in that specialisation. Many of them limit themselves to study it only until they get a Bachelor’s degree. Based on the 2014 survey carried out at the universities, it was observed that fewer and fewer students of this specialisation enrol for the Master programme. Among 19 universities that offered that specialisation at the faculty of pedagogy 17 gave the possibility to study it at the first and second level (in three institutions it was a field of study). In spite of the fact that it was quite popular at the first level – at 15 universities there were more than 100 students (with five, where the numbers were above 300 people), the number of students at the Master’s level was much smaller (in seven universities there were below

100 students, in nine – above 100 students, and just in one more than 300) (Skrzetuska, 2016, pp. 70-71).

All universities offered a joint programme of preschool and early school education. However, a large variation of the name of the specialisation or the field of studies was observed (pedagogy or education, then, primary, or early school, or preschool education, or simply early childhood education).

To sum up, one may claim that changes of the student training model have occurred mainly in the following areas:

- the change of the basic organisation of education method in grades 1-3: moving away from the training to strictly realise the programme that includes particular contents of the given subjects and adopting a scheme of organising the pupil's whole working day, in a frame of which children's competencies are developed adequately to their developmental level, what is much closer to the way they perceive the world and facilitates the individualisation of tasks,
- integral joining together the preschool and early school periods, using games and child activating forms as ways of teaching, also in the early school period,
- referring to the European tendencies in the education of small children, paying attention to their subjectivity and cultural diversity,
- paying more attention to communication and organisational competencies, and creative involvement of the early childhood education students

At the same time, there appeared some limitations stemming from a difficult social and economic situation:

- joining together preschool and early school education combined with frequent limitation of the education to the Bachelor's degree significantly decreases the possibility of a deepened study of the problems of the early childhood education by students; it makes the studies too superficial and random,
- negative selection of the candidates for studying that specialisation, choosing it by a weaker group of high school graduates, enrolment of almost all candidates, and uneven level of the offered classes do not favour high educational results,
- a small scope of active forms of carrying out didactic classes at universities, autonomous student projects, and optional courses foster the graduates' independence development and reflective approach in a very limited way,

- difficulties in organising internships stemming from the division into two higher education levels do not enable acquiring good practical competencies,
- the lack of stability in the educational system, various level of the universities that offer such studies, the non-uniformity of the nomenclature used to describe the acquired qualifications introduce serious confusion on the labour market in the area of the specialisation.

THE SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS FOR TEACHER TRAINING AND NEW CHALLENGES IN CHILDREN EDUCATION

The outlined current state of affairs is a basis for drawing main directions for the expected changes of the training model for early childhood education teachers:

1. Broadening the training scope beyond early school period requires a stronger relation of contents referring to the two educational periods, relying on a thorough description of child development during the two periods and a precise determination of consequences of the negligence for the future education of every child.
2. Broadening the teacher's knowledge with the issues related to the impact of the media environment and the children's constant contact with the media. Taking into account the child's media environment and adverse phenomena related to the unstoppable influx of media information, addiction to it, and the changes in personality development caused by different values of the incoming information must be a subject of students' discussions, who themselves are submerged in that environment and often cannot see the threats it poses.
3. In the early childhood teacher training multicultural education must be emphasized and the future teachers should be prepared to working with children and parents from the different cultural backgrounds, different state of health, and the diversity of the accepted behaviours. The recognition of people's different economic status and the society disintegrating migration movement is needed as well. The proper dealing with pupils from the excluded groups, not only as needing special help but requiring to undertake personalised actions reflecting the diversity of the class in

such a way that the actions fall under the rules accepted by every member of the community.

4. Moulding the sense of constant responsibility for motor development and ensuring physical activities in the natural environment on regular basis, as well as the ability to support the artistic talents and experiences.
5. Creating conditions for reflection and teacher candidates' own creativity. Enhancing the communication skills and the ability to create partnerships – the teacher has to be assertive but at the same time they have to cooperate with parents.
6. Setting oneself for broadening and deepening one's knowledge and skills, for life-long learning.

One should not expect the constantly happening changes of the social environment to slow down or stabilise in one direction. The multitude of incoming solutions, the flood of the existing conceptions and contradictory character of the endeavours of the daily school life require from future teachers to be open and well attuned to the current political and social situation, as well as to the specificity of their local environment. Confidence in the rightness of the taken decisions must stem from the commonly worked out, by concrete teacher communities, work rules, which have to fit into the expectations of the whole community related to the school. One should not limit themselves to coping the already existing solutions but ought to seek the ones most efficient for the actual situation. Strong personality structure of the teacher candidate is desirable. They should be aware of the values they believe in and have good orientation in diversity of opinions, and be able to make choices.

The expectation that a teacher, early childhood education specialist, will meet all those requirements and expectations is a certain ideal. Still, teacher training has to provide the possibility to gain working knowledge how to deal with various situations, provide many alternative solutions, and learning by the students the skill of making choices.

It is worthwhile to compare the formulated above postulates with theoretical attitudes and stemming from them teacher training models, but also with the reality of the current Polish school. Teaching future teachers is always stretched between the academic theory and the needs of school practice. Academic orientations of teacher training will be depicted below. They will be a context for the survey results regarding the employers' expectations that provide the real direction of vocational socialisation of young early childhood education teachers.

TRANSFORMATIONS OF TEACHER TRAINING CONCEPTIONS

In the current Polish pedagogical literature there is a large variety of approaches towards teacher training. As stated by Tadeusz Lewowicki, the following conceptions have a quite well established tradition that is manifested in the curricula and study programmes carried out by various types of higher education institutions preparing for the profession: the general-education, specialist, performance, personalist, progressive, and multilateral approaches (Lewowicki, 2012, pp. 12-13). According to the first one, the general-education conception, the goal is to equip the students with the possibly broadest general knowledge that is treated as the most fundamental factor for success in the profession. This conception is not currently promoted. The next one – the specialist approach is commonly taken into account in the practice of teacher training. It presupposes a thorough preparation of the teacher in a particular discipline or disciplines. Neglecting the pedagogical-psychological and methodological preparations are weaknesses of such training. In the performance conception, equally strongly emphasised in the teacher training institutions today, one strives to proficiently use particular techniques of pedagogical activities. Limiting teacher education to forming narrow methodical skills results in a technical treatment of the profession and the lack of a deepened reflection based on sound pedagogical and psychological knowledge. The next conception – the personalist one has also many proponents in the Polish educational system. It focuses on perfecting personal features of the candidates for teachers. The progressive conception Lewowicki mentions as a certain *novum* of last decades. It concentrates on preparing teachers to solve problems. However, in practice, there are no pure models of such understood teacher training. The last approach listed by Lewowicki, the multilateral one, takes into account strong elements of all previous conceptions and is a manifestation of looking for an ideal model for teacher training (Lewowicki 2012, p. 13).

Orientations in teacher education have their roots in main psychological doctrines. Henryka Kwiatkowska (2008, p. 47) points at behaviourism as the theoretical basis of the technological orientation in teacher training, humanistic psychology as a yardstick of the humanistic orientation, and cognitive psychology as the source of the functional orientation in training future teachers. Undervaluing theoretical education, not tackling axiological problems, one-sided instrumentalism and high controllability of the education process is a characteristic feature of the technological orientation in academic education of candidates for teach-

ers (Kwiatkowska, 2008, pp. 40-51). The humanistic model of teacher training is based on discovering and supporting students' – future teachers' individuality and their own uniqueness, offering them a thorough specialist and pedagogical-methodological knowledge. In that orientation a lot of attention is given to the student's practical activities, which are the condition for the discovery of the personal meaning of the theory (Kwiatkowska, 2008, pp. 54-55). Training aimed at activities and treating various forms of actions as a source of knowledge about reality is an index of the functional orientation. In this model future teachers' cognitive qualifications are significantly broadened and their pro-research attitude is developed. Characteristic for this model is stressing the significance of the teacher's knowledge about her- or him-self as the agent and strengthening the level of self-acceptance, as well as building their axiological awareness (Kwiatkowska, 2008, pp. 61-63).

Nowadays, in the Polish conceptions of teacher education one observes a clear shift away from behaviourism to the approach employing psychological constructivism (Dylak, 2000). In the very centre of the inspired by constructivism teaching process is the student who builds up their knowledge and their personal experiences. Hence, the social context of education is significant, just like the real needs of the student as future teacher (see Witkowska-Tomaszewska, 2016, p. 267). However, although in the Polish theory and practice of teacher training there is a strive for making the work of pedagogues more modern by turning the attention to integrating the theory with practice, to reflection, activation, independence, creativity, the effects of these actions are not satisfactory (Klus-Stańska, 2011a).

EXPECTATIONS OF THE CONTEMPORARY SCHOOL AS THE CONTEXT FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION TEACHER TRAINING – A REPORT FROM THE RESEARCH

As observed above, academic training of teachers should be closely connected with the school practice because it is always, at the end of the day, verified, modelled, stabilised, or modified by that practice. Preparing candidates for preschool and school teachers should meet the expectations of the educational job market. Employers more and more consciously pay attention to the candidates' competencies necessary for the proper functioning of their institutions and creating

competitive advantage over other kindergartens or schools. Hence, the confluence of the teaching model and the needs expressed by employers – headmasters is important due to the possibility of being employed by the graduates and their success at work. This confluence is also necessary for the transfer of new educational ideas, which source has always been higher education institutions. Diffusion of new trends to schools through students should revitalise educational processes, support their alterations and development. Modern training of students should translate into modernisation of work in lower-level schools, where they will be hired.

Expectations towards up-and-coming generation of early primary school education teachers were the subject of the research conducted by Beata Adrjan, Marzena Nowicka and Wiesław Szyszkowski (2016). Using the method of diagnostic survey, they got, via Email, fulfilled questionnaires from 317 headmasters from the Masovian, Podlaskie, Pomeranian, Warmian-Masurian, and West Pomeranian Voivodeships. There were many open questions, thus the carried-out analysis had no statistic dimension.

At the beginning the headmasters' opinions on positive factors influencing the teacher's career path were examined (Adrjan *et al.* 2016, pp. 202-204). The asked school directors expressed the conviction that the most important for being a good early school education teacher are broadly understood personal features (71.3% of responding headmasters), not the form of training, i.e. higher education, professional training courses, realising the career path, or years of experience. According to the principals, how the work is being performed mainly depends on what kind of human being is the teacher, how she or he react to the world, how they operate in it. The employers often identified teachers' personal traits with competencies and the examples they listed can be divided into three groups defined by the most invoked features:

- related to the work with pupils: *creativity – empathy – communicativeness*;
- related to non-didactic duties: *diligence – initiative – talent*;
- related to life experiences: *optimism – curiosity – passion*.

The directors attach the most importance to the features directly relevant to the work of the teacher with students, and apart from the ones mentioned above, i.e. *creativity, empathy, and communicativeness*, they named also: *patience, forbearance, justness, sensitivity, consequence, composure*. In the opinion of the headmasters, other specific features are required as well for working with young children. They are: adaptability to children, attentiveness, protectiveness, cordiality, internal warmth, love for children, treating the child as one's own. As shown

by the examples of the principals' claims, it is very important for them that the early school education teachers have additional predispositions facilitating the contact with young pupils.

In the second group of essential features streamlining teacher's functioning in school are qualities necessary for non-didactic work and related to his or her functioning in school as an educational establishment. The headmasters believe that for the quality of professional functioning it is devotion and sacrifice that count the most. Next to the typical features of a good employee, such as *engagement, scrupulousness, dependability, good team work skills*, the principals listed also *high-availability, loyalty, discipline*, but also *initiative, resourcefulness, ambition*. Thus, the school principals have rather contradictory expectations for young employees. On the one hand, they require subordination, but on the other, they want the teachers to be creative and independent. Apart from that, in the directors' opinion, essential features for the job are: *the will and need for development, openness for novelties, the will for further training, self-discipline, lack of resistance against changes, reflective approach to work*. Many principals' answers pointed to the so-called "teacher's vocation". The people working in that profession, the headmasters believe, should be capable of sacrifice and charismatic. In the third group of the attributes important for the quality of the teaching job there are personal features like *optimism, curiosity, and passion*. According to the principals, the teacher needs for their job also *a positive attitude toward life, sense of humour, and general cheerful disposition*. The *interest in the surrounding world* is important as well, but especially: *the wide range of interests, intelligence, and brightness*. The headmasters stressed also the role of *impeccable manners and pleasant appearance*.

To sum up, one may say that in the image of a good early school education teacher that emerges from the principals' statements the features and competencies that dominate are the ones related to carrying out the didactic process, but they should be strongly supported by a special kind of love for working with children. In school reality, a person who is cheerful, empathetic, of pleasant appearance functions well. It is also important that they are hardworking, capable of working well in a team environment, and at the same time, being able to subordinate to the director's authority.

When it comes to concrete expectations toward the graduates of the education faculties (Adrijan *et al.*, 2016, pp. 206-212), the principals believe that they should have Master's degree (84% of respondents), granted by a university (47%), earned at full-time, stationary, not extra-mural programmes (64%). In accordance with the described above vision of the ideal early school education teacher,

the headmasters expect the graduates to have similar skills that would be a guarantor of good and effective work. Among the qualities most often invoked by the principals there was *creativity*, followed by *commitment to work* and flexibility manifesting in *openness to new situations*. Also, communicativeness was mentioned as significant, and the ability to *establish contact with children* was directly linked with the ability to work with this age group. Expected by the headmaster's *empathy* was related to the quality as well. Some of them demanded more specific skills useful for teaching young children, like graduate's calligraphic ability, or their language proficiency.

In terms of the graduates' knowledge the principals focused mainly on child psychology. Nearly 40% of headmasters believe that good knowledge of psychological mechanisms of child development and functioning is necessary for teacher's work. Methodical knowledge was listed as the second important element (36%). The directors meant here a good knowledge of the curriculum and the methods and forms of working with children. From their reports, it is clear that there are shortcomings in the academic training when it comes to methodological education, especially in terms of modernisation of the educational process. In the headmasters' opinion, *handling of multimedia boards and the ability to create interactive lessons with the use of existing tools* should not be a problem for a person who is a graduate of a university teacher training programme. The methodological knowledge should be current, up-to-date, and in *accordance with the latest scientific developments, especially in neurobiology, emancipatory pedagogy, formative assessment, school as a learning institution*. The graduates should possess *the adequate level of knowledge about the new educational trends and the learning fostering processes*. Moreover, they should be acquainted with the provisions of the education law and the tendencies in educational reforms. As it was also mentioned by the principals, the methodology should not be limited only to teaching children but be also be about bringing them up: *there is a total lack of raising-related issues – forming the proper attitudes and fining moments to emphasise them during the class*.

The need for graduates' subject-matter knowledge was listed by the directors only at the third place (it was addressed by 23% of respondents). The headmasters demanded mainly sound basis of *Polish language and mathematics; the teacher, e.g. cannot not know parts of speech or basic mathematical operations*. They indicated also the need for graduate to possess the knowledge that conforms to the educational paths of the early school education: *Polish language, history, mathematics, natural sciences, physical culture, and a foreign language*. Although some

principals write a lot about the early school education teacher training graduates' subject-matter knowledge, a characteristic trait of all statements is the stress put on the knowledge defined by them as practical: *methodological-concrete! practical knowledge is more required – that is, how to implement what could have been theoretically learnt*. Directors as employers require from the graduates the experience of working with children, and although their methodological knowledge may be *theoretical, but* [it should be – author's note] *supported by a minimal experience gained during student internships*. The knowledge attained during studies *should be used in practice by the teachers*.

The principals expect from the graduates of higher education teacher training institutions a comprehensive preparedness. Teaching in the first years of primary school should be holistic, integral. Hence, not only the skills related to linguistic, mathematical, and natural science-social teaching and the basic substantive knowledge determining that process are needed to work in primary classes. Additionally, teachers should have specialist skills, above all the artistic ones: musical (97.5%), visual arts- (94%) and sport-related (81%). The headmasters point also out that necessary nowadays are pedagogical skills of working with children with special educational needs, like e.g. in pedagogical therapy (90%) and speech therapy, and even special education (71%). Close to one third of the respondents emphasises the necessity for early childhood education teachers to have other specialist skills, among which they list the already mentioned usage of ICT and speaking a foreign language.

Summarising the directors' statements regarding their expectations towards the graduates of the higher education institutions preparing for working with young children, one may say that these expectations are specifically directed. The headmasters do not expect from them to have deepened substantive competencies, but rather versatile skills and interests. So, as it seems, they believe that the teachers of the first three primary grades do not have to have a deepened knowledge, or maybe they do not count satisfying, at a high level, the child's cognitive needs as priority. Focusing on sound methodological preparedness for working with children they underline the necessity of creativity. The specificity of teacher training is based on forming dispositions such as empathy, kindness, and the ability to establish and maintain a good contact with children. The principals stress the necessity to possess educational/parenting competencies and being interested in children's special needs. The expectations are also aimed at instrumental training for carrying out organisational-reporting tasks. The headmasters expect passion, charisma, and engagement in every area of activity.

The principals were also asked to formulate an opinion concerning the educational offer for teachers at the universities and the quality of preparation for working in the profession (Adrjan *et al.*, 2016, pp. 212-223). At the first place (it was already flagged up in their expectations) there was a lack of experience in the teaching profession. The headmasters believe that the universities should place greater emphasis on practical preparation for working with children in the first classes of primary school. At the second place among the insufficiencies there was a weak preparation in the area of work organisation stemming from the lack of teaching experience and overcoming one's own limitations. The directors wrote here about insufficient *ability to deal with oneself, with stress, one's own motivation, self-assessment, independence*. In the principals' opinion, the students are lacking in self-esteem; they cannot act on their own, are poorly motivated and do not cope well with stressful situations. Therefore, the work on students' mental condition is, in the light of the directors' statements, neglected at the universities. Another shortfall generated by higher education institutions in teacher training is related to not sufficient specialist training: mathematical, musical, speaking a foreign language, IT-, sport-related, and working with children in these areas. The fifth place was occupied by weak preparedness in the area of purely educational skills.

The examined principals spoke also on the academic offer of early childhood education teacher training and postulated modifications of the curriculum, as well. Undoubtedly the strongest postulate was about introducing a more practical educational offer: 51% of respondents expressed the need for expanding the course on teaching methods for particular subjects and for increasing the number of internship hours (21% of votes). Attention was also drawn to the need of broadening artistic education (31% of votes) and the subjects supporting the diagnosis and therapy of pupils with special educational needs (19%). In regard to carrying out pedagogical internships in schools the headmasters recommended bigger requirements for students and bigger lecturers' control.

It is worthwhile to compare the described here vision of early school education teachers and the expectations towards them formulated by the employers with a general model of needs towards young teachers as identified by Dominika Walczak in her studies. The studies included i.a. establishing the opinion of not only primary school's principals, but also the ones who run middle and high schools. The ideal teacher, according to the respondents, would possess many features similar to the ones discussed above. In addition, he or she would be an expert in the subject they teach (Walczak, 2012, p. 30), and IT and linguistic (speaking a foreign language) competences and would not require perfecting

because young higher level education teachers already possess them at the satisfactory level (Walczak, 2012, p. 51). In this context, the model of the early education teacher seems rather infantile – in the light of the headmasters' statements, being well educated is not a requirement; they should rather have a multi-specialisation background, including foreign languages and new information technologies. However, quite similar were the reservations of the two groups of principals concerning the lack of the practical-didactic skills in regard to adequate usage of educational strategies, administrative-reporting skills related to keeping records of documents, and above all, the educational/parenting competencies related to solving the problems with pupils' behaviour (Walczak, 2012, p. 41).

EXPECTATIONS OF STUDENTS – FUTURE TEACHERS IN REGARD TO THE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS THEY STUDY IN

Interesting is comparing the employers' expectations with the ones of the students in regard to the offer put in by the institutions of higher education allowing to get qualifications enabling working with children in school. It turns out that they are very compatible in fundamental issues. Research done by Marzenna Magda-Adamowicz, Krystyna Żuchelkowska and Klaudia Żernik (2016) provide data on that. They carried out a diagnostic survey the Lower Silesian, Lubusz, and Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodeships in 2015. A total of 150 female students of the first and second level of studies of pedagogy with the preschool and early school education specialisation took part in the survey. As it turned out, a half of the examined students had chosen that specialisation because of their passion for working with children, and almost all of them (98%) are pleased with the fact that they study it. A very high percentage of students (90%) assess the participation in classes as useful. The students raise some reservations in regard to the quality of the educational offer. Although 28% of the believe that the realised subjects provide the needed theoretical background for working with children, almost the same number of them (26%) claims that some subjects are superfluous and will not be of use in their future career. It is worth mentioning that the students complain about poor methodological training offered by universities. Only 16% of them believe that the programme has prepared them properly when it comes to methodology, and 62% express the need to be provided with a sound training in that area. It is related to the postulate of increasing the number of methodi-

cal-practical classes (44% of student) and using more examples from school life during the lectures (28% request that). More than a half (64%) of the respondents stated that pedagogical internships give them the possibility to get to know their future profession, and according to 32% of them the internships should be longer (Magda-Adamowicz *et al.*, 2016, pp. 148-162).

Similar results were observed by Małgorzata Suświłło (2015), who using the questionnaire method collected and analysed opinions of 195 students of University of Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn studying full-time or part-time preschool and early school education. The respondents were asked whether the pedagogical studies had met their expectations – 54.4% replied in the affirmative. The students feel well and very well prepared to work as teachers (85.6%). Among various teaching forms at the university (lectures, seminars, internships, other) the students pointed at internships as the most useful in their professional training – 75.4%. Very interesting is the evaluation of particular subjects offered at the teaching specialisation. As the most useful for their future work as teachers the students listed: preschool and early school education (85% of indications), mathematics education (82%), Polish language education (nearly 75%), psychology (53%), and artistic subjects related to musical, visual arts, and technical education (45%). The presented distribution promotes special subjects directly linked with the educational practice and psychology (Suświłło, 2015, pp. 82-90).

Also other research, conducted by Elżbieta Marek (2015, p. 306) that dealt with students' opinions about their training for their future work as teachers unequivocally indicate that they demand domination of practical training during the studies. Future teachers are interested mainly in major subjects and direct extended practice of working with children.

ACADEMIC TRAINING AND EMPLOYERS' AND EDUCATION STUDENT'S EXPECTATIONS – WHAT ARE WE HEADING FOR?

The presented students' expectations regarding early childhood education teacher training demonstrate a tendency of instrumental treatment of the training process and the need for technologically understood directives for professional action. Increasing the number of hours both, subject teaching internships and the pedagogical internships is a sign of looking for a shortcut for attaining professional success. However, the postulate of more practice is directly connected with

the expectations formulated by principals – the potential employers. Referring to their experiences with young teachers, they formulated a need for employees, who are well prepared to carry out didactic-educational and administrative-reporting duties. Gaining these skills would guarantee, in their opinion, making the academic training more practical: the increase of the number of hours of pedagogical internship supported by the broadening of the offer of different methodologies.

Today, such a position is not an isolated one, and it does not refer merely to the academic teacher training but is a part of a general change of the role and tasks of higher education in the times of the domination of the free market economy principles. Revaluing of priorities manifests itself, above all, in resigning from forming creative intellectuals in favour of enforced by employers a pro-market orientation and specialist training (see Melosik, 2009; Czerepaniak-Walczak, 2013). Knowledge has become a product, and learning is an investment that should bring quick return. However, using the language of economy, one may say, that knowledge is characterised by a low return on investment in terms of revenues derived from heartless labour market calculations, and for both, the student and employer, only such investments are taken into account, which guarantee the shortest period of return, and hence, a possibly fast refund of the invested capital (Zakowicz, 2013, p. 136). The capital will be recovered when a teacher candidate quickly goes through the professional adaptation period and accordingly to the employers' expectations will be efficient in gaining measurable educational results. Therefore, in the light of the educational practice requirements, the universities should train narrowly specialised professionals equipped mainly with technological competencies – as formulated by Robert Kwaśnica – the normative, methodical, and realisation ones (2003, p. 301) because such a model of professional role is very common in Polish schools. That model, defined as a “adaptive technician”, is a part of instrumental rationality that manifests itself in manipulating and control of the community in accordance to the criterion of efficiency (Lewartowska-Zychowicz, 2009, p. 161). But the focus on measurable efficiency is directly linked with the education crisis, which various symptoms are the subject of constant diligent diagnoses (Kwieciński, 2013; Szymański, Walasek-Jarosz, Zbróg, 2016). Due to dynamic transformations of modernity the discrepancy between what is offered to children by Polish school and what is required and offered by out of school reality has become truly dramatic (Klus-Stańska, 2014). Early childhood education is only retouched with methodological novelties, while it is still deeply rooted in the shackles of tradition (Śliwerski, 2014). Bogusława D. Gołębiak and Beata Zamorska (2014, p. 47) claim that successive generations of teachers recon-

stitute the old frontal culture of education and only, if ever, enrich the content and training with elements of games coming from other discourses. In such a situation, training of people responsible for the development of the young generation cannot be limited to narrow instrumentalism because it leads directly to intellectual paralysis of the teachers (Klus-Stańska, 2006, p. 21). The domination of subject methodologies in teacher training brings forth the danger of superficiality and the lack of understanding of the processes taking place in school, as well as of focusing on seeking algorithms of actions reducing the educational process to the level of a technology of manufacturing a product with the use of defined and reliable techniques. While critically addressing such a way of teacher training Dorota Klus-Stańska observes that the need and the necessity of understanding the practice that is present in education institutions is too often neglected. Professional interpretation of circumstances occurring in kindergarten or school, recognition of their cultural senses and real effects become less and less important. What is exposed is only application of *something* into *some* practice (Klus-Stańska, 2011b, p. 27). The modernisation of early childhood education begins at the level of adult education – the students aspiring to be teachers. As emphasised by other researchers, effective introduction of real changes should begin with the modification of Polish teacher training. The truism that without good teachers there can be no good school and education seems to be still relevant in this context (Szymański, Walasek-Jarosz, Zbróg, 2016, pp. 15-16). In subject literature, the proposals regarding these issues are very complex (Bałachowicz, 2016; Drózka, 2012; Kwiatkowska, 2008; Muchacka, 2006; and others), and the above formulated postulates are also a part of the academic discussion on that topic. However, there is still an open question whether training pedagogues at the university level is able to meet the challenges and reconcile (modify?) the claims of the educational market with the obligation of training modern teachers that are dialoguing, reflective, transformative intellectuals (see Lewartowska-Zychowicz, 2009, pp. 162-171). Does the specificity of early childhood education teacher training that requires a high level of knowledge in particular disciplines (due to the fact that the teacher operates the basic knowledge during the class) call for limiting the studies to basic knowledge and staying at the level of the “predominant commonness”? (ibidem) It is difficult to agree with that vision, especially because only academic training of pedagogues (with different specialisations) allows to realise a broad range of pedagogical and psychological contents that are usually not mastered by subject teachers who worked on those in a limited scope and often treated it as peripheral to the “proper studies” of their chosen scientific discipline.

REFERENCES

- Adrian, B., Nowicka, M., Szyszkowski, W. (2016). Oczekiwania dyrektorów wobec absolwentów i uczelni kształcących nauczycieli edukacji wczesnoszkolnej. In M. Nowicka, E. Skrzetuska (eds.), *Problemy kształcenia nauczycieli wczesnej edukacji w uczelniach wyższych w Polsce* (pp. 198-225) Toruń: Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek.
- Bałachowicz, J. (2016). Paradoksy przemian współczesnej edukacji dziecka. In M.J. Szymański, B. Walasek-Jarosz, Z. Zbróg (eds.), *Zrozumieć szkołę. Kontekst zmiany* (pp. 36-57). Warszawa: Wydawnictwo APS.
- Bałachowicz, J. (2016), Idea zrównoważonego rozwoju w teorii pedagogicznej. In L. Tuszyńska (ed.), *Koncepcja zrównoważonego rozwoju w kształceniu nauczycieli klas początkowych* (pp. 11-43). Warszawa: Wydawnictwo APS.
- Czerepaniak-Walczak, M. (ed.) (2013). *Fabryki dyplomów czy universitas?* Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Dróżka, W. (2012). Dylematy jakości nauczyciela wobec zmienności kulturowo-społecznego kontekstu jego pracy. In B.D. Gołębiak, H. Kwiatkowska (eds.), *Nauczyciele: programowe (nie)przygotowanie* (pp. 43–55). Wrocław: Wydawnictwo Naukowe DSW.
- Dylak, S. (2000). Konstruktywizm jako obiecująca perspektywa w kształceniu nauczycieli. In H. Kwiatkowska, T. Lewowicki, S. Dylak (eds.), *Współczesność a kształcenie nauczycieli*. (pp. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo WSP ZNP.
- Edukacja w zmieniającym się społeczeństwie* (1995). Raport opracował zespół MEN pod kierunkiem I. Bialeckiego. Warszawa: Wyd. MEN.
- Falkiewicz-Szult, M. (2016). Wyższe szkoły zawodowe w Polsce. Stan aktualny i perspektywy rozwoju. In M. Nowicka, E Skrzetuska (eds.), *Problemy kształcenia nauczycieli wczesnej edukacji w uczelniach wyższych w Polsce* (pp. 90-113). Toruń: Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek.
- Gołębiak, B.D., Zamorska, B. (2014). *Nowy profesjonalizm nauczycieli. Podejścia-praktyka-przestrzeń rozwoju*. Wrocław: Wydawnictwo Naukowe DSW.
- Guz, S. (1994). *Metoda Marii Montessori. Historia i współczesność*. Lublin: Wydawnictwo UMCS .
- Klus-Stańska, D. (2003). *W nauczaniu początkowym inaczej: scenariusze lekcji*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Klus-Stańska, D. (2006). Behawiorystyczne źródła myślenia o nauczaniu, czyli siedem grzechów głównych wczesnej edukacji. In D. Klus-Stańska, E. Sza-

- tan, D. Bronk (eds.), *Wczesna edukacja między schematem a poszukiwaniem nowych ujęć teoretyczno-badawczych* (pp.15-28). Gdańsk: Wydawnictwo UG.
- Klus-Stańska, D. (ed.) (2014). *(Anty)edukacja wczesnoszkolna*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Klus-Stańska, D. (2010). Ciągłość i zmiana czy bierność i niekontrolowane odruchy – w którym kierunku zmierza szkoła? In J. Surzykiewicz, M. Kulesza (eds.), *Ciągłość i zmiana w edukacji szkolnej – społeczne i wychowawcze obszary napięć* (pp. 35-49). Łódź: Wydawnictwo Naukowe UŁ.
- Klus-Stańska, D. (2011a). Dlaczego szkolna kultura dydaktyczna się nie zmienia. *Studia Pedagogiczne, LXIV*, 43-50.
- Klus-Stańska, D. (2011b). (Anty)rozwojowa tożsamość pedagogiki wczesnej edukacji i poszukiwanie perspektyw jej rekonstrukcji. In D. Klus-Stańska, D. Bronk, A. Malenda (eds.), *Pedagogika wczesnej edukacji* (pp. 17-36). Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Akademickie „Żak”.
- Kujawiński, J. (1998). *Metody edukacyjne nauczania i wspierania w klasach początkowych: edukacja wczesnoszkolna sprzyjająca doświadczeniu podmiotowości i współpodmiotowości uczniów i nauczycieli*. Poznań: Wydawnictwo Naukowe UAM.
- Kusiak, K., Zdybel, D., Bednarczyk, B. (2012). Nauczyciel europejski, czyli jaki? Wymiary rozwoju profesjonalnego współczesnych nauczycieli. In *Szkoła w integralnym rozwoju ucznia i nauczyciela, stan faktyczny i postulowany*. Lublin: Wydawnictwo TN KUL.
- Kwaśnica, R. (2003). Wprowadzenie do myślenia o nauczycielu. In Z. Kwieciński, B. Śliwerski (red.), *Pedagogika* (pp. 291-319). T. II. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Kwiatkowska, H. (2008). *Pedeutologia*. Warszawa: WAIp.
- Kwieciński, Z. (1999). Grzechów głównych trzydzieści w kształceniu nauczycieli. In M. Ochmański (ed.), *Możliwości i bariery reform edukacyjnych na poziomie wyższym*. Lublin: Wydawnictwo UMCS.
- Kwieciński, Z. (2013). Edukacja – do naprawy. *Akademia, 1(33)*, 7–18.
- Lewartowska-Zychowicz, M. (2009). Nauczyciel (wczesnej edukacji) w relacjach wolności i przymusu. In D. Klus-Stańska, M. Szczepska-Pustkowska (eds.), *Pedagogika wczesnoszkolna – dyskursy, problemy, rozwiązania* (pp. 158-184). Warszawa: WAIp.
- Lewowicki, T. (2000). Światowe tendencje a stan i perspektywy edukacji wczesnoszkolnej w Polsce. In W. Puślecki (red.), *Kształcenie wczesnoszkolne na przełomie tysiącleci* (pp. 13-24). Warszawa: PAN KNP.

- Lewowicki, T. (2007). *Problemy kształcenia i pracy nauczycieli*. Warszawa-Radom: ITE.
- Magda-Adamowicz, M., Żernik, K., Żuchelkowska, K. (2016). Oczekiwania studentów wobec uczelni kształcących nauczycieli przedszkoli i klas I-III szkoły podstawowej. Rekonesans z badań. In M. Nowicka, E. Skrzetuska (eds.), *Problemy kształcenia nauczycieli wczesnej edukacji w uczelniach wyższych w Polsce* (pp. 145-167). Toruń: Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek.
- Marek, E. (2015). *Przygotowanie do zawodu nauczyciela edukacji wczesnoszkolnej w Polsce*. Piotrków Trybunalski: Wydawnictwo Naukowe UJK.
- Melosik, Z. (2009). *Uniwersytet i społeczeństwo. Dyskurs wolności, wiedzy i władzy*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Miksza, M. (1996). *Zrozumieć Montessori, czyli Maria Montessori o wychowaniu dziecka*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Moroz, H. (ed.) (1995). *Podmiotowość ucznia w edukacji wczesnoszkolnej*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo UŚ.
- Muchacka, B. (2006). *Kształcenie nauczycieli przyszłej szkoły*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Puślecki, W. (1996). *Kształcenie wyzwajające w edukacji wczesnoszkolnej*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Puślecki, W. (2002). *Pełnomocność ucznia*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Skrzetuska, E. (2016). Stan kształcenia w zakresie pedagogiki wczesnoszkolnej w ośrodkach akademickich w Polsce. In M. Nowicka, E. Skrzetuska (eds.), *Problemy kształcenia nauczycieli wczesnej edukacji w uczelniach wyższych w Polsce* (pp. 49-72). Toruń: Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek.
- Strzelecka-Ristow, A. (2016). Kształcenie nauczycieli wczesnej edukacji w kolegiach nauczycielskich (1991–2015), stan prawny – rozwój – trudności. In M. Nowicka, E. Skrzetuska (eds.), *Problemy kształcenia nauczycieli wczesnej edukacji w uczelniach wyższych w Polsce* (pp. 114-141). Toruń: Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek.
- Suświłło, M. (2015). Przygotowanie do zawodu nauczyciela wczesnej edukacji w percepcji studentów Uniwersytetu Warmińsko-Mazurskiego w Olsztynie. *Forum Oświatowe*, 27(2), 75–94.
- Suświłło, M. (ed.) (2012). *Nauczyciel wczesnej edukacji: konteksty i wyzwania*. Olsztyn: Wydawnictwo UWM.
- Szymański, M.J., Walasek-Jarosz, B., Zbróg, Z. (2016). Zrozumieć szkołę dla (jej) zmiany. In M.J. Szymański, B. Walasek-Jarosz, Z. Zbróg (eds.), *Zrozumieć szkołę. Kontekst zmiany* (pp. 7-21). Warszawa: Wydawnictwo APS.

- Śliwerska, W., Śliwerski, B. (1996). *Edukacja w wolności*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Śliwerski, B. (1996). *Edukacja autorska*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Śliwerski, B. (1998). *Współczesne teorie i nurty wychowania*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Śliwerski, B. (2000). Współczesne zagrożenia dla edukacji alternatywnej w Polsce. In W. Puślecki (ed.), *Kształcenie wczesnoszkolne na przełomie tysiącleci* (pp. 113-138) Warszawa: KNP PAN .
- Walczak, D. (2012). *Początkujący nauczyciele. Raport z badania jakościowego*. Warszawa: IBE.
- Weiner, A. (2016). Kształcenie na specjalności pedagogika wczesnoszkolna w uczelniach niepublicznych. In M. Nowicka, E. Skrzetuska (eds.), *Problemy kształcenia nauczycieli wczesnej edukacji w uczelniach wyższych w Polsce* (pp. 73-89). Toruń: Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek.
- Witkowska-Tomaszewska, A. (2016). Planowanie procesu kształcenia oraz zarządzania studiami na specjalnościach nauczycielskich – propozycja zmian. In M. Nowicka, E. Skrzetuska (eds.), *Problemy kształcenia nauczycieli wczesnej edukacji w uczelniach wyższych w Polsce* (pp. 263-279). Toruń: Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek.
- Zakowicz, I. (2013). Uniwersytet – przedsiębiorstwo produkcyjno-usługowe, student-klient supermarketu? Czyli szkolnictwo wyższe w procesie zmian. In M. Czerepaniak-Walczak (ed.), *Fabryki dyplomów czy universitas?* (pp. 131-149). Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.

5 Primary and Pre-Primary Teacher Education in Bulgaria

Abstract

The present chapter analyses the primary and pre-primary education in Bulgaria, the preparation of the future primary and pre-primary teachers at Dobrich College, Shumen University, the challenges that the future teachers must confront and some of the needs of the student teachers' education. Attention is paid to their preparation for teachers of English as a foreign language: the special subjects that ensure their methodological preparation (methodology: the most suitable methods for teaching languages to young and very young learners, children's literature in a foreign language, current topics in teaching foreign languages to young learners). Applying the integrative approach is accentuated both in the education of children and in the education of the future teachers.

Key words: primary and pre-primary teacher education, EFL, young learners.

INTRODUCTION

Primary and pre-primary teachers teach all the subjects in the curriculum. English language enters primary school and kindergarten earlier and earlier each school year (in Bulgaria it started at primary school, then it entered the last pre-school year, now more and more children at 2nd group (4 year olds) and some very young (1st group, or 3 year olds) start visiting the EFL classes). In Bulgaria foreign languages are officially introduced in the curriculum at 2nd grade at school (see Dombeva, 2007). At first grade foreign languages are an optional subject. Some of the factors determining the study of a foreign language are the parents' interest fostered by the dynamic world we live in, their wish to provide the best possible education for their children and to ensure good opportunities for career development. The children are usually motivated by the interest fostered by the new technologies they use, by the cartoons they watch, by their positive experience in the foreign language classroom. The pedagogical specializations at Dobrich College, Shumen University are determined by the fast development and the interest in the new ICT (information and communication technologies) and by the interest in early foreign language education. There are three specializations in the college that reflect these two modern trends in the primary and pre-primary education: Primary School Pedagogy and Information Technologies, Primary School Pedagogy and Foreign Language and Pre-Primary School Pedagogy and Foreign Language.

The work views mainly the two courses connected to foreign language teaching accentuating the need for integrating the disciplines in the curriculum both of the student teachers and of the young learners.

PRIMARY AND PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION IN BULGARIA

In Bulgaria kindergarten, or pre-school, is from 3 to 6-7 years of age. The primary school starts at 6 or 7 and lasts 4 years (1st-4th grade). Primary and pre-primary teachers teach all the subjects in the curriculum. This includes Bulgarian language and literature, mathematics, man and nature, man and society, foreign language (usually English), arts, crafts, music, physical education, the class lesson (there the students study traffic regulations, how to behave during disasters like fire, earth-

quake, etc.), optional subjects. The optional subjects are negotiated according to the parents' interest and the availability of the corresponding teacher, they can be mathematics, Bulgarian language, foreign language, physical education. In the syllabus of each of the subjects there is a special accent on cross-curricular links (Syllabi, Regulation N 5). At this age we work towards the holistic development of the child. Therefore it is important the subjects to be taught in integration.

At the kindergarten usually the new material is introduced during the morning sessions and is reinforced in the afternoon in integration with other subjects. For example in the morning children receive information about shapes (mathematics) and in the afternoon they reinforce the material drawing or making applications and collages of various objects: jewellery, animals, flowers, using the shapes they have studied. This is the time when English as a foreign language (EFL) can be included. Thus integration across the curriculum is still stronger: mathematics, arts or crafts, nature or environment if animals and flowers are used and last but not least: English. Music with a suitable thematic song and physical education (dancing or mime while singing) can be added. As Reilly (2000, p. 4) stresses at this age teachers are educators (not simply teachers) therefore they have to know

- “how young children develop socially, emotionally, physically, intellectually and the role that language acquisition plays in this development
- how children learn and how the learning situations assist the language acquisition process.”

This knowledge is gained through the whole curriculum of our pedagogical specialities.

In the context of the holistic development of the child we can quote Georgieva's (2003, p. 32) opinion that “Whole Language Learning (WLL) is a philosophy which stresses that children can learn a language more proficiently if they learn it not through carefully selected and neatly ordered sequences of structures but through whole learning experiences relevant to children's own lives, that will enable them to take advantage of their congenital ability to understand situations more quickly than they understand language.” So although English is not a compulsory subject in the pre-primary curriculum, it can be introduced during the free time activities or during the other situations contributing to the holistic development of the child and to the acquisition of a new language.

PRIMARY AND PRE-PRIMARY TEACHER EDUCATION AT DOBRICH COLLEGE, SHUMEN UNIVERSITY

The students in the above mentioned specialities study theory of education, Bulgarian history, Bulgarian language (linguistics), general and developmental psychology, hygiene and healthcare, pedagogical psychology, solphegio, musical instrument, children's literature, oral and written communication. Some of the optional subjects are: basics of theatrical culture, audiovisual and information technologies in education, homeland science, ecology and environmental protection, sports 1 and 2, civil defence or traffic safety. All they have observation classes and two types of teaching practice at primary school or kindergarten, they graduate with a written state exam and a practical-applicable state exam.

The future primary school teachers have the following subjects: mathematics, didactics, natural science, methodology of teaching Bulgarian language and literature, methodology of teaching arts, methodology of teaching crafts, methodology of teaching mathematics, methodology of teaching natural and homeland science, methodology of musical education, methodology of physical education, methodology of teaching information technology (IT) or methodology of teaching foreign languages (depending on whether they are supposed to teach IT or foreign language). The future pre-primary teachers have funny mathematics, pre-school pedagogy, basics of natural science, methodology of forming basic technological culture in the kindergarten, methodology of teaching Bulgarian language in the kindergarten, methodology of forming basic mathematical ideas and notions, methodology of arts activities in the kindergarten, methodology of the interaction child-environment, methodology of musical education in the kindergarten, methodology of foreign language teaching in the kindergarten, methodology of physical activity in the kindergarten, instead.

The future IT primary school teachers study basics of informatics, computer architectures, word processing and spreadsheets and English language part 1 and 2 as an optional subject, where part 2 is usually ESP. The future FL teachers in primary school or kindergarten study foreign language (English), children's literature in foreign language, current topics in teaching foreign languages to young learners and the optional subjects Internet technologies, word processing and spreadsheets.

Thus students receive knowledge in primary or pre-primary pedagogy, didactics, psychology, skills and knowledge in the methodology of each subject

they are going to teach and preparation to implement the new technologies in their future work (to make presentations, to make e-journals and keep data).

The article pays special attention to the preparation of the students of Primary School Pedagogy and Foreign Language and Pre-Primary School Pedagogy and Foreign Language for EFL teachers.

EFL TEACHING FOR THE FUTURE PRIMARY AND PRE-PRIMARY TEACHERS AT DOBRICH COLLEGE, SHUMEN UNIVERSITY

As mentioned above the subjects that prepare future teachers for TEFL (teaching English as a foreign language) are: methodology of foreign language teaching, children's literature in foreign language, current topics in teaching foreign languages to young learners.

Methodology of foreign language teaching

Brewster *et al.* (2002) accentuate the following approaches to TEFL as applicable with young learners and thus suitable for the preparation of primary school teachers: audiolingual, total physical response, the communicative approach, task-based learning, story-based methodology, cross-curricular approach. Ilieva (2015b, 2014) points lexical approach as suitable for young and very young learners. In this sense wider knowledge in applied linguistics and in using corpora for the purposes of teaching young learners (e.g. in choosing and adapting texts) is extremely useful. This is supported by Sealey's (2011, p. 94) opinion that "teachers of foreign and additional languages benefit from a wide range of materials that are corpus based, and language learners around the world can familiarize themselves with the target variety by exploring corpus evidence." According to Vance (2011, p. 63) "knowledge of linguistics will allow teachers to modify the language of the classroom and to adapt the curriculum for children...". Wyse (2011, p. 29) also supports the use of texts for language improvement and development "addition of new words as revealed in texts is a key part of language change." Work with texts and corpora is practised during the other two subjects (children's literature in foreign language, current topics in teaching foreign languages to young learners) realizing cross-curricular links and making the disciplines integral parts of the whole TEFL preparation.

Tulegenova (2016) describes a visualisation method in teaching language skills. In her opinion (Tulegenova, 2016, pp. 56-57) it is a creative process, that links “experience and imagination within all forms of communication: reading, speaking, listening and writing”, it is also “a strategy and a skill which can enhance reasoning and thinking”.

Birova (2013), views the game as a main learning strategy in language education and as an integral method in language teaching (Birova, 2016). This is especially important for primary and pre-primary teachers in order to graduate with a rich set of games they can adapt in their own teaching process. There are special books for teachers that offer games (Corbett & Strong, 2014; Rinvulcri, 2008; Zaorob & Chin, 2001; Lewis & Bedson, 1999; Paul, 1997) and others designed especially for teaching young learners including examples of suitable games (Reilly & Ward, 1997; Vale & Feuntein, 1995; Phillips, 1993). Birova (2016, pp. 2-3) claims that games “support students’ interest and motivation and transform the educational process into a real intellectual challenge and a positive emotional experience.” Positive attitude to the discipline and pleasure experienced during the lessons are the key to children’s motivation.

The materials used with young learners have to be chosen in relation to their topic (the potential for cross-curricular links), on the basis of the linguistic phenomena they contain and on the basis of the activities they can provoke. As Clegg (1999, p. 7) claims, there should be balance between “... lessons in which learners need to use language for communicative and learning purposes, e.g. play a game, tell a story, make a puppet etc. ... and analytical lessons, where language is overt and the teacher explicitly draws attention to it.” In Mukherjee’s (2015, p. 234) opinion “project work helps in teaching language, content and skills in an integrated manner” these activities aid the learners “see English as an integral part of their primary learning experience, not as something tagged on and taught by someone with weird and wonderful skills” (Alvares *et al.*, p. 261).

In methodology the student teachers are taught how to develop the language skills; how to teach grammar, vocabulary or both in combination, literacy development; how to prepare lesson plans, how to work with interactive whiteboard. Special attention in teaching EFL methodology is paid to classroom management, to use of games, songs, rhymes, stories and children’s books in teaching English to children. Accent is laid upon realizing integrative or cross-curricular links between the subjects in the curriculum.

The main points in the student teachers’ preparation in our college coincide with the core components of Ellis & Read (2015, p. 123):

- “using rhymes, chants and songs
- using children’s literature/storytelling technique
- the role of games
- how children learn
- teaching very young children (3-6 years)
- classroom management
- lesson planning
- topic and content-based learning
- learning to learn
- teaching vocabulary and grammar
- teaching pronunciation
- assessment of learning
- teaching culture”.

The lesson planning process during the methodology of foreign language seminars passes the following stages:

- 1) The group together with the teacher make a lesson plan on a lesson/topic chosen by the students. Everybody gives ideas, sometimes we come out with a couple of alternatives for each activity.
- 2) The students work in groups of 3-4 and make together a lesson plan. They have to be creative in order to make activities that are funny for the children and realize cross-curricular links. Then the lesson plans are discussed with the whole group everybody giving ideas and discussing the activities and the coherence of the lesson.
- 3) The students work in pairs and then the whole group discusses the lesson, the materials and activities suggested.
- 4) The students work individually and discuss the lesson plan with the whole group.
- 5) Finally everybody presents a lesson, the group playing the role of the learners. Everybody fills in an evaluation form with certain criteria connected to the lesson plan, the skills of the teacher to present, to communicate with the group, his/her preparation (materials).

This process continues during the teaching practice (TP):

- 6) TP 1: After the students receive the topic and materials from their mentors, they make a rough plan of the lesson together with the mentor. Then they consult their methodology teacher and when ready with the plan and the whole preparation, they consult the mentor again. The whole group

observes the lesson. After the lesson is over, there is a discussion with the mentor, the methodology teacher and the whole group.

- 7) TP 2 The students teach all the lessons for 4 weeks. The mentor is always in the classroom and both the mentor and the methodology teachers are available for consultations.

Children's literature in foreign language

Part of the authors mentioned in Children's literature in foreign language are first taught in Bulgarian during Children's literature classes taught in Bulgarian. This way the students have read some of the books in Bulgarian first, e.g. *Winnie the Pooh* by Alan Alexander Milne. Other titles included are Beatrix Potter's stories, *The Story of Doctor Dolittle* by Hugh John Lofting, *The Wind in the Willows* by Kenneth Grahame, *The Jungle Books* by Rudyard Kipling. When teaching the last two we also use clips with some of the animation series from youtube. Other authors included in the programme are: Alison Uttley (*Little Grey Rabbit*), Margaret Wise Brown (*Good Night Moon*), Wilbert Audry (*Thomas the Tank Engine*), Charles Roger Hargreaves (*Little Miss and Mr Men* series). Two lessons are dedicated to traditional stories and stories by Joseph Jacobs (e.g. *Lazy Jac*, *The Cat and the Mouse*). During the seminars the students practise adapting stories using free on-line tools, consulting the readability indices (Ilieva, 2015a). Very suitable for this activity is the story *The Cat and the Mouse*. Some of the authors are developed only with the future primary school teachers: Frances Burnett (*The Secret Garden*, *Little Lord Fauntleroy*, *Little Princess*), James Matthew Barrie (*Peter Pan*), Clive Staples Lewis (*The Chronicles of Narnia*), Pamela L. Travers (*Mary Poppins*), Dorothy Edwards (*My Naughty Little Sister*), Roald Dahl (*Matilda*, *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory*).

Special attention is paid upon modern popular authors and books for children: Paulette Bourgeois (*Franklin*), Margret Rey (*Curious George*), Kevin Henkes (*Owen*), Eric Carle (*Brown Bear*, *The Very Hungry Caterpillar*), Nicola Baxter (*Mine, We Love Animals on the Farm*), Jonathan Litton and Liza Miller (*The Best Bed*), Erin Ranson (*Millie the Millipede*), Lee Robinson (*There's a Monster Under my Bed*), Beth Shoshan (*Mess Monsters*), to stories from sites like storynory.com or learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org. We consider important to teach student teachers read authentic books for children and use them in their work with children.

During the seminars the students practise adapting texts for children, role-play and drama activities based on stories (thus realizing cross-curricular links

to literature, to the other methodologies and to basics of theatrical culture), planning lessons based on a story or a picture book. The future teachers have to plan attractive activities that are based on the text and develop certain linguistic phenomena (present simple or present progressive tense, singular and plural of the noun, the forms of the irregular verbs).

Current topics in teaching foreign languages to young learners

The subject, Current topics in teaching foreign languages to young learners, further develops the knowledge and skills gained during methodology of foreign language teaching. The topics cover language acquisition, whole language learning, digital storytelling, extensive reading, contextualizing foreign language teaching (FLT), evaluation and assessment, teaching culture. The first two topics realize cross-curricular links to psychology, didactics and the other methodologies. The next two realize integrative links to literature and children's literature in foreign language and to audiovisual and information technologies in education, to all subjects in the curriculum through the topics the books and stories provide. Contextualizing and evaluation and assessment are based on the psychological peculiarities of the children at the corresponding age (kindergarten or primary school) and also to the material studied by the children during the other subjects in the curriculum (i.e. with the other methodologies in the student teachers' curriculum). Teaching culture also relies on integrative links to almost all the subjects in the curriculum.

The students are expected to submit a digital story, either their own story or one of the books/stories they have read as their extensive reading tasks suitable for teaching young or very young learners and a lesson plan for using it in the FL classroom. The visuals used in the digital story have to be their own pictures and drawings or pictures available on-line with copyright permission (e.g. under creative commons). This is a way to practise contextualizing the material.

Integrating all the subjects in the curriculum

In order to be able to teach the subjects in integration the student teachers need appropriate preparation. When writing their lesson plans a special accent is laid upon the integrative activities. Wright (2006, p. 18) stresses that "we learn and

use our mother tongue in conjunction with so many other media” and in order to create a suitable atmosphere for successful learning we have to “use all the arts” in the foreign language classroom: vocal arts, musical arts, visual arts, dramatic arts, body arts, poetic arts.

According to Hammond (2011, p. 42) what primary teachers need is:

- “theories of language and literacy, including knowledge of the nature of language, extensive knowledge of language systems at the levels of text, paragraph, grammar, vocabulary, spelling and pronunciation; and an understanding of first and second language development” in our case they are acquired during the foreign language and the Bulgarian language classes.
- “theories of learning, and an understanding of implications for planning, designing and implementing programmes designed to address specific needs of children in relation to demands of curriculum” these are acquired during the methodology and current topics in teaching foreign languages to young learners classes.
- “in-depth knowledge of relevant curriculum content” acquired during all their methodology classes and during current topics in teaching foreign languages to young learners classes and during their teaching practice at primary school or kindergarten.
- “knowledge about children as individuals and as learners: knowledge of the significance of affect in constructing supportive learning environments and knowledge of the impact of expectations on children’s educational achievement; knowledge of intercultural understandings” acquired through pedagogy, didactics and psychology classes as well as during the methodology and current topics in teaching foreign languages to young learners classes and during the students’ teaching practice.

At the end of their education student teachers have gained skills and knowledge in psychology, pedagogy, the methodology of all the subjects they are supposed to teach as well as 4 week’s experience of teaching at school or kindergarten supervised and aided by the class (or group) teacher and supported by the methodology teachers at the college where they can practise and test and experiment the variety of methods, approaches, strategies, techniques and technologies of teaching.

THE CHALLENGES IN FRONT OF THE PRIMARY AND PRE-PRIMARY TEACHERS IN BULGARIA AND THE NEEDS OF THE MODERN TEACHER EDUCATION

Young teachers entering school or kindergarten are usually overloaded in their first year of teaching – preparing for all the classes on the next day (they have worked upon this aspect of the teaching profession during their teaching practice), work with the parents which has been a shared responsibility during their teaching practice, all the administrative work they have been introduced to during their practice. And yet if they want to keep informed they have to find time to follow the new trends in their profession, to read authentic books for children and watch appropriate films that can enrich the process of teaching.

In my opinion a special accent in the future teachers' preparation should be placed on the integrative approach and holistic education, especially whole language learning; on the teacher's creativity and sharing the results of it with the teachers from the team and all over the world through active use of the social media towards their lifelong professional development. With appropriate preparation student teachers become creative and enthusiastic professionals, following the new trends in the field. What needs more work is their openness to follow not only local specialized journals and magazines but the blogs of teachers all over the world. Our aim is to help them see the social networks not only as a way of communication but as a way of professional development as well. With gaining experience as teachers once they have the habit to and interest in following their colleagues work and innovative ideas, they will start sharing their ideas when they feel confident enough, once they feel they have something to show. One of the ways we work towards the solution of this issue is encouraging the students to write an article on a methodological topic with the active help of the methodology teacher and try to publish it. Publishing their ideas first in local newsletters or proceedings is the first step to sharing ideas.

CONCLUSIONS

Nowadays, it is very important to speak foreign languages and to use the modern media, especially when working with young and very young learners who are digital natives, some of them start speaking English thanks to the experience in

the computer games still at the kindergarten. In order to attract and keep their attention the educational process has to be well contextualized and to underline the integrative links between the subjects in the curriculum and their importance in real life (ecological problems, healthy lifestyle, etc.). Future teachers have to be creative and willing to share their experience with colleagues and to learn from the multiple sources of information (seminars and webinars, on-line conferences and courses).

REFERENCES

- Alvares, L.C., Arnold, W., Bradshaw, C. & Gregson, M. (2015). Capacity building and empowerment: A primary teacher-training project in Venezuela. In C.N. Giannikas, L. McLaughlin, G. Fanning & N.D. Muller (eds.), *Children Learning English: From Research to Practice* (pp. 247-263). Reading: Garnet Education.
- Birova, I.L. (2016). Game as a Method in Language Teaching: Findings of a Teacher Survey. *British Journal of Education, Society & Behavioural Science*, 16(4), 1-9.
- Birova, I.L. (2013). Game as a Main Strategy in Language Education. *American Journal of Educational Research*, 1(1), 7-11.
- Brewster, J., Ellis, G. & Girard, D. (2002). *The Primary English Teacher's Guide*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Clegg, J. (1999). Balancing Language with Topic and Task in the Teaching of Young Learners. *CATS*, 1, 3-8.
- Corbett, P. & Strong, J. (2014). JUMPSTART! Grammar games and activities for ages 6-14. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Dombeva, L. (2007). Studying English the Bulgarian way. *CATS*, 2, 6-8.
- Ellis, G. & Read, C. (2015). Course design and evaluation in primary teacher education. In C.N. Giannikas, L. McLaughlin, G. Fanning & N.D. Muller (eds.), *Children Learning English: From Research to Practice* (pp. 115-135). Reading: Garnet Education.
- Georgieva, M. (2003). Whole language learning and primary English course-books. *CATS*, 2, 32-35.
- Hammond, J. (2011). Working with children who speak English as an additional language: an Australian perspective on what primary teachers need to know.

- In S. Ellis & E. McCartney (eds.), *Applied Linguistics and Primary School Teaching* (pp. 32-43). Cambridge: CUP.
- Ilieva, Zh. (2015a). *Lexical approach in teaching foreign languages to young learners*. Shumen: Konstatntin Preslavsky University Publishing House (in Bulgarian).
- Ilieva, Zh. (2015b). Acquiring Expressions through Texts for Children: Lexical Approach with Young and Very Young Learners. *Humanizing Language Teaching*, 17(6), Dec 2015, Available at: <http://www.hltmag.co.uk/dec15/index.htm>, <http://www.hltmag.co.uk/dec15/idea.htm>.
- Ilieva, Zh. (2014). Lexical approach with young learners. In T. Pattison (ed.), *IATEFL 2014 Harrogate Conference Selections. 48th International Conference, Harrogate, 2-5 April 2014* (pp. 86-87). IATEFL: Faversham.
- Lewis, G., Bedson, G. (1999). *Games for children*. Oxford: OUP.
- Mukherjee, K. (2015). Investigating impact of project-based learning in an Indian ESL classroom. In C.N. Giannikas, L. McLaughlin, G. Fanning & N.D. Muller (eds.), *Children Learning English: From Research to Practice* (pp. 231-245). Reading: Garnet Education.
- Paul, D. (1997). *Songs & Games for Children*. Oxford: Heinemann.
- Phillips, S. (1993). *Young Learners*. Oxford: OUP.
- Regulation N 5* (in Bulgarian) file:///C:/Documents%20and%20Settings/user/My%20Documents/Downloads/naredba_5_2016_preduchilishtno_obr.pdf
- Reilly, T. (2000). Working with very young learners (3-6) in the English language classroom. *CATS*, 1, 4-7.
- Reilly, V. & Ward, S.M. (1997). *Very Young Learners*. Oxford: OUP.
- Rinvoluceri, M. (2008). *Grammar Games*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Sealey, A. (2011). The use of corpus-based approaches in children's knowledge about language. In S. Ellis & E. McCartney (eds.), *Applied Linguistics and Primary School Teaching* (pp. 93-106). Cambridge: CUP.
- Syllabi (in Bulgarian), Ministry of Education and Science <http://www.mon.bg/?go=page&pageId=1&subpageId=28>.
- Tulegenova, A. (2016). Using the visualisation method in teaching language skills. In T. Pattison (ed.), *IATEFL 2015 Manchester Conference Selections. 49th International Conference, Manchester, 11-14 April 2015* (pp. 56-58). IATEFL: Faversham.
- Vance, M. (2011). Supporting children with a speech, language and communication needs. In S. Ellis & E. McCartney (eds.), *Applied Linguistics and Primary School Teaching* (pp. 53-63). Cambridge: CUP.
- Wright, A. (2006). Being creative: Things I find useful. *CATS*, 1, 17-19.

- Wyse, D. (2011). The control of language or the language of control? Primary teachers' knowledge in the context of policy. In S. Ellis & E. McCartney (eds.), *Applied Linguistics and Primary School Teaching* (pp. 21-31). Cambridge: CUP.
- Zaorob, M.L. & Chin, E. (2001). *Games for Grammar Practice: A Resource Book of Grammar Games and Interactive Activities*. Cambridge: CUP.

SECTION 2

STUDENT TEACHERS – RESEARCH REPORTS

M^a Elena Gómez Parra

University of Córdoba, Córdoba, Spain

Dalila Lino

Polytechnic Institute of Lisbon, Lisbon, Portugal

Esra F. Molu

Marmara University, Istanbul, Turkey

Cristina A. Huertas Abril

University of Córdoba, Córdoba, Spain

6 Play, Education, Toys, and Languages (PETaL): an International Master's Programme for the Education of 21st Century Early Childhood Teachers

Abstract

International tertiary Early Childhood Education (ECE) claims for the need to offer quality programmes that ensure the training of teachers, enabling to accommodate the requirements of 21st century society where plurilingualism and intercultural awareness are key elements in the education of the new citizens. This chapter describes the proposal of a new international Master's programme entitled "Play, Education, Toys and Languages" (PETaL), to be implemented by three European HEIs: University of Córdoba (Spain), Polytechnic Institute of Lisbon (Portugal) and Marmara University (Turkey). Its academic standards have been carefully designed to meet the necessities of ECE in order to better support the changes which current schools are entailed to cope with. Play, toys and games, intercultural education, second language acquisition and ECE are the key topics of PETaL, which until now have only been offered in isolation. By embedding these topics into a single and coherent educational programme, teachers will be given the chance to develop a unique range of skills and knowledge.

Key words: early childhood education (ECE), international master, higher education, quality programme.

INTRODUCTION

Early Childhood Education (ECE) is one of the key topics for most international educational organizations and institutions which claim for quality in school curricula in the 21st century. Among others, Truszczyński and Radermacher (European Commission, 2014) stated: “At a time of unprecedented changes, the importance of giving all our children a solid start by providing quality early childhood education is central to the European strategy for smart and sustainable growth, the EU 2020 strategy” (p. 3). Furthermore, the Education 2030 Framework for Action highlighted: “Beginning at birth, early childhood care and education (ECCE) lays the foundation for children’s long-term development, well-being and health. ECCE builds the competencies and skills that enable people to learn throughout life and to earn a livelihood. Investments in young children, particularly those from marginalized groups, yield the greatest long-term impact in terms of developmental and educational outcomes” (UNESCO, 2016, p. 14).

The specific need for training ECE teachers is evident from the societal needs that must cover specific areas that up to now were unknown. Intercultural education in the school curriculum as a means to educate children to avoid prejudices and cultural misunderstandings; the role of multilingualism to contribute to communication among peoples; and the unquestionable importance of play as a construct for the building of children’s emotions and physical involvement, and cognitive development; all these are outstanding topics that constitute the core of this Master’s course entitled “Play, Education, Toys and Languages (PETaL)”.

Children’s rights along with their need to play constitute the main basis of this programme, whose main areas (intercultural and multilingual education, toys, and play, and early second language acquisition) have been intertwined in ECE to build up a Master’s programme that will be delivered by renowned international experts.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: THE ERASMUS IP “TOYS, PLAY AND CULTURE”

PETaL Master’s programme is the outcome of a joint-programme that the three consortium institutions developed as an Erasmus Intensive Programme lead by Dr Lino in *Instituto de Estudos Superiores de Fafe – IESF* (Portugal) entitled “Plays, Toys and Culture” (<https://www.iesfafa.pt/IP/>).

The power of play for learning and development in early childhood education is beyond question. The content of play may vary according to a child's culture, but the fundamental nature of play holds firm across all cultures (Brown, 2009). There is strong evidence that the child's need to play is a fundamental biological drive, as shown by Panksepp (2004) and Pellis & Pellis (2009). Children everywhere need to socialize, run about, investigate their environment, create new words... This holds true for all children, including those with disabilities. Play should be integrated throughout as an effective means to support all domains of development and promote learning in all curriculum areas.

Several studies conducted by researchers from the education sphere conclude that: (a) there is a relationship between the decrease of the time for playing in school and the increasing of extreme aggressive behaviour (Gilliam, 2015); (b) there are no long-term gains from teaching children to read at age 5 compared to age 7 (Suggate, 2010); and (c) when "at-risk" children get inappropriate early education it has a lasting negative effect. These methods are intensifying the problems and not reducing the learning gap (Schweinhart *et al.*, 2005); when schools focus on drilling literacy and maths skills into young children it only produces a lack of creativity and curiosity (Engel, 2010).

Other important contributions are the 2006 and 2008 reports from *The American Academy of Paediatrics*, which highlighted the relationship between the decrease in time to play and the health problems like obesity and several mental disorders, such as stress, anxiety, and depression.

This Erasmus Intensive Programme (IP) entitled *Play, Toys and Culture* aimed to develop a course for early childhood and elementary education major students which focused on play, toys and games related with culture. The course gave two cohorts of students (backing different countries and cultures) the opportunity to review theories of play, to research and to learn about the social and cultural heritage use of traditional types of play, games, and toys of the participating countries.

According to its rationale and background, the IP aimed to create a multicultural teaching community (teachers and students) that promoted the construction of knowledge by using play and traditional toys as pedagogical tools for 21st century European children. Another goal was to enhance the development of a European network that can sensitize teachers, parents, and other childhood professionals to be advocates of children's right to play and learn through play. Simultaneously, this IP promoted the development of the following transversal competences: i) To communicate effectively by using a foreign language (English) in teaching and social contexts; ii) To be aware of cultural differences and to inte-

grate them in their professional and everyday life; iii) To develop collaboration and communication skills at European level; iv) To use ICT to communicate and disseminate ideas, results, and products.

The materialization of these purposes was only possible within a European space of multilateral collaboration that integrates idiosyncratic perspectives, ideas, experiences, know-how, and feelings. This IP integrated five higher education institutions from different countries, namely: the Higher School of Education of Fafe (Portugal), the University of Córdoba (Spain), Marmara University (Turkey), Liepajas University (Latvia), and Aurel Vlaicu of Arad University (Romania).

The development of this IP was carried out along two academic years (2012-14), coordinated by the Higher School of Education of Fafe (PT), where more than 20 university teachers and 50 students participated.

The structure of this IP followed these main guidelines: participating students were expected to follow a two-week intensive course that was introduced by a series of theoretical conferences and seminars on the role of play and games on culture, and on children's development, mainly conducted by specialized international scholars from different backgrounds. Among these, we can mention Prof. Kishimoto, who delivered a plenary on "Theories of Play and the role of toys within childhood pedagogy"; Prof. Lino spoke about "The role of play and toys within Reggio Emilia Approach"; Profs. Grava and Latuskevica discussed "The role of play and toys within High Scope Curriculum; Prof. Molu developed the topic 'Toys and socialization', and Prof. Viejo spoke about "The role of play in childhood development" All these presentations were followed by interesting discussions and debates, what promoted students' insights and real learning by reflection.

Another essential part of this IP was the visits to different Toy Museums in the area, mainly Ponte de Lima National Portuguese Toy Museum and Sintra International Toy Museum. These visits offered participants the opportunity to organize student group work, to learn about the history of toys and game as spaces for investigation and, thus, to select research topics that were carried out during the IP.

The next natural step of this IP was, then, to plan the adaptation and construction of traditional games and/or toys as pedagogical tools for early childhood and elementary education. Student group work followed what they had learnt from their visits, at the same time that collaborative work was the desirable goal for this activity. Games and toys constructed were shown on the temporary

exhibition entitled Traditional Toys and Games for 21st Century European Children at IESF, and open to schools.

The established learning objectives of this IP were: a) To be sensitive to the power of play for teaching and learning; b) To be able to use traditional adapted games and toys to educational planning in preschool and elementary education; c) To develop a reflective perspective about wise and appropriate use of traditional play and toys in their professional practice; d) To construct a narrative about the value of play that reflects theoretical, plural, and integrated perspectives; e) To recognize and use social and cultural manufactured artefacts and infuse them in education; f) To be active citizens that are able to sensitize and mobilize educational community and community at large for the vital role of play on children's health. We can say, then, that such learning objectives became the real learning outcomes, due to the final evaluation of the project and the students' positive achievements.

THE THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF PETAL MASTER'S PROGRAMME

The impact of culture on education in general, and on early childhood education and child development in particular, has always been an interesting area for research; however, a programme like PETaL that incorporates play, toys, languages and intercultural education has not been introduced up to now.

Culture can be defined as the set of beliefs, traditions, values, customs, and norms specific to a group of people (Macionis & Plummer, 2008). Moreover, culture is learned through the socialization process, at the same time that socialization is the process by which human beings incorporate the social norms pertaining to a certain culture or cultural group, and it occurs throughout the life course (Molu, 2014). It is the process whereby societies have structural continuity over time; the values and norms specific to a culture is transmitted from one generation to another and hence endure over time. Socialization connects different generations to one another and even though the members of a society change, cultural characteristics persist over time. This persistence can be well observed in children's plays and toys, where cultural schemas are learned and reflected. Through play, children explore and know the rules and symbols of their communities, as well as recreate roles and situations that reflect their sociocultural world.

As a result, they learn how to subordinate desires to social rules, cooperate with others willingly, and engage in socially appropriate behaviour. Over time, these competences are transferred to children's everyday behaviours.

Congruent with cultural expectations and their appropriate gender traits; girl plays are often indoor, less physically active, and even if physically active, far less rough and tumble; whereas boy plays are often outdoor, more physically active, and often rough and tumble (Molu, 2014).

In most parts of Europe, even though culturally cultivated (that is, encouraged by adults where they themselves consider it as important to play with their children) play persists, there are some sociological factors in action:

- i) Children's safety and risk: in intensely urbanized countries, the culture is currently quite risk-averse, and so children are heavily supervised and play indoors, in their gardens and in specially designed play spaces with safety surfaces, whereas in less dense urban areas (such as the Scandinavian countries) they have more opportunity to play outdoors (Lester & Russell, 2010).
- ii) The amount of time the parents devote to playing with their children decrease as a result of the impact of living in urban areas, having to work for longer hours and the daily rush in their lives (Chawla, 2002, as cited in Lester & Russell, 2010).
- iii) In the educational domain, with the curriculum becoming more and more competitive, most of the children, again in especially urban areas, have increasingly less time for play and leisure activities, since they are over-scheduled.
- iv) Children's right to play should be supported by their social and physical environment, provision means more than providing play facilities; in order to ensure children's right to play, it is their fundamental rights which need to be secured first. When children's rights to survival, development and well-being are infringed, this has an impact on their capacity to play; equally, children's capacity to play will have an impact on their health, well-being and development (Burghardt, 2005; McEwen, 2007 as cited in Lester & Russell, 2010).
- v) Continuous absence of play may disrupt emotion-regulation systems, which in turn will diminish children's physical, social and cognitive competence (Pellis & Pellis, 2006).
- vi) The double benefit of more outdoor play played together by both sexes would be the prevention of major health problems such as obesity and

the reducing of gender stereotyping which would be beneficial for the overall labour market in terms of more options for subject choices (Molu, 2014).

Even the most playfully inclined children will not be able to play (to benefit from learning and development aspects) if they are not given the time, the space, and the independence to develop their own spontaneous and self-initiated play activities. Given all these sociological factors and when they are evaluated together with the psychological ones, we can see that there is a current need to increase the amount and quality of play provided to children. Since discrepancies are observed between urban and rural areas and between different cultures, there is also need for action to start programs where cultures can learn and take advantage from the experiences of each other. Following the *Key Data on Early childhood education and Care in Europe*: “Most countries have more than five per cent of children born abroad or registered as foreign citizens” (European Commission, 2014, p. 29). PETaL, then, by incorporating different cultures and experiences, is definitely going to provide grounds for intercultural exchange for the benefit of children. Interculturalism is a new concept, though the notion is pretty old. Intercultural education has emerged as a reflection of 21st century society and has become one of the subjects to be prioritised as a result of the globalized world. It is needed to ensure an education concept to meet all educational needs of all different cultures living in a society and to make these different groups learn to live together in harmony. This viewpoint should be secured starting from preschool period. Thus, it can be stated that this subject is one of the most important needs of today’s education world. Thus, intercultural education can be defined as the process whereby students learn about and interact with different cultures in the educational setting. PETaL’s concept of intercultural education can be summarized by following Gómez and Pérez (2016): “The power of Intercultural Education (IE) must be taken into account as teaching and learning processes are inextricably contextualized. Having in mind the dizzy changes that affect human beings, the answer of education to meet the new needs of multicultural societies must be found at the development of new methodological approaches whose objective is to promote the dialogue, cooperation, living together, respect and empathy among pupils. In addition, such models must face the challenge to educate for the future or, in other words: to educate for intercultural. Our understanding of Intercultural Education entails a dynamic, holistic and universal approach” (p. 65).

This unique PETaL Master’s programme has been specifically designed to provide students with the sufficient opportunities to learn from the experiences

of one another, and hence improve their cultural awareness and increase respect to diversities. This will also be valid for the teachers participating in the program, as well as for the teachers in the participating institutions (both consortium members and associated partners) from different parts of the world (America, Asia, Europe and Africa) and different cultures and hence will create a domino effect. This Master's inner theoretical underpinnings, therefore, definitely and purposefully align with *New Millennium Development Goals* (www.un.org/millenniumgoals), and the *European Year of Development 2015* (<https://europa.eu/eyd2015/en/content/about-2015>), as well as *UNESCO Guidelines for Education and Horizon 2020* (<http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001478/147878e.pdf>) and the *UNESCO Education 2030 Framework for Action* (<http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Documents/incheon-framework-for-action-en.pdf>).

Infants learn language with remarkable speed, but how they do it remains a mystery. Social interaction with other human beings definitely affects speech learning, and the brain's commitment to the statistical and prosodic patterns that are experienced early in life might help to explain why infants are better language learners than adults. Bilingual children are better able to focus their attention on relevant information and ignore distractions (Council on Learning, 2008).

Bilingual individuals have been shown to be more creative and better at planning and solving complex problems than monolinguals (Paradis, Genesee & Crago, 2011).

Bilingualism and IQ are considered to be positively correlated, after a historical period of negative and no effect thoughts (Baker, 2001). The effects of aging on the brain are diminished among bilingual adults.

Early second language acquisition (ESLA) is a must for ECE teachers who will develop their careers within 21st century society, where bilingual education is at the heart of Europe and European educational policies. There is no attempt at any European policy document to promote a *lingua franca* to the detriment of any indigenous European language. "Every European should have meaningful communicative competence in at least two languages in addition to his or her mother tongue. This is an ambitious goal, but all the progress already made by several Member States shows that this is attainable" (European Commission, 2003, p. 10). So, PETaL purposefully aligns with the language policies of the European Commission.

Additionally, PETaL will also enhance self-esteem and self-empowerment; in line with the Erasmus Impact Study (EIS) 2014 by the EU Commission Education and Culture findings: "The students who have participated in the program

have shown significant improvement in basic characteristics such as open-mindedness, flexibility, cross-cultural adaptability and appreciation of diversity". The intercultural competence acquired during this experience can definitely contribute to the students' future employability, since it promotes the ability to communicate effectively on intercultural situations (Molu *et al.*, 2014)

PETAL MASTER'S PROGRAMME COURSE STRUCTURE

PETaL Master's course (120 ECTS equally distributed into 4 semesters of 30 ECTS each) offers a unique program focused on the following academic subjects for early childhood education: play, toys, intercultural education, early second language acquisition and childhood pedagogy.

PETaL's first semester, entitled "General Introduction", will be delivered at the University of Cordoba, Spain (UCO). Its main goal is to provide students with the fundamentals of the four areas of expertise included in this Master's Degree programme (that is, the psychology of children's play, ECE, IE, and ESLA). UCO teachers will be supported by worldwide known experts in specific areas, who will be invited by the PETaL consortium to deliver specific workshops, conferences and seminars on the above-mentioned key areas.

PETaL second semester courses will be delivered at the Instituto Politecnico de Lisboa (IPL) in Portugal. The participation of guest scholars will complement and enrich students' knowledge about the role of play and toys for learning in ECE in different cultures. PETaL consortium intends to welcome renowned experts in key educational areas, such as: (a) Play work; (b) Toys, play and ECE in diverse cultures; (c) The research on the use play as learning tool in American ECE classrooms; and (d) Play and motor development in ECE. This, therefore, will contribute to enrich PETaL students' knowledge about the use of play as pedagogical tool in diverse cultures.

Third semester courses are offered by Marmara University (MU) in Istanbul, Turkey, whose teaching staff is highly specialized in the sociology of play and children, where key teaching staff show high expertise on the importance of play in ECE, educational drama, sociology, and museum education. PETaL is also willing to include various experts working in different fields to contribute to the implementation of the programme on the following areas: (a) the establishment of the link between the legal frameworks on children's rights in general and their

right to equality in education and to play in particular; (b) narrative inquiry and biographical approaches, setting life stories in cultural contexts, and the use of observational methods in ECE; (c) research on children's play, games and toys; (d) children's playful productions of time/space, and the relationship with adult understandings of play and policy interventions.

The fourth semester will be devoted to the planning and writing of the Master's Thesis (30 ECTS), which can take place at any of the three participant universities in collaboration with the associated partners. A wide range of possible topics is available for MT projects carefully designed to ensure relevant skills and subject training. The list of topics offered will be yearly updated (at the beginning of the first semester) and offered in collaboration between two universities of the consortium. Topics will be also offered in collaboration between a programme university, a partner university, and an associated partner (that is, qualified staff from participating museums, or research centres). PETaL final Master's Theses will be required to prove that students command the fundamental theoretical concepts, at the same time that they have developed the practical skills and competences designed by this Master. During the fourth semester students must be able to generate data from field and bibliography, to analyse them and interpret its results then obtaining the necessary information to write and finally defend and disseminate their work. Collaborative work in associated museums, schools and research institutes will be fostered, and it will be positively assessed when it includes the supervisor's letter of statement on the knowledge and skills acquired, as well as its benefits for a foreseeable educational setting.

CONCLUSIONS

PETaL is an innovative Master's Degree based on the complementarity of the programme country universities in terms of research and expertise that permeates the delivery of its curriculum, as well as on the cultural richness of partner institutions (both universities and non-universities across the world) to provide this Master's students with the necessary opportunities to experience the most diverse ways to approach Early Childhood Education (ECE).

The key areas herein described, the topics under discussion and research, as well as the practices planned in different toy and play museums across Europe; all this makes this Master's programme a unique opportunity for participating

students to experience the academic excellence of the EHEA. The key elements that PETaL combines (and which makes of it a unique programme) are “toys and play”, “intercultural education” (IE) and “early second language acquisition” (ESLA) in ECE. The uniqueness and importance of the combination of these areas have already been stated above, and this adds to the teaching approach as well as the learning and research methods that will be intertwined. For every intake, PETaL offers a list of key subjects and research topics that naturally integrates into the educational, intercultural, and social aspects of ECE, purposefully based on the expertise and capacity of the researchers and professionals involved in this programme. Following the OECD (2013): “Extending learning environments through partnerships” in *Innovative Learning Environments*: “Contemporary learning environments will not be sustained by working in isolation but instead need to be connected to diverse partners, networks and professional communities. ... Similarly, the cultural and social partnerships extend boundaries by offering access to cultural materials, experiences, and different teaching expertise. ... Families and communities can become real partners, entering the pedagogical core via community teachers, resources, and content, and through project-based pedagogies that depend on community engagement. Networking with other learning environments is critical, and mutually beneficial. ... As exemplary, some become beacons and sources of professional learning for others.”

Therefore, the PETaL Consortium addresses at all main ECE key areas by offering a range of learning methods that will be designed to cope with all students’ personality traits and styles that can be summarised as: PETaL offers an innovative learning environment that will effectively combine the programme’s content, the academic collaborations (museums, research institutes and innovative schools), and the human group (international reputed scholars, students and specialized staff from museums, institute researchers, and school teachers). This offers multiple and diverse ways of changing learning to adapt to different environments and cope with opportunities. Innovations of the content of learning is looked at through two different lenses: first, many of the learning objectives designed by PETaL have sought deliberately to develop 21st century competences; second, there are many examples of innovating specific knowledge domains or subject areas such as interdisciplinary subjects, language learning and the inter-cultural/national contents that address sustainability to this Master’s Programme. The innovation is enhanced by bringing in different experts to work with or act as teachers in many of the activities designed by PETaL.

Following Sawyer (2015) PETaL's design of its learning environment can in turn be used to guide the development of new models of schooling as it provides participating students with: customised learning (more effective learning will occur if each learner receives a customised learning experience); diverse knowledge sources (students gain expertise from a variety of sources as well as the traditional ones – from the Internet, at the library, or through e-mail exchange with a working professional – and the teacher is far from being the only source of classroom expertise); distributed knowledge (collaborating students groups can accelerate learning); the role of the teacher (participating teachers are experts, comfortable with technology, with a deep pedagogical understanding of the subject matter, and able to respond and improvise to the uniquely emerging flow of each classroom; and assessment (customised learning requires customised assessment, which will be specifically designed by the consortium through an agreed rubric which, then, can be adapted by teachers to meet the specific needs of the contents of every subject).

PETaL contributes to international university excellence through the increase of research (to be developed by students and their supervisors), the exchange of innovation, and high quality experiences on the program strands. The programme promotes the interaction between universities and social and educational institutions such as: toy museums, research institutes, and schools for young children (0 to 12). This cooperation fosters the development of quality practices to work with young children in formal and informal educational contexts.

Therefore, PETaL will offer innovative tools and knowledge for future ECE teachers and other professionals working with young children in order to support them to promote a change in methodologies, and to increase the use of developmentally appropriate practices, and eliminate those that do not provide children with opportunities to play and enjoy learning.

PETaL has also carefully been planned to help participants improve their language competences since the program language requirement itself [being B2 (CEFR), TOEFL (75 or higher) or IELTS-score (6 or higher)] ensures a quality in terms of language skills which will be open to further development via 2 ECTS language courses to be offered in Spanish, Portuguese and Turkish courses, to be delivered by native speakers in their countries of origin. This will be congruent with the EIS findings, which demonstrate a remarkable improvement in the language skills of the students who participate in the Erasmus Student Mobility Programmes.

In terms of employability and career prospects, PETaL will offer a wide range of benefits to the participating students regarding both the educational

and non-educational partners involved in the programme. The students will have the opportunity to pursue their professional and academic career in education (school practices in Istanbul and Lisbon), as well as in related areas, such as toy and children museums, companies, and R+D institutes and groups. Therefore, their horizons will be broadened by being exposed to different cultures and entrepreneurship opportunities from across the world during their studies. This cultural richness combined with European values will strengthen the European identity and enable the students to act as European culture ambassadors, as well as to promote respect to diversities and increase tolerance to differences, and hence contribute to peace in the world in the long run.

Regarding the impact on involved institutions and mobility of the staff, it is unquestionable that PETaL enhances the already existing collaboration among partner institutions. Through their participation on this Master's programme, teachers from the three institutions will have more opportunities to meet and develop their already fruitful collaborative work. These initiatives will impact both on the professional development of teachers directly involved on this Master, as well as on the other staff of the three participating institutions. Moreover, the mobility opportunities that this Master's Degree offers for teaching staff (e.g. by living and teaching within a different culture and institution) will enhance both their professional and personal development.

REFERENCES

- Alred, G. Byram, M. & Fleming, M. (2003). *Intercultural experience and education*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Baker, C. (2001). *Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism (Third Edition)*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Blondin, C., Candelier, M., Edelenbos, P., Johnstone, R.M., Kubanek-German, A. & Taeschner, T. (1998). *Foreign languages in primary and pre-school education: context and outcomes: a review of recent research within the European Union*. London: Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research.
- Brown, F. (2009). Play Work (Chapter 9). In A. Brook, S. Dodds, P. Jarvis & Y. Olusoga (eds.), *Perspectives on play. Learning for life*. London: Pearson Longman.

- Council of Learning (2008). Parlez-vous Français? The advantages of bilingualism in Canada. Available at: <http://www.ccl-cca.ca/pdfs/LessonsInLearning/Oct-16-08-The-advantages-of-bilingualism.pdf>.
- Edelenbos, P., Johnstone, J. & Kubanek, A. (2006). *The main pedagogical principles underlying the teaching of languages to very young learners: Languages for the children of Europe*. European Commission.
- Engel, S.L. (2010). *Playing to Learn*. New York Times (Op-Ed. February).
- European Commission (2003). *Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity: An Action Plan 2004-2006*. Brussels: European Unit.
- European Commission (2011). *Language Learning at Pre-Primary School Level: Making it Efficient and Sustainable. A Policy Handbook*. Brussels: SEC. Available at: <https://goo.gl/adzLRL>.
- European Commission (2014). *Key Data on Early Childhood Education and Care in Europe. Eurydice and Eurostat Report*. Brussels: Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency.
- Gill, T. (2005). *No fear: Growing up in at risk averse society*. London: Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation.
- Gilliam, J.E. (2015). *The Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder Test: A method for Identifying ADHD* (Second Edition). Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.
- Ginsburg, K.R. (s.d.) *The Importance of Play in Promoting Healthy Child Development and Maintaining Strong Parent-Child Bonds*. Available at: <http://pediatrics.aappublications.org/content/119/1>.
- Gómez Parra, M^a E. & Pérez Gracia, E. (2016). *Educación intercultural a través del contenido en Ciencias Sociales en Educación Primaria*. Intercultural Education through Social Science content within Primary Education. *Hekademos*, 21(IX), 65-73.
- Kramsch, C. (2013). Culture in foreign language teaching. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, 1(1), 57-78.
- Lester, S. & Russell, W. (2010). *Children's right to play: An examination of the importance of play in the lives of children worldwide*. The Hague: Bernard Van Leer Foundation.
- Macionis, J.J. & Plummer, K. (2008). *Sociology: A Global Introduction*. (4th Edition). London: Pearson.
- Molu, F.E., Basman, M., Eryigit, D., Tunc, B. & Yaman, G. (2014). Erasmus Student Study Exchange Programme: The Incoming–Outcoming of Erasmus Student Study Exchange, Marmara University Students. *International Journal for 21st Century Education*, 1, 21-35.

- Molu, F.E. (2014). Play, Toys & Gender Socialization. *Revista Educatia Plus*, 11(2), 22-30.
- Murphy, V. (2014). *Second Language Learning in Early School Years: Trends and Contexts*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- OECD (2013). *Innovative Learning Environments*. Available at: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264203488-8-en>.
- Panksepp, J. (2004). *Affective Neuroscience: The Foundations of Human and Animal Emotions (Series in Affective Science)*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Paradis, J., Genesee, F. & Crago, M.B. (2011). Dual language development and disorders. *A Handbook on Bilingualism and Second Language Learning*, vol. 11. Baltimore, MD, US: Paul H. Brookes Publishing.
- Pellis, S. & Pellis, V. (2009). *The Playful Brain. Venturing to the Limits of Neuroscience*. Oxford: Oneworld Press.
- Sawyer, K.R. (2015). *The Cambridge Handbook of the Learning Sciences*, 2nd Edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Schweinhart, L., Montie, J., Xiang, Z., Barnett, W., Belfield, C. & Nores, M. (2005). *Lifetime effects: The High/Scope Perry Preschool study through age 40*. Ypsilanti: High/Scope Press.
- Singer, D.G, Singer, J.L., D'Agostino, H. & DeLong, R. (2009). Children's Pastimes and Play in Sixteen Nations is Free-Play Declining? *American Journal of Play*, 283-312. Available at: <http://www.journalofplay.org/sites/www.journalofplay.org/files/pdf-articles/1-3-article-childrens-pastimes-play-in-sixteen-nations.pdf>.
- Suggate, S. (2010). Children learning to read later catch up to children reading earlier. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 28(1), 33-48.
- UNESCO. (2016). *Education 2030. Incheon Declaration and Framework for Action Towards inclusive and equitable quality education and lifelong learning for all*. Paris: UNESCO. Available at: <https://goo.gl/j4hJqQ>.

Íris Susana Pires Pereira
Flávia Vieira

Research Centre in Education (CIEd), Institute of Education,
University of Minho, Portugal

7 The Critical Role of Writing in Inquiry-Based Pre-Service Teacher Education

Abstract

This chapter presents an exploratory case study based on an inductive content analysis of a practicum report produced by a student teacher within a Master Degree in Teaching. The report is based on an action research project conducted in a class of primary school children to enhance a constructivist approach to reading for learning. The analysis aimed at understanding the critical role of writing in inquiry-based professional learning processes by looking at the student teacher's reflective discourse. A total of 141 segments were identified, accounting for the presence of 17 professional learning dimensions related with the conceptualisation of the action research project, knowledge about action research, project development, and theorisation/ evaluating of action. Results suggest that action research and report writing are interconnected processes of learning from and about the pedagogical-research game, whereby novice teachers build their identity as pro-active educators. Even though our study is local and exploratory, it contributes to understanding the role of professional literacy practices in enhancing and documenting inquiry-based professional development processes.

Key words: Pre-service teacher education, practicum, inquiry-based teaching, report writing, professional learning.

INTRODUCTION

Pre-service teacher education has been a field of continuous inquiry, debate and controversy in regards to its rationales and practices (Borges & Aquino, 2014; Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2008; Darling-Hammond & Lieberman, 2012; Flores, 2014; Flores & Al-Barwani, 2016; Zeichner & Conklin, 2008; Wilson, Floden & Ferrini-Mundy, 2001). Ultimately, choices concerning the *what*, *how* and *what for* of teacher education programs draw on ideological understandings of education, schooling, and teacher professionalism. A critical issue in this respect is whether prospective teachers should learn to challenge and transform established teaching cultures or internalise and conform to them. In-between these opposite views, a myriad of possibilities exists for teacher education programs to reconcile pre-existing regimes with a drive to innovate based on critical inquiry, the question being the nature and goals of inquiry, and whether it is embraced by training institutions and schools (see Vaughan & Burnaford, 2016).

We believe that transformative teacher education can be enhanced through inquiry-based teaching that allows prospective teachers to build a democratic and humanistic view of education and develop as (self-)critical professionals while working in contexts where a paradigm of transmission prevails. Given the historical and structural constraints to teaching, educational change takes place in the interspace between reality and ideals and is thus understood as a re(ide)-alistic phenomenon (Jiménez Ray, Lamb & Vieira, 2007). From this perspective, ideals of transformation and empowerment in pre-service teacher education are mediated by school and university contexts, and can only be understood with reference to frameworks underpinning teacher development, which determine both the value and the shortcomings of what gets to be done. Furthermore, professional learning also depends on teachers' commitment and ability to undertake inner transformations by assuming a critical stance towards their selves as educators.

Our focus in this chapter is on whether trainees' involvement in reflective practice through action research during their practicum generates transformative professional learning as evidenced in final practicum reports, assuming that action research and narrative writing can be seen as interconnected processes of learning *from* and *about* the pedagogical-research game, whereby novice teachers are expected to build their identity as pro-active educators. We start by presenting a framework for understanding the role of inquiry and writing in teacher learn-

ing, and then present an exploratory case study of a practicum report produced by a student teacher within a Master Degree in Teaching that prepares pre-school and primary teachers at our university, which aimed at understanding the critical role of writing in inquiry-based professional learning processes.

A FRAMEWORK FOR UNDERSTANDING THE ROLE OF INQUIRY AND WRITING IN TEACHER LEARNING

Inquiry-based teaching and professional literacy practices can be understood as two main components of reflective teacher education pedagogies. In the sections that follow we explore this argument by presenting its theoretical rationale.

Teachers as reflective practitioners: promoting teaching as inquiry

Current assumptions about teachers as reflective practitioners are sustained by ideas regarding the role of experience in learning (Dewey, 1916, 1938). From an experiential perspective, professional development and pedagogical renewal do not result from applying external theory to practice. Even though theories can be “appropriated in the cause of educational change” (Carr, 2006, p. 155), the most powerful driving force for self-monitored, conscious, and conscientious *doing* and lifelong professional *learning* is the professional disposition to reflect on and transform practice (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993; Hatton & Smith, 1995; Marcos, Miguel, & Tillema, 2009).

Conceptions of teachers as reflective practitioners require teacher education programs to surpass a theory-to-practice rationale based on a positivistic epistemology often characterised as ‘instrumental rationalism’, according to which teachers are technicians and implementers of pre-designed programs rather than critical intellectuals, curriculum developers, and agents of change. This entails the development of *pedagogies of experience* that enhance a praxeological epistemology, allowing teachers to theorise from practice with a transformative purpose and facilitating the construction of personal theories and practices that are conceptually and ethically sound, locally valid and socially relevant (Vieira, 2009, 2010). In the context of pre-service teacher education, field experiences should

then promote inquiry-based teaching and become what Zeichner (2010) calls a 'third space', where the hegemony of academic knowledge is replaced by a combination of different kinds of knowing and where participants inquire into practice and negotiate understandings to better respond to the challenges of teaching and learning in schools.

Action research has long been advocated and explored to promote a praxeological epistemology through cycles of action-reflection in teacher education settings, even though inquiry processes and their impact on teacher growth will depend on "the underpinning epistemology of the action research model being employed – whether, for example, the goal is for teachers to become more effective or efficient or empowered" (Leitch & Day, 2000, p. 183). According to Vaughan and Burnaford's review (2016), action research has been used in graduate teacher education programs with three different, possibly combined, goals: action research as reflective practice; action research as participatory, critical inquiry; and action research as teacher leadership to effect change in schools and communities. In our work as practicum supervisors, it is mostly understood as reflective practice through critical inquiry within a humanistic and democratic view of education, with the purpose of enhancing student teachers' understanding of education and engagement in small-scale experimentation of learner-centred pedagogies, whose fundamental goal is to explore a teaching rationale based on expanding students' voice, participation and involvement in meaningful learning. Even though trainees' action research projects are primarily focused on the classroom and the enactment of teacher and student learning, they also entail a reflection on the ethical and political underpinnings of teaching with an emancipatory purpose, in the sense that student teachers as researchers "become aware of the values that drive their work so that they may be clear about what they are doing and why. Through such processes, teachers as researchers construct their own 'living educational theory'" (Leitch & Day, 2000, p. 185). Nevertheless, the transformative potential of trainees' projects depends on the support they get from their supervisors. Dialogic supervision based on collaborative reflection and inquiry (Waite, 1995) is of paramount importance, especially in school contexts where constraints to inquiry and innovation reduce opportunities for change. Exploring change through reflective inquiry is thus moving towards 'a culture of possibility' (Vieira & Moreira, 2008).

An important component of action research is the production of narrative accounts of experience where teacher researchers interpret their story of pedagogical inquiry, assume positions supported by experience and the personal

appropriation of public theories, use those theories to interrogate and illuminate practice, give voice to research participants, present sound arguments in favour of more democratic education, and use language creatively with a dialogic orientation towards potential readers (Vieira, 2014, 2015). Literacy practices thus become a crucial concern in inquiry-based teacher learning.

Enhancing professional literacy practices: the case of writing

Language practices play an important complementary role in current understandings of pre-service teachers' learning processes. Sociocultural views have acknowledged the fundamental role of language in social learning, assuming that cognition develops as a result of social practices of communication and is community-generated, community-maintained and maintaining (Bruffee, 1986; Wertsch, 1991). The culturally situated, specialised nature of language in discourse communities requires their members to learn and make use of each community's specific and historically edified 'ways with words' (Bakhtin, 1986; Gee, 1992; Heath, 1983), and from this perspective, concepts, ideas, theories, the world, reality, and facts "are all language constructs generated by knowledge communities" (Bruffee, 1986, p. 777). Reflective learning has been characterized as teachers' specialized form of cognition (Bazerman, 2009; Pereira, 2014), constructed within (and with the active engagement of) their professional community, which provides them with the necessary social scaffolding for the learning to take place. Literacy practices in pre-service teacher education, especially writing practices, have received a particular interest, which has been influenced by developments in writing to learn and genre theories.

According to writing to learn theories, writing adds to the role played by oral language by rendering thinking tangible, thus providing a means of deepening understandings constructed through experience and making the objects of our thinking analysable and liable to be shared and validated by others (Britton, 1970; Eisner, 1987). Writing about experience allows thinking about thinking, and this metacognitive dimension of writing has a powerful heuristic force, opening up possibilities for rethinking what is known, uncovering the unknown, and (re)constructing future experience (Eisner, 2006; Marcos, Miguel & Tillema, 2009; van Manen, 1989, 1990, 2006). The relation between writing and praxis can also be understood from the perspective of speech acts theory (Austin, 1962), whose central thesis is that language is used to do other acts besides representing

the world. Assuming the premise that *to say is literally to do* (Reyes, 1995, p. 31), Pereira (2014) argues that enouncing learning (constructed in practice) is also constructing learning, and therefore teachers' reflective linguistic acts *perform* the (inner) development of their practical knowledge. Seen from this perspective, reflective writing enables writers to consciously act upon their own specialised professional cognition.

Genre theories have also contributed to understand the role of language as tool for social cognition. A genre is a culturally edified, prototypical mode of using language that is generated by the social context in which it becomes necessary for the enactment of specific social purposes (Bahktin, 1986; Halliday & Martin, 1993; Wertsch, 1991, 1998). Bazerman (2009) conceives of the process of being socialised into the various human activity systems (disciplines, professions, and communities) as "cognitive apprenticeship" (p. 290), viewing the various genres as crucial tools for moulding the situated (and socially expected) forms of cognition. Once one internalises a genre, "one learns to think and act as a member of one's profession or discipline" (p. 289), as expected. Seen through this lens, genres link minds to the sociocultural, historical, and institutional contexts in which they are situated (Wertsch, 1991, 1998).

A vast number of situated writing practices have emerged in pre-service teacher education programs, most of which assuming a narrative-like character (Clandinin & Rosiek, 2007; Darling, 2001; Doecke, 2013; Vieira, 2010), allowing prospective teachers to tell their stories of practice and make sense of them, thus developing a specialised reflective cognition through practical epistemology and building their professional identity within their community of practice. Narrative-like genres can mediate, structure and give meaning to the lived experiences that teachers reflect about. Rosen (1987, p. 12) observes that making stories is "a product of the predisposition of human mind to narrativize experience and to transform it into findings which as social beings we may share and compare with those of others". Connelly and Clandinin (1990, p. 4) reinforce this idea by saying that "people are both living their stories in an ongoing experiential text and telling their stories in words as they reflect upon life and explain themselves to others". Narrative inquiry can enable teachers to strengthen their own situated reflective learning, practice, and professional identities in an authentic manner, scaffolding them to be fully responsive to their teaching reality. It opens up the possibility to develop a *standpoint* (a reflected meaning) from *within* the world in which they live as a way of empowering them to transform that world (Doecke, 2013). Furthermore, communicating/ sharing narratives of experience within

one's professional community has the potential for stirring the development of the community itself (Pereira & Doecke, 2016).

Our study relates to a specific type of teacher narrative writing that has been the focus of relatively few discussion in pre-service teacher education (cf. Lawson, Çakmak, Gündüz & Busher, 2015): the practicum report. In our context, it emerged with the practicum model briefly presented below, which resulted from recent forms undertaken within the Bologna Process.

THE STUDY – CONTEXT AND METHOD

The context

The study involved the analysis of the practicum report produced by Helena Costa (2013), a student teacher who was supervised by the first author in the second year of a Master in Pre-School and Primary School Education at the University of Minho.

Qualification for teaching in Portugal is obtained through Masters in Teaching created in 2007/08 within the reform of higher education programs resulting from the Bologna Process. The programs usually have 4 semesters (120 ECTS) and integrate courses in content knowledge, general education, and subject-specific didactics. About one third of the total credits is allocated to a school-based practicum, supervised by school cooperating teachers and faculty supervisors. The student teachers must produce a final practicum report that is discussed in a public viva and determines part of their final assessment.

The current legislation does not impose any practicum model. However, it indicates educational research as a cross-disciplinary training component and many institutions introduced research into the practicum. This was the case of our university, where the reform was seen as an opportunity to expand a reflective approach by exploring the research-teaching nexus and enhancing a praxeological epistemology (Carr, 2007; Schön, 1987), contrary to previous nation-wide dominant models that relied more on a positivistic theory-to-practice understanding of teacher preparation and appeared to promote conformity rather than transformation (Canário, 2002; Formosinho, 2009). The new practicum model is based on humanistic and democratic values, and student teachers are strongly encouraged to become reflective practitioners through classroom-based inquiry.

In field sites, they develop a supervised project that must be context-sensitive and learner-centred, within a view of professionalism based on reflectivity, self-direction, collaboration, creativity, and innovation.

Project design takes place in the beginning of the practicum and involves the analysis of the school setting, the formal syllabus, recommended textbooks, and local teaching plans, as well as observation of the cooperating teacher's classes and a diagnosis of students' learning needs. Project proposals integrate an action plan designed in accordance to pedagogical and research goals. The projects are implemented in one of the cooperating teacher's classes, supervised through lesson observation and supervision conferences, documented in reflective portfolios and other reflective texts, and later described and discussed in the report to be defended publicly. Guidelines are provided for project design and development, as well as for portfolio and report writing. Writing from experience in project portfolios and reports is intended to foster critical thinking and the theorisation of practice through the integration of experience, theory, and practical wisdom (Lunenberg & Korthagen, 2009). Local studies on the impact of the new model show that it faces some resistance and constraints, but it also enhances reflective practice towards learner-centred teaching (Flores, Vieira, Silva & Almeida, 2016).

Helena's report, entitled "*Initiating children in active processes of knowledge construction: Reading for learning in situated, collaborative and self-regulated learning contexts*" (Costa, 2013)¹, was defended in December 2013. It was very positively assessed by the examining board and we chose it for analysis as a potentially good example of the interconnection between inquiry and writing. The report describes and interprets an action research project on enhancing a constructivist approach to reading for learning, developed with a class of 25 primary school children in a period of 15 weeks, from October 2012 to January 2013². The student teacher focused on developing cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies to support the development of reading as a tool for building knowledge related to topics of the Social Studies curriculum. Children's reflection on learning, experimentation of learning strategies, cooperative learning and self-evaluation were part of her approach.

Her research objectives were stated in terms of evaluating: (a) children's initial knowledge about the topics and their conceptions about how knowledge is built

¹ Practicum reports are made available at the university *repositorium* (<http://repositorium.sdum.uminho.pt/>)

² The practicum lasts for 2 semesters, the first one in kindergarten settings and the second one in a primary school. Helena's project refers to the second semester.

and consolidated; (b) the impact of pedagogical action aimed at using reading as a learning tool for building knowledge; (c) the impact of the pedagogical intervention in children's metacognitive knowledge about the contents, the processes of building knowledge and the role of reading competences in those processes; and (d) the impact of publishing an informative text in a local paper on the children's motivation regarding the construction of learning. Reflection on practice was based on a set of procedures with pedagogical and research purposes: an initial oral questionnaire, reading tasks, learner self-assessment, on-going dialogue with children, analysis of recorded and transcribed lesson episodes, photographs taken during tasks, and a teaching journal (cf. Costa, 2013, p. 45).

Method

With the purpose of investigating the critical role of writing in inquiry-based teaching, we analysed Helena's report, whose body text is much longer than usual (52500 words, not counting introductory pages, references, and appendices)³. Its structure follows the general guidelines provided for report writing: introduction, context of project development, theoretical rationale, intervention plan, analytical description and evaluation of project implementation, overall appraisal of the intervention (conclusions, limitations, and recommendations), bibliographic references, and appendices (with examples of didactic and data collection instruments).

We carried out an extensive reading of the report to identify appraisal segments, that are segments which present the student teacher's voice – personal meanings, interpretations, evaluations, and judgements regarding the practicum experience. We therefore excluded descriptive theoretical and practical accounts, not because they are not important but because we wanted to look at discourse that evidenced *processes of knowledge construction through reflection and inquiry*. We identified 141 relevant discourse segments of variable length (a total of around 17000 words) and conducted an inductive content analysis by inferring a dimension of professional learning for each segment through answering the following question: what does it say about what the student teacher learnt? We used a descriptive table to register our analysis (see example in Figure 1)⁴, which

³ Guidelines for report writing indicate 20000-25000 words (body text).

⁴ In the table and throughout the following section, excerpts from the student teacher's report were translated into English. The references in the excerpts are not included in the final references.

allowed us to identify 17 dimensions of professional learning, and also their frequency of occurrence.

Figure 1. Example of inductive content analysis

<i>Dimensions of professional learning</i>	<i>Relevant discourse segments in report</i>	<i>Location in report: section, page</i>
Acknowledging the role of the project for understanding processes of learner autonomy development and for constructing the teacher's professional identity	In research terms, the project allowed me to build an understanding of the impact of initiating children to the construction of autonomy based on reading as an active tool for building knowledge in meaningful contexts. This investment in research had a very significant impact upon the construction of my professional identity.	Abstract, p.iv

FINDINGS

Identifying the dimensions of professional learning in practicum reports allowed us to get an overview of the learning outcomes of inquiry-based teaching and the role of writing in making sense of experience and communicating it to others. Four macro-dimensions of professional learning emerged in the analysis, referring to main components of project development. The distribution of the 141 discourse segments within those four macro-dimensions is as follows:

- (1) Conceiving the Action Research Project (f = 10/ 7.1%)
- (2) Understanding the Nature of Action Research (f = 17/12.1%)
- (3) Developing the Pedagogical Intervention (f = 49/ 34.7%)
- (4) Theorising and Evaluating the Pedagogical Intervention and the Project (f = 65/46.1%)

In each macro-dimension, we identified specific learning dimensions, in a total of 17.

In the sections below we will focus on the four macro-dimensions by identifying the corresponding sub-dimensions and illustrating some of them with segments from Helena's report.

Conceiving the action research project

Project design is an important stage in the practicum. This is made clear in Helena's report, where 4 learning dimensions refer to project design processes as indicated in Table 1⁵, highlighting her ability to present and justify a coherent project that articulates teaching and research purposes referring to contextual and theoretical knowledge, aiming at enhancing a socio-constructivist approach to reading for learning.

Table 1. Conceiving the action research project: project design

<i>Professional learning dimensions</i>	f
Articulating key components of the AR project (phases, learning tasks, educational and research purposes)	1
Articulating the identification of learner difficulties, the specialised literature and curriculum guidelines in the conceptualization of the teaching strategy to explore in the AR project	1
Being aware of the role of theory in project design and of the complexity of articulating theory and practice	1
Explicating the socio-constructivist orientation that informs the pedagogic options in the project	7
<i>Total</i>	<i>10</i>

Right from the start Helena assumes a constructivist view of learning that informs her choices and practice as an alternative to more traditional approaches:

(...) I felt it was imperative that I built situated learning contexts allowing for the experimentation of new ways of constructing knowledge, thus contributing to deconstruct the idea, possibly 'established' among the students, that access to knowledge resided 'statically' in the teacher or in the textbook. Therefore, according to what is advocated by curriculum development theory (Alonso, 1996), it was my purpose to adopt a pedagogical stance that favoured the emergence of curricular learning in practical, meaningful and authentic environments, as well as to promote the regulation of personal learning processes in those contexts, thus valuing the importance of the on-going development of cross-disci-

⁵ In the tables presented, AR stands for 'action research' and 'f' indicates the frequency of discourse segments in each learning dimension.

plinary learning to learn competences, from a socio-constructivist perspective.
(Excerpt from Segment 5, Report: pp. 4-5)

The following segment documents Helena's pedagogical reasoning behind her decisions about what to do and why, illustrating one of the crucial and most complex aspects of designing action research, indicated in Table 1: articulating the learner difficulties, theoretical input and curriculum guidelines in the conceptualization of pedagogical strategies:

The role of reading was an essential component of this project, since the act of reading continues to be "the basis of almost all the activities done in school" (Camps & Colomer, 2002, p. 70), that is, reading is a crucial linguistic competence for success in any learning area and for life and professional contexts beyond school. In my class, reading was highly valued as students showed great interest in it, both in the tasks indicated by the teacher and in homework reading assignments. Yet, the dynamics of the observed reading tasks in Social Studies also suggested the need to guide students towards understanding the texts and the value of reading them, since they revealed a lack of reading strategies that might enhance the process of knowledge construction. They showed little autonomy in meaning-making processes and tended to be 'concerned' with decoding words one by one, not being able to draw meaning from a text in an autonomous way. Even though this was expected in students who were 2nd grade beginners, I realised that it would be beneficial to get them involved in a kind of dynamics that fostered active reading strategies and autonomy so that meaning construction, that is, learning, might improve.

According to the syllabus for Portuguese in Basic Education (Reis et al., 2009), by the end of the 2nd grade students are expected to be able to "read short texts with some fluency and understand their essential meaning" (p. 22). This project sought to contribute to that goal, taking into account, as Camps and Colomer (2002, p. 90) put it, that "the central role of reading is not to learn to read but rather to read with a clear interest in knowing what the text says for some well defined purpose". In this sense, the project also aimed at helping clarify the idea that reading is a crucial tool for meaning-making (much beyond mastering the language code) and therefore indispensable for building learning and being able to function and become integrated in society. Actually, it was a matter of raising

awareness that reading is part of daily actions, that in those actions we learn by reading, and that texts allow access to a vast body of knowledge needed to do things.

The period of observation/ context analysis allowed me to detect that problem in the intervention group, which was perhaps due to their life context and possibly to a teaching space marked by a traditional pedagogy of knowledge construction. Situated reading during the intervention also functioned as a context that favoured the expansion and consolidation of vocabulary through the creation of an environment that facilitated the learning of new words related to the new concepts that integrate the natural dynamics involved in knowing the world and the language.

The project was based on a specific theme in the Social Studies area for 2nd grade students, which was part of the plan designed by the school supervisor. Our work focused on 'Professions', a theme that integrates the modules on "Ways of living and roles of some society members" within the unit "Towards the discovery of others and institutions". (Segment 6, Report: pp. 5-6)

Understanding the nature of action research

Explicit research knowledge is often scarce in the student teachers' reports as documented in previous studies undertaken in this context (see Flores *et al.*, 2016), even though reports document the ability to carry out pedagogical inquiry. In the case of Helena, knowledge about action research is quite explicit and informs her choices. Table 2 refers to 5 learning dimensions related to how pedagogical inquiry is understood, integrating reflections about action research as a situated, autonomy-oriented practice that involves particular types of procedures with implications on its meaning and transferability.

Before presenting the pedagogical-research strategies implemented, she reflects about the importance of data collection for the interpretation and evaluation of action, underlining the need to diversify sources/ methods and triangulate evidence and voices. She then presents the strategies used, showing a good understanding of the research-teaching nexus, as in the following segment, where she refers to one of the strategies used – the analysis of children's performance on reading tasks:

Table 2. Conceiving the action research project: knowledge about action research

<i>Professional learning dimensions</i>	f
Acknowledging the appropriateness of AR methodology in the analysis and transformation of educational action and its potential to articulate teacher and learner development	4
Understanding the articulation between teaching and research in the AR project	2
Acknowledging the importance of data collection for the interpretation and evaluation of action, and the need to diversify sources/ methods and triangulate evidence and voices	5
Acknowledging the situated nature of educational research	4
Acknowledging the value of peer collaboration in designing articulated, complementary projects (reading and writing) ⁶	2
<i>Total</i>	17

Task development involved a series of materials designed to support teaching and learning. Those materials, mostly worksheets, were aimed at guiding the reading tasks so as to facilitate the organisation and recording of information collected in them, providing me with data to check whether their goal had been attained: learning from reading the texts. (...) I can say that as we did the tasks I realised that the opportunity to collect and analyse data from children's products became a reference for how I should face the development of my practice. Those materials allowed me to observe the outcomes of the children's learning process, assuming that if needed I would have to "redirect the process towards the desired goals" (Alonso, 1996, p. 51). Therefore, it was through data collection that I had the opportunity to check the state of their real learning as compared to expected learning, and define strategies to overcome that distance and transform my practice. (Excerpt of Segment 17, Report: p. 46)

The way she introduces the chapter where she describes and analyses her intervention illustrates her view of pedagogical inquiry and writing as interrelated processes in a quest for knowledge:

⁶ Helena worked in collaboration with another student teacher who explored writing practices in the same context.

The present chapter aims at reporting the various moments of my pedagogical intervention project. Therefore, data collected will be analysed so as to build an on-going evaluation of the achieved results, with reference to the objectives initially defined. We know that “teachers who are reflective practitioners perform important roles in (...) the production of knowledge about teaching, due to a work of reflection in and on their own experience” (Zeichner, 1993, pp. 10-11). It is this search for knowledge that I intend to carry out as I build this chapter. (Segment 20, Report: p. 50)

Developing the pedagogical intervention

Table 3 refers to appraisals directly related to Helena’s teaching, accounting for 34.7% of the segments. The most important inference from her reflections on practice is her concern with children’s engagement in the process of knowledge construction, present in a total of 45 segments (3 referring to the introductory phase of the project and 42 to its development phase).

Table 3. Developing the pedagogical intervention

<i>Professional learning dimensions</i>	<i>f</i>
Valuing learner engagement in the introduction of the project in class (introductory phase of the AR project)	4
Valuing learner engagement in the process of knowledge construction (introductory and development phases of the AR project)	45
<i>Total</i>	<i>49</i>

Learner engagement in the construction of knowledge is a basic tenet of the constructivist approach she advocates and seeks to explore, and it is present in the type of learning activities she describes and interprets. The following segment illustrates her concern with recalling previous knowledge and promoting metacognitive awareness:

As pointed out by authors like Camps and Colomer (2002), it is crucial that at any point in learning the teacher knows, values and understands “her/his students’ ideas regarding what s/he intends to teach, in order to find out if they have enough conceptual support to incorporate new knowledge, and try to

understand their learning procedures (...)" (p. 63). Therefore, the initial stage of the project aimed at 'putting the students' knowledge on the move', giving them the opportunity to make their knowledge about each one of the selected professions explicit, and understand the relevance of the reading exercise for revising or confirming previous ideas. Not ignoring or undervaluing the existence of that knowledge was seen as an essential condition to reach a better learning outcome during the activity. Moreover, this methodological stance aims at helping students understand that they are the main agents in building their own knowledge, and that knowledge builds on what we already know. So, students should be supported to activate and become more aware of their initial knowledge so that later they might actively confront those collected ideas with what they had learnt as student-readers. (Segment 34, Report: pp. 63-64)

Helena developed many activities where the children experimented with and reflected upon reading strategies. She further promoted cooperative learning, trying to counteract children's overdependence on the teacher. In the segment that follows she presents an excerpt from her teaching journal to illustrate dilemmas regarding the promotion of autonomy and the teacher's role as a mediator of learning:

I must confess (...) I felt that this moment of [solving] the worksheet [in groups] did not go as I expected. These children have been exposed to reading practices where they are totally dependent on the teacher and participate passively by just following the teacher' or a colleague's oral reading and answering comprehension questions. When I planned this lesson, I knew there was a clear change in reading dynamics, but I thought that task appropriation would be quicker. I felt at the time that more reading mediation for each text was lacking since students had so many difficulties in identifying relevant information to fill in the given table. However, I am aware that, in a way, it was somehow complicated to do that because each group had two different texts, in a total of eight texts in class, and to explore them in detail would not be productive in the time available. On the other hand, I believe that it was important to put children in an active position towards the texts, having the opportunity to read and understand them with some degree of independence from the teacher, so as to build knowledge autonomously, of course with my mediation in supporting them with emerging difficulties, yet without influencing the construction of their own learning. (Segment 38, Report: pp. 70-71)

Theorising and evaluating the pedagogical intervention and the project

Action research allows teachers to build situated knowledge from experience and evaluate its impact upon teacher and learner development. Table 4 signals the importance of theorisation and evaluation in Helena's report, accounting for 46.1% of the reflective segments. Theorising action from collected data with possible future implications is the most important learning dimension here, identified in 49 segments (4 relating to the introductory phase of the project, 39 to its development phase, and 6 to the evaluation phase).

Table 4. Theorising and evaluating the pedagogical intervention and the project

<i>Professional learning dimensions</i>	<i>f</i>
Theorising action from collected data with possible future implications (introductory, development and evaluation phase of the AR project)	49
Acknowledging the role of the project for understanding processes of learner autonomy development and for constructing the teacher's professional identity	5
Acknowledging the project impact on future action and the role of report writing in the reconceptualization of conclusions, shortcomings and recommendations	3
Acknowledging shortcomings in the pedagogical-research process	3
Anticipating future actions based on lived experience	3
Valuing the practicum as a scaffolded and co-constructed path (supervisors, cooperating teachers, practicum colleague, children, friends, parents, siblings)	2
<i>Total</i>	<i>65</i>

Helena developed several activities that promoted metacognitive awareness in relation to specific learning tasks. In the segment that follows, she draws on classroom discourse (a transcription of a tape-recorded lesson sequence) as a basis for theorising her practice. This is one of the many instances where one can appreciate the use of classroom data for conceptualising teaching and learning, which is one of the cornerstones of a praxeological epistemology within inquiry-based teaching:

The dialogue [transcription of a class episode] shows the group's awareness regarding the difficulties they felt in the task; however, it also reveals some

appropriation of the meaning of learnt words and, perhaps more importantly, it allows us to see that the group was able to think about the strategies used in vocabulary learning. Therefore, I believe they had the opportunity to expose their discoveries and that the “possibility of talking about words encourages their use, develops understanding not just of words themselves but also of the text content, and promotes a confrontation of perspectives” (Yopp & Yopp, 2008, pp. 157-170). (...) The specific component of developing metacognitive strategies was evident in this task. I believe that asking children to think and talk about how they learnt new words was essential so that the meaning of strategies for searching word meanings did not get lost during the process. In other words, I provided a moment of reflection that raised awareness about what was done in the vocabulary learning context through exercising the self-regulation of learning and of the strategies used. This exercise also consolidated the importance of leading students to greater autonomy in future situations in which they are not familiar with the vocabulary of new reading texts. (Segment 43, Report: pp. 77-78)

An important quality feature of action research is the triangulation of data for the interpretation and reconstruction of practice. Helena's report presents many examples of how she did it and how that allowed her to understand shortcomings and evolutions in both teaching and learning. The following example refers to the use of a self-evaluation instrument in three different moments, corresponding to three action research cycles, and how she sees the progress observed in self-evaluation as an innovative practice:

Considering the analysis of all the questions of the self-evaluation tasks, it was evident that in an initial stage self-evaluation was rather limited in comparison to what had really happened and what had been done. However, throughout the tasks there was an evolution in how the students tackled self-evaluation and also in the way I implemented it. The fact that this was an innovative activity put me and the students in a position of insecurity. Their answers to many of the questions, mostly the first ones, showed some misunderstanding of the task and the collected information was distanced from reality. However, it is important to take into account that the first self-evaluation moment gave me experience on the basis of which I was able to rethink the following self-evaluation moments with a different dynamic that favoured students' task understanding. Overall, I think that the second moment showed some improvements in how

they faced the task and that happened even more in the third moment. I believe that providing more support to the students in self-evaluation, question after question, allowed them to better understand each question and its purpose. This evolution must be considered as an intrinsic feature of action research cycles themselves. Actually, in the second action research cycle I hoped to obtain data that showed evolution from the first cycle, but also structured data that allowed me to plan the path for the following cycle, which in fact happened. (Segment 101, Report: p. 139)

In an overall evaluation of the project, Helena feels that she learnt from both positive and less successful aspects of her experience, underlining her view of problems as a springboard for learning and the need to engage in continuous learner-centred inquiry. She focuses mainly on problems arising in class and directly related to pedagogical roles and task achievement, rather than on shortcomings regarding action research itself. She mostly feels that the teaching period to develop it (15 weeks) was limited, with implications on the scope of results and her own development. Nevertheless, based on project evaluation she concludes that the intervention had a crucial impact on her and on children, and she intends to go on exploring context-sensitive, learner-centred approaches, realising that her experience was only the beginning of a long journey and that lifelong learning is the main condition for becoming a good professional:

(...) I am leaving with the certainty of having made an effort to maximise children's learning in the available time, and that, as a consequence of it, I reinforced my own competence in the sense of having experienced "an opportunity to learn how to teach" (Alonso, 1998). Moreover, in my opinion it is desirable to have this feeling of ending this stage fearing that I do not know everything yet, that I still have a long way to go, which will make me grow as a teacher who is permanently concerned with enhancing meaningful learning, that is, developing quality pedagogical work. In a way, I feel that in professional action a teacher must assume the attitude of always wanting to learn more and invest in in-service development. Actually, as a final remark, I came to build the idea that one of the great qualities of being a good teacher is precisely that: being a teacher who does not accommodate her/himself to what s/he knows, developing an awareness that there is still a lot to learn and experiment, and that s/he can always reach further, through commitment, will, dedication and the pleasure of being a teacher, a good teacher. (Segment 139, Report: p. 161)

CONCLUSION

The study appears to support our assumption that action research and narrative report writing can be seen as interconnected processes of learning *from* and *about* the pedagogical-research game, whereby novice teachers build their identity as reflective practitioners and pro-active, learning-oriented educators. The analysis of Helena's report accounts for reflective writing as a specialized form of cognition (Bazerman, 2009; Pereira, 2014) that allows her to build insights and understandings from experience as she seeks to make sense of classroom events and data. One can sense an empowering process going on through writing as a metacognitive, heuristic activity (Eisner, 2006; van Manen, 1990) whereby she constructs a personal understanding of experience and inquiries into its educational relevance with reference to constructivist beliefs and aspirations. She shows a continuous effort to interpret her and her students' learning and act upon the practical knowledge resulting from inquiry, which appears to sustain the argument that reflective linguistic acts perform the (inner) development of teachers' practical knowledge (Pereira, 2014). It is worth noting that theoretical input is integrated in her interpretative discourse so as to either justify or illuminate her reasoning and action. Although she clearly subscribes to views of education conveyed in the specialised literature, she also develops her own 'living educational theory' (Leitch & Day, 2000) on the basis of evidence-based reflection on experience. This clearly illustrates Carr's (2006) idea of the role of public theories as inspirational drivers for change rather than prescriptions for it. It is also important to note that the development of her professional identity as a critical intellectual rather than an executor of pre-designed programs (Kincheloe, 2003) does not mean that she ignored the national curriculum, but rather that she interpreted and expanded it in articulation with an autonomy-oriented vision of education and the analysis of contexts of practice, namely the children's learning needs. In fact, Helena's concern with children's engagement in the active construction of knowledge is central in how she designs, conducts and evaluates her project.

Overall, this report is a good example of narrative reflective writing and perhaps we could even hypothesise that it presents features that should incorporate reflective action research reports as a professional genre. Actually, the learning dimensions identified in the study appear to represent a valuable basis for conceptualising this genre as a tool to support learning to think as a reflective practitioner. However, there are issues to be raised regarding this hypothesis which call for further investigation.

The first issue is that inquiry-based teaching can be based on diverse views of education and teacher development (see Leitch & Day, 2000; Vaughan & Burnaford, 2016), therefore one cannot find a single prototypical mode of using reflective language in action research reports. In the case of our practicum model, it is based on a humanistic and democratic rationale and student teachers are expected to use action research for transformative purposes by exploring and inquiring into learner-centred approaches. Nevertheless, student teachers and the faculty and school supervisors do not necessarily share a common understanding of the model. Actually, local studies (see Flores *et al.*, 2016) have shown that there have been tensions regarding the role of inquiry and the nature of reports, which emerge from different conceptions about what learning to teach means and what forms of writing are most appropriate in the academy, and also from the fact the innovative drive of action research projects faces constraints in schools, where inquiry-based teaching is an exception rather than the rule. *What is then the professional discourse community that might sustain and support the report as a professional genre as it emerges in our study?* Even though the relation between discourses and communities of practice is dynamic, some discourse realizations and the practices that give rise to them may be somehow ‘ahead’ of what communities are prepared to accept and validate (see Pereira & Doecke, 2016).

A second issue relates to the potential tension between the idea of genre and teacher empowerment. Should the report as a genre become a socialising tool for moulding situated (and socially expected) forms of cognition (Bazerman, 2009) within the teaching profession? Or should it rather be understood as a learning tool whereby teachers as researchers may interrogate the basis of the profession itself and imagine new realisations of it? It is important to note that pre-service teacher education as we see it, and as documented in this study, is not just a process of induction into the teaching profession *as it is*, but also, and perhaps most importantly, a process of confronting different views of the profession and constructing a professional identity that is open to criticism and change. Only then can we expect reflective inquiry and narrative writing to be empowering as teachers wrestle with the complexities of teaching and make informed decisions with a transformative purpose, constructing personal theories and practices that are conceptually and morally sound, locally valid and socially relevant (Vieira, 2009, 2010). Only then can we expect teachers to truly develop a standpoint from within the world in which they live as a way of empowering them to transform that world (Doecke, 2013), even though transformations are modest. Our student teachers’ projects, like Helena’s, are small-scale and primarily focused on

the classroom. Nevertheless, they entail an interrogation of pre-existing teaching cultures and seek to explore pedagogy that is more dialogical, inclusive and learning-oriented. This is certainly important as our students learn to teach. The question remains: *Can the reflective action research report be conceived as a genre and still allow for teacher empowerment and educational transformation?* This question relates to the first one above, since the empowering potential of the research report as a genre will also depend on the extent to which professional communities value and enhance teacher empowerment.

Even though our study is local and exploratory, we believe it is of potential relevance for understanding the role of professional literacy practices in enhancing and documenting inquiry-based professional development processes. We suggest that it could be replicated with a larger corpus and incorporate interviews to trainees and school/faculty supervisors so as to get a more holistic understanding of what facilitates and hampers inquiry-based teaching and writing. Furthermore, the issues we raise above call for investigation on the status and impact of inquiry-oriented teaching and writing in the professional communities within which teacher education programs operate.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work is funded by CIEd – Research Centre on Education, projects UID/CED/1661/2013 and UID/CED/1661/2016, Institute of Education, University of Minho, through national funds of FCT/MCTES-PT.

REFERENCES

- Austin, J. (1962). *How to Do Things with Words: The William James Lectures Delivered at Harvard University in 1955*. (ed. J. O. Urmson). Oxford: Clarendon.
- Bakhtin, M.M. (1986). *Speech Genres and Other Late Essays*. Austin, Texas: University of Texas Press.
- Bazerman, C. (2009). Genre and cognitive development: Beyond writing to learn. In C. Bazerman (ed.), *Genre in a Changing World* (pp. 279-294). Parlor Press and WAC Clearinghouse.

- Borges, M.C. & Aquino, O.F. (eds.) (2014). *A Formação Inicial de Professores: Uma Visão Internacional*. [Initial teacher training: An international view] Uberlândia: EDUFU.
- Britton, J.N. (1970). *Language and Learning*. London: Penguin Books.
- Bruffee, K.A. (1986). Social construction, language, and the authority of knowledge: A bibliographical essay. *College English*, 48(8), 773-790.
- Canário, R. (2002). A prática na formação de professores. [Professional practice in teacher education] In B.P. Campos (ed.), *Formação Profissional de Professores no Ensino Superior* [Professional teacher training in higher education] Porto: Porto Editora.
- Carr, W. (2006). Education without theory. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 54(2), 136-159.
- Carr, W. (2007). Educational research as practical science. *International Journal of Research & Method in Education*, 30(3), 271-286. Available at: <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/pdf/10.1080/17437270701614774>
- Clandinin, D.J. & Rosiek, J. (2007). Mapping a landscape for narrative inquiry. Borderland spaces and tensions. In D.J. Clandinin (Ed.), *Handbook of Narrative Inquiry Methodologies* (pp. 35-76). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Cochran-Smith, M. & Lytle, S.L. (1993). *Inside/Outside Teacher Research and Knowledge*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Cochran-Smith, M. & Fries, K. (2008). Research on teacher education: Changing times, changing paradigms. In M. Cochran-Smith, S. Feiman-Nemser, D.J. McIntyre, K.E. Demers (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education* (Third Edition; pp. 1050-1093). New York: Routledge.
- Connelly, F.M. & Clandinin, D.J. (1990). Stories of experience and narrative inquiry. *Educational Researcher*, 19(5), 2-14.
- Costa, H.S.G. (2013). *Iniciação das crianças em processos ativos de construção de conhecimento: ler para aprender em contextos de aprendizagem situada, colaborativa e autorregulada* [Initiating children in active processes of knowledge construction: Reading for learning in situated, collaborative and self-regulated learning contexts]. Practicum Report. Braga: Universidade do Minho. Available at: <https://repositorium.sdum.uminho.pt/bitstream/1822/28732/1/Helena%20Sofia%20Gon%C3%A7alves%20Costa.pdf>.
- Darling-Hammond, L. & Lieberman, A. (eds.) (2012). *Teacher Education the World. Changing Policies and Practices*. London: Routledge.
- Darling, L.F. (2001). Portfolio as practice: The narratives of emerging teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 19, 107-121.

- Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and Education*. New York: MacMillan Publishing Inc.
- Dewey, J. (1938). *Experience and Education*. New York: Collier Books.
- Doecke, B. (2013). Storytelling and professional learning. *English in Australia*, 48(2), 11-21.
- Eisner, E. (1987). *Procesos cognitivos y curriculum. Una base para decidir lo que hay que enseñar*. Barcelona: Martínez Roca, S.A. [O. Version Cognition and curriculum. A basis for deciding what to teach. Nueva York: Longman Inc., 1982].
- Eisner, E. (2006). *Reimagining Schools. The Selected Works of Elliot W. Eisner*. London: Routledge.
- Flores, M.A. (ed.) (2014). *Formação e desenvolvimento profissional de professores. Contributos internacionais*. [Training and professional development of teachers. International contributions]. Coimbra: Edições Almedina.
- Flores, M.A. & Al-Barwani, T. (eds.) (2016). *Redefining Teacher Education for the Post-2015 Era: Global Challenges and Best Practice*. New York: Nova Publisher.
- Flores, M.A., Vieira, F., Silva, J.L., Almeida, J. (2016). Integrating research into the practicum: Inquiring into inquiry-based professional development in post-Bologna Initial Teacher Education in Portugal. In M.A. Flores, T. Al-Barwani (eds.), *Redefining Teacher Education for the post-2015 Era: Global Challenges and Best Practice* (pp. 109-124). New York: Nova Publisher.
- Formosinho, J. (2009). A academização da formação de professores [The academization of teacher training]. In J. Formosinho (ed.), *Formação de professores. Aprendizagem profissional e Acção Docente* [Teacher training. Professional learning and teacher action] (pp. 73-92). Porto: Porto Editora.
- Gee, J.P. (1992). *The Social Mind: Language, Ideology, and Social Practice*. New York: Bergin & Garvey.
- Halliday, M.A.K. & Martin, J. (1993). *Writing Science. Literacy and Discursive power*. London: The Falmer Press.
- Hatton, N. & Smith, D. (1995). Reflection in teacher education: Towards definition and implementation. *Teaching & Teacher Education*, 11(1), 33-49.
- Heath, S.B. (1983). *Ways with Words: Language, Life, and Work in Communities and Classrooms*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Jiménez Raya, M., Lamb, T., Vieira, F. (2007). *Pedagogy for Autonomy in Language Education in Europe. Towards a Framework for Learner and Teacher Development*. Dublin: Authentik.
- Kincheloe, J. (2003). *Teachers as Researchers. Qualitative Inquiry as a Path to Empowerment*. London & New York: Routledge Falmer.

- Lawson, T., Çakmak, M., Gündüz, M., Busher, H. (2015). Research on teaching practicum – A systematic review. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 38(3), 392-407.
- Leitch, R. & Day, C. (2000). Action research and reflective practice: Towards a holistic view. *Educational Action Research*, 8(1), 179-193.
- Lunenberg, M. & Korthagen, F. (2009). Experience, theory, and practical wisdom in teaching and teacher education. *Teachers and Teaching*, 15(2), 225-240. DOI:10.1080/13540600902875316.
- Marcos, J.J., Miguel, E.S., Tillema, H. (2009). Teacher reflection on action: What is said (in research) and what is done (in teaching). *Reflective Practice*, 10(2), 191-204.
- Pereira, I.S.P. (2014). Writing and the situated construction of teachers' cognition: Portfolios as complex performative spaces. *Language and Education*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2014.908904>.
- Pereira, I.S.P. & Doecke, B. (2016). Storytelling for ordinary, practical purposes (Walter Benjamin's 'The Storyteller'). *Pedagogy, Culture and Education* 24(4), 537-549. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14681366.2016.1210200>.
- Reyes, G. (1995). *El Abecé de la Pragmática* [The ABC of pragmatics]. Madrid: Arco Libros.
- Rosen, H. (1987). *Stories and Meanings*. Sheffield: National Association for the Teaching of English.
- Schön, D. (1987). *Educating the Reflective Practitioner*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Van Manen, M. (1989). Pedagogical Text as Method: Phenomenological Research as Writing. *Saybrook Review*, 7(2), 23-45.
- Van Manen, M. (1990). *Researching Lived Experience. Human Science for an Action Sensitive Pedagogy*. SUNY Series, The New York Press.
- Van Manen, M. (2006). Writing qualitatively, or the demands of writing. *Qualitative Health Research*, 16(5), 713-722.
- Vaughan, M., & Burnaford, G. (2016). Action Research in Graduate Teacher Education: A Review of the Literature 2000–2015. *Educational Action Research*, 24(2), 280–299. DOI: 10.1080/09650792.2015.1062408.
- Vieira, F. (2009). Para uma pedagogia da experiência na formação pós-graduada de professores [Towards a pedagogy of experience in post-graduate teacher education]. *Indagatio Didactica*, 1(1), 32-75.
- Vieira, F. (2010). Towards teacher and learner autonomy: Exploring a pedagogy of experience in teacher education. *Revista Canaria de Estudios Ingleses*, 61, 13-28.

- Vieira, F. (ed.) (2014). *Quandoos Professores Investigam a Pedagogiaem Busca de uma EducaçãomaisDemocrática* [When teachers research pedagogy in a quest for a more democratic education]. Mangualde: Pedago.
- Vieira, F. (2015). Entre a reprodução e a transformação – a investigaçãocomo práticapedagógicanaformaçãode professores [Between reproduction and transformation – research as pedagogic practice in teacher education]. In M.A. Flores, M.A. Moreira L.R. Oliveira (eds.), *Desafios Curriculares e Pedagógicosna Formação de Professores* (pp. 107-118). Ramada: Pedago.
- Vieira, F. & Moreira, M.A. (2008). Reflective eachereducationowards earner utonomy: Moving onwards a ulture of ossibility. In M.J. Raya & T. Lamb (eds.), *Pedagogy for Autonomy in Language Education – Theory, Practice and Teacher Education* (pp. 266–282). Dublin: Authentik.
- Waite, D. (1995). *Rethinking Instructional Supervision – Notes on its Language and Culture*. London: The Falmer Press.
- Wertsch, J.V. (1991). *Voices of the Mind: A Sociocultural Approach to Mediated Action*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University.
- Wertsch, J.V. (1998). *Mind as Action*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Wilson, S.M., Floden, R.E. & Ferrini-Mundy, J. (2001). *Teacher Preparation Research: Current Knowledge, Gaps, and Recommendations*. Washington: University of Washington, 2001. Available at: <http://depts.washington.edu/ctpmail/about/study/14.shtml>.
- Zeichner, K. (2010). Repensando as conexões entre a formaçãona universidade e as experiências de campo naformaçãode emfaculdades e universidades [Rethinking the connections between training at the university and field experiences in teacher education at colleges and universities]. *Educação – Revista do Centro de Educação UFES*, 5 (3), 479-503.
- Zeichner, K. & Conklin, H.G. (2008). Teacher education programs as sites for teacher preparation. In M. Cochran-Smith, S. Feiman-Nemser, D.J. McIntyre & K.E. Demers (eds.), *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education* (Third Edition; pp. 269-289). New York: Routledge.

*Mary Young
Duncan Reavey*

University of Chichester, United Kingdom

8

Embedding Global Citizenship in Initial Teacher Education

Abstract

This chapter is describing ways in which one university approaches the teaching of international perspectives, or Global Citizenship, as we describe it, for new primary school teachers for schools in England. Our strategy combines a number of elements: 1) finding a shared vision, 2) eliciting starting points and tackling problems, 3) direct teaching about Global Citizenship including showing students its relevance to schools and 4) building student confidence through incremental learning throughout their three-year course. We conclude that this is an effective model judging by the evaluations and actions of the students on completion of their course.

Key words: global citizenship, justice, sustainability.

INTRODUCTION

There are many descriptive terms for work on international perspectives including Global Learning, Development Education, and the Global Dimension. At the Institute of Education, University of Chichester we call it Global Citizenship. In this chapter, we intend to focus on some of the principles that underpin Global Citizenship, some of the problems that can arise in teaching about this and some of the ways we embed Global Citizenship into Initial Teacher Education. By explaining the steps, we take, we hope to encourage others to reflect more deeply on what teacher education is for and to consider how the distinctive focus of Global Citizenship might be of interest and value to their own students.

First, here is the brief definition of Global Citizenship that we use at our University. Global Citizenship is an *ideal* and an *aspiration*. We see it as an active and participatory approach to living fairly, peacefully, and sustainably in our diverse and interconnected world. This involves the development of particular knowledge, skills and attitudes or dispositions such as an understanding of justice, rights, diversity and sustainability. It also include scuriosity about the world, critical thinking, empathy, and cooperation.

These ideals are evident in the thinking of our students when we ask them why they want to be teachers. They commonly say they want to help make the world a better place and they want children to get on with each other and to understand what is going on in the world. These aims can be fulfilled through all curriculum subject areas but we find that they are best promoted through a whole school ethos.

We look at Global Citizenship through five main themes:

- social justice and equity;
- identity and diversity;
- globalization and interdependence;
- sustainability
- peace and conflict.

Our definitions are rooted in Oxfam Education's (2015) work on Global Citizenship

UNIVERSITY CONTEXT

Global Citizenship is evident within our Institute of Education in a number of ways – through our ethos, through particular subjects and via a number of specifically focused taught sessions and courses. The most visible course is a compulsory module for all Year 2 students on Global Citizenship. Other specific teaching includes a module on Inclusion and Year 1 and Year 3 workshops on Equality and Diversity. Some students also choose to specialize by taking additional modules in Citizenship – a non-statutory subject in primary schools-that has connections with Global Citizenship.

At the University of Chichester, these modules are part of a degree called a BA (Hons) degree in Primary Teaching with Specialisms (University of Chichester, 2017). It is a three year, full-time undergraduate degree that enables graduates to teach in government primary schools for children aged 4-11 years. Typically, students begin their university studies aged 18 after completing secondary school. At university, they take a diverse and challenging range of courses and have full-time placements in schools for 6 weeks in their first year of university, 8 weeks in their second year and 10 weeks in their final year. A lot of learning happens on campus, guided by university lecturers. Lots of different learning happens in school, guided by school-based mentors who are usually experienced class teachers. During the final placement, students work as student-teachers taking on the majority of a class teacher's job for 85% of each week. After their degree, graduates apply to schools for their first teaching job in which they have the full responsibilities (and full salary) of a class teacher, though in their first year as "Newly Qualified Teachers" the school continues to provide a little additional training where required. The degree is successful. Nearly all our graduates succeed in gaining employment and very many have long, productive, and creative careers as teachers and head teachers. There is rigorous government inspection of teacher education in England; at the last inspection, University of Chichester's provision of teacher education was graded by Ofsted as "Outstanding" (the highest grade) on all criteria.

Just as the university is inspected, schools are also inspected. Inspections are wide ranging but always include careful analysis of the progress of children. Measures of success are explored in performance data of children and in the success of each teacher in their classroom. Inspectors want to observe teachers teaching "Outstanding" lessons, which are lessons in which children are making exceptional progress (Beere, 2012). Head teachers, parents, children – and of course the

teachers themselves – want the same in each and every lesson. And so, the university has an enormous responsibility – to deliver new teachers who are already “Outstanding” in every aspect of their job and in every part of the curriculum.

One of the ways our newly qualified teachers are distinct, and we would argue, outstanding, from those trained in other universities is in our provision for global, equality and diversity issues. Citizenship has been a specialism for primary teaching courses here for a ten year, and in 2017 we will see the first students who have done the Global Citizenship module become newly qualified teachers. Compared with many other Teacher Education courses, our students spend a lot of time discussing and becoming confident at handling current, contested and difficult issues in the classroom. However, that is not to say it is easy for them even after their university course!

Table 1. The most common problems raised by students concerning teaching Global Citizenship and some immediate responses to them

Problem/barrier	How we address it
Lack of personal confidence how to introduce or deal with global and contested issues.	Incremental learning over the three year course gaining understanding, techniques and practicing responses.
Concerns about the notion of Global Citizenship being ‘too political’, indoctrination, or too difficult for children to understand.	Discussion of the difference between party politics and general current events. Discussion of the need for critical thinking rather than indoctrination and that many children already know about difficult things in the world.
Ideas that it is not relevant to children or primary education.	We discuss the relevance of Global Citizenship to the primary curriculum and the places where it will help them to deliver the school curriculum and uphold UK Law and UN Conventions.
Ideas that Global Citizenship is not relevant in geographical areas with little ethnic or religious diversity.	Discussion about the breadth of topics associated with Global Citizenship – one being diversity and identity – and that it is of great importance to address prejudice in areas with little ethnic and religious diversity.
Concerns that there is not enough time or space in the curriculum to fit it in.	We show how Global Citizenship can be incorporated into all areas of the curriculum, into school initiatives and into Whole School Ethos.
An unwillingness to acknowledge that change in oneself might be necessary in order to lead by example: too personally challenging.	This is the most difficult one! We aim to encourage the students to look at the impact of their choices, the power they have as consumers, voters, citizens, to examine their own prejudices and take brave decisions.

PROBLEMS IN TEACHING, AND BARRIERS TO PROMOTING GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP

There are a number of problems often raised by students with regard to teaching Global Citizenship. Table 1 summarises the most common concerns and some immediate responses to them. We hope to show in more detail in this chapter how we address each of these and how we encourage the students to incorporate Global Citizenship into their teaching.

HOW DO WE EMBED GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP?

We are mindful of the potential problems that student teachers might have with aspects of Global Citizenship, so we follow steps in order to embed teaching and learning about it on the undergraduate course.

Step 1: Share a vision

We realize that we have a very significant responsibility to our students in a world of new opportunities and changing expectations of the teaching profession and of society. Our graduates need to be ready for this challenge. To help us focus on this, we found it very useful to agree our vision of a University of Chichester teacher (Table 2). This vision evolved during wide discussion among university staff, teachers and head teachers, past and current students. The technique used was from the work of James Nottingham on his ‘Challenging Learning’ program. The aims and approaches of our Primary Teaching degree flow from this vision. Our way of exploring Global Citizenship at university enables students to become Global Citizens with all the attributes in our vision. You will see that there is a lot more to our vision than delivering “Outstanding” teachers. We aspire to deliver outstanding people.

Table 2. Our vision for a University of Chichester graduate in Primary Education and Teaching (2014)

On completion of their University of Chichester degree, every new primary teacher will be **Skilled and knowledgeable**

- Critical, analytical, independent thinkers who are articulate, literate, numerate, digitally literate, and able to communicate well to build positive relationships.
- Committed to CPD (Continuing Professional Development), ensuring that teaching knowledge and skills remain current.

A global citizen

- Empathic, globally aware, courageous and committed to social justice.
- Agents for change, creating inclusive environments that challenge injustice, promote sustainability, and engender global responsibility.

A good role model

- Able to reflect upon their experiences in university and school and act upon what they have learned.
- Demonstrating the highest standards of professionalism, hard work, honesty, and integrity.
- Able to inspire and motivate children by their love of learning.

Aspirational, inspirational, and motivational

- Keen to inspire and motivate future generations, driven by a passion for learning and creativity.
 - Emotionally intelligent, resilient, open to challenge and prepared to take calculated risks.
-

Of course, this is only the first stage: the ongoing work is to collaborate with all who produce the vision statement to decide what it all means in practice, how best to realise it and ensure that all colleagues are moving in the same direction. For this reason – as well as to ensure peer confidence in each area – professional development sessions for staff have been held, and this work is still in progress.

Step 2: Find out where to start: what perceptions of Global Citizenship do children and students have?

In order to build a targeted education programme of knowledge, skills and attitudes for Global Citizenship, it is important to know where the learners are starting from. One effective way we have found of doing this is to use the resource, *How do we know it's working? A Toolkit for Measuring Attitudinal Change* (Allum, Lowe & Robinson, 2008). This resource, outlines a series of activities that can be adapted for use with any age group to give an overview of participants' current thinking.

Informal research using *How do we know it's working? A Toolkit for Measuring Attitudinal Change* (Lowe & Robinson, 2008) was carried out by one of the authors with Mike Yule and Dan Sanders from 2009 to 2015 in numerous Primary Schools and some First Schools in the south of England, in order to support schools in developing work on Global Citizenship. In each school, sessions to raise the staff awareness were followed by an audit of the children's ideas using activities covering various aspects of Global Citizenship such as diversity, ways of tackling environmental problems and ideas about global issues. Follow up work was then done with staff on the basis of the results. The results in children's perceptions were surprisingly similar in the different schools and although there were many open-minded, inclusive and empathic responses and a clear desire for children to help others and save the planet, there were also some highly problematic findings. When using similar activities to discover what views and ideas the university students had, we found that some of same misconceptions existed. The most common and persistent misunderstandings are listed in Table 3.

Table 3. Most common misunderstandings about global issues among children in Early Years and Primary schools in the South of England

-
- A widespread inability to make connections with people who look different from oneself.
 - Poor critical thinking skills.
 - Lack of confidence about language use to describe diversity.
 - Stereotypical and unrealistic views regarding people with disabilities, lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) people, gender roles, people from poor socio-economic backgrounds, Black and Minority Ethnic people and about Islam.
 - Misconceptions about the diversity of British society. For example, a common belief that people who are not white cannot be British.
 - Over-reliance on recycling and not dropping litter as the best ways to protect the planet. Lack of ideas beyond these as to how to make a difference to a broader or global problem, for example Climate Change.
 - Routine negative stereotyping of the African continent and the people who live/come from there. Specific connection of poverty/charity with the whole continent of Africa
-

We felt that our university course should enable students to realize the problems with such ideas and to be able to combat them, so in 2016 it was agreed that we should introduce compulsory module on Global Citizenship at the University for all year 2 teacher education students. The module comprises 150 hours of learning (36 hours of lectures, seminars and in the forest; 114 hours of directed study). In order to plan effective teaching of Global Citizenship, we use the *How*

do we know it's working? (2008) activities with the students and show them the children's answers, discussing the problematic findings with them, how they might arise and how they might be tackled.

Step 3: Teach directly about Global Citizenship

Outline of University of Chichester Global Citizenship module

Our aims for the Global Citizenship module are to enable our students to:

- Understand the relevance and importance of Global Citizenship in school and society.
- Critically engage with some of the key global issues of our times.
- Connect themselves and their immediate locality to people and environments globally.
- Promote empathy, equality, and intercultural understanding.
- Understand the nature of misinformation and stereotypes, and have the confidence, knowledge, skills, and attitudes to challenge such ideas.
- Promote Global Citizenship in their own classroom practice.
- Become advocates for democracy, rights, justice, peace, and sustainability.

The module has direct links with the National Curriculum guidance on Citizenship and Personal, Health, Social and Emotional education, and is also cross-curricular in nature and concerned with issues of Whole School Ethos.

The teaching and learning methods used are based on active participation and discussion in response to a range of interesting and contemporary stimuli. We have guest speakers for some inputs, for example, two local women who speak about their experiences as British Muslims, people who have worked with the United Nations in peacekeeping roles and campaigners on Fair trade and ethical fashion who explain the global clothing industry. For the final plenary session, we play *The Trading Game* which is a simulation game of how global trade works.

Each session is organised slightly differently, but all have a mixture of interactive plenary input and practical workshops. The plenary focusses on one of the five areas of Global Citizenship in a global context and the workshops illustrate what can be done to address the issue in the school or classroom. The five areas of Global Citizenship we focus on are: social justice and equity, diversity and identity, globalisation and interdependence, environmental sustainability and peace and conflict.

The module runs over 6 days, with additional work for the students to do between sessions. Evaluations of the course show that some students find some of the issues covered personally challenging, complex and thought provoking, others highlighted that it had had a significant influence on them in terms of raising their global awareness and in enabling them to have a better understanding their personal choices and own impact on the planet.

Format of sessions:

Session 1.

Introduction to the Module

Content: Lecture and workshop activities on:

What is Global Citizenship? Why is it important? Beginning to look at what it looks like.

What do pupils think about Global issues?

What is the political and global context in which we are living?

Intended Learning Objectives:

- To develop intercultural understanding
- To enable the setting of learning in its broadest global context
- To promote critical thinking
- To engage with the moral, ethical and educational rationale for Global Citizenship

Session 2.

What does Global Citizenship look like in the primary school?

Content: Lecture and workshop activities on:

What might Global Citizenship look like in school?

Whole school, cross-curricular and subject specific initiatives to promote Global Citizenship.

Good classroom games to promote Global Citizenship

Intended Learning Objectives:

- To develop intercultural understanding
- To promote critical thinking
- To consider what Global Citizenship might look like in the classroom.

Session 3.

Social Justice and Equity

Content: Lecture and workshop activities on:

What kinds of social injustice and inequality exist in the world?

Some causes of global injustice and inequality

Some responses to global injustice and inequality.

Intended Learning Objectives:

- To discuss the existence of local and global injustice and inequality and look at some reasons for it.
- To critically consider some responses to injustice and inequality.
- To discuss the place of children, adults, and educators in addressing local and global injustice and inequality.

Session 4.

Identity and Diversity

Content: Lecture and workshop activities on:

How we can enable children in largely mono-ethnic areas to get to grips with life in multi-ethnic Britain and with the complexity of identity and diversity.

Different stories of Islamic identity in Britain:

Problematic issues of ‘culture’ and diversity, including FGM (female genital mutilation).

Using in offensive language to describe diversity.

Raising contested issues in the classroom

Intended Learning Objectives:

- To appreciate that people are all different and that identity is complex.
- To discuss moral relativism in terms of diversity
- To ensure that students can prepare pupils for life in multi-ethnic Britain
- To discuss stereotyping and to explore some strategies for tackling it.
- To be critical about language that is used to describe diversity.

Sessions 5. and 6.

Environmental Sustainability

Content: First day – In the local forest, using team building activities, stories and outdoor education to build respect and love of the outdoors.

Second day – On campus discussing the pressing environmental issues of our times, and working through ways of tackling them such as Futures Education, designing sustainable schools, and looking at the Transition Town movement.

Intended Learning Objectives:

- To understand that the damaging effects of Climate Change are not equally distributed or contained within national boundaries.
- To consider the importance of nurturing in children a love of nature and an idea of stewardship of the planet, and to have discussed some ways of doing that.

- To realise that natural resources are finite.
- To understand that we all have the power to behave in sustainable ways.
- To discuss the place of Futures thinking in education.

Session 7.

Peace and Conflict

Content: Lecture and workshop activities on:
Global conflict and examples of conflict resolution.

The Arms Trade

Restorative justice in schools

Teaching about and with Refugees

Intended Learning Objectives:

- To acknowledge ways in which power can be abused.
- To become familiar with some ways in which conflict can be resolved peacefully in schools and in the world.
- To learn about refugees and asylum seekers and learn how to support them in the classroom.

Session 8.

Globalisation and Interdependence

Content: Lecture and workshop activities on:
Setting globalisation and interdependence in a global context

Specific focus on analysing the clothes trade

Simulation game about world trade

Intended Learning Objectives:

- To be more aware of the impact of our purchasing choices
- To appreciate how current global trade favours some groups and is inherently unfair.
- To explore the promotion of consumerism.

The assessment for the module is for groups of student teachers to devise and make a game for a primary school year group of their choice which introduces a global issue, connects it with a core National Curriculum subject area and/or commonly taught topic and shows how it could be used with pupils. We encourage the students to use re-cycled materials for their game and part of the assessment is a YouTube clip of their group playing the game. A rationale for Global Citizenship is also required. This assessment has been popular with the students.

Step 4: Enable the students to see the relevance of Global Citizenship in the classroom

We have a strong rationale for teaching Global Citizenship to student teachers (Table 4).

Table 4. A rationale for teaching Global Citizenship

-
- a) The principles of Global Citizenship are part of our school curriculum, inspection framework and Teaching Standards. They are also upheld in UK and International Law.
 - b) The world is interconnected and interdependent. What we do has an impact on others locally and globally whether we acknowledge this or not.
 - c) Humankind faces many 'bigger than self' problems that transcend national borders, such as climate change, conflict, and poverty, and which require collaborative solutions from people around the world.
 - d) Issues of Global Citizenship such as justice, rights and the environment are of interest to young people and are relevant to all of our lives. To be optimistic about the future children must know they have agency.
 - e) Knowledge, values, and skills of Global Citizenship such as empathy, cooperation and global awareness are necessary and increasingly valued skills worldwide. Critical thinking is crucial if we are to separate fact from opinion.
 - f) There are benefits to primary pupils' knowledge, skills, and values from learning about global issues.
 - g) Many people have stereotyped and misinformed views about different people and places.
 - h) It is very easy to incorporate Global Citizenship into your teaching and teachers and children can be advocates for change.
-

We find it necessary to be explicit about the rationale for Global Citizenship with the students because for many, it is the first time they have thought in any depth about some of the issues. It is worthwhile exploring more fully some of the reasons we list in Box 4.

- a) **The principles of Global Citizenship are part of our school curriculum, inspection framework and Teaching Standards, and are upheld in UK and International Law.**

In the school curriculum for England and Wales (DfE, 2014, p. 1) Global Citizenship is implicit:

Every state-funded school must offer a curriculum which is balanced and broadly based and which: promotes the spiritual, moral, cultural, mental and

physical development of pupils at the school and of society and prepares pupils at the school for the opportunities, responsibilities and experiences of later life.

In addition, our inspection body, Ofsted (2014, p. 18) state that:

...it is vitally important that schools offer a broad and balanced curriculum that contributes to the social, moral, spiritual, and cultural development of pupils. It is essential to prepare pupils for life in Britain today.

In order to gain their teaching qualification, student teachers must show how they can fulfil all the Teachers' Standards (2011). Those with a connection to Global Citizenship are:

Under Standard 1:

- demonstrate consistently the positive attitudes, values and behaviour which are expected of pupils.

Under Standard 5:

- have a clear understanding of the needs of all pupils, including those with special educational needs; those of high ability; those with English as an additional language; those with disabilities; and be able to use and evaluate distinctive teaching approaches to engage and support them.
- have a secure understanding of how a range of factors can inhibit pupils' ability to learn, and how best to overcome these

Part 2:

- showing tolerance of and respect for the rights of others.
- not undermining fundamental British values, including democracy, the rule of law, individual liberty and mutual respect, and tolerance of those with different faiths and beliefs

With regard to UK Law, the Equalities Act (2010) charges public authorities including Universities and schools to take steps not just to eliminate unlawful discrimination and harassment, but also to actively promote equality. We have by law to:

Eliminate discrimination, harassment and victimisation, advance equality of opportunity and foster good relations" between people.

Internationally, the UN Declaration of Human Rights 1948, and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989, have resonance with Global Citi-

zanship with the focus on rights, equality, and justice. The course investigates the inalienable rights of Children and we discuss how to introduce this idea into the classroom through UNICEF's Rights and Responsibilities Schools work.

Other historical UN declarations have made clear the centrality of issues of Global Citizenship, for example, the UNESCO Declaration and Integrated Framework of Action on Education for Peace, Human Rights and Democracy, 1995, states:

We, the Ministers of Education (of the world) strive resolutely to pay special attention to improving curricula, the content of textbooks, and other education materials including new technologies with a view to educating caring and responsible citizens committed to peace, human rights, democracy and sustainable development, open to other cultures, able to appreciate the value of freedom, respectful of human dignity and differences, and able to prevent conflicts or resolve them by non-violent means.

b) The world is interconnected and interdependent. What we do has an impact on others locally and globally whether we acknowledge this or not.

In the (albeit disputed) words of Chief Seattle's (1854) speech

This we know – the Earth does not belong to man – man belongs to the Earth. This we know. All things are connected like the blood which unites one family. All things are connected. Whatever befalls the Earth – befalls the sons of the Earth. Man did not weave the web of life – he is merely a strand in it. Whatever he does to the web, he does to himself.

c) Humankind faces many 'bigger than self' problems that transcend national borders, such as climate change, conflict, and poverty, and which require collaborative solutions from people around the world.

Global issues affect our lives for good and ill: many children are aware of issues like climate change, terrorism, and poverty, but they do not always know that they have agency to do anything about them and this can cause anxiety. Many children are pessimistic about world issues such as climate change, pollution, world poverty and terrorism, but according to Alexander *et al* (2010, p. 56) where schools address these issues children have a more positive and optimistic outlook.

- d) **Issues of Global Citizenship such as justice, rights and the environment are of interest to young people and are relevant to all of our lives. To be optimistic about the future children must know they have agency.**

Global learning has an impact: those who have experienced global learning are more keen to learn about the world's problems as well as to believe that they can affect change (MORI, 2008).

In addition, NUS (2016, p. 3) Research into students' experiences of teaching and learning on sustainable development showed that:

Three-quarters of Further Education respondents say they would be willing to sacrifice £1000 from a starting salary to work for a company with a positive environmental and social record (76%, n = 783) and over half say they would sacrifice £3000 from their starting salary to work in a company with these credentials (59%, n = 608).

- e) **Knowledge, values, and skills of Global Citizenship such as empathy, cooperation and global awareness are necessary and increasingly valued skills worldwide. Critical thinking is crucial if we are to tell fact from opinion.**

In a world where truth and opinion seem to be becoming increasingly wilfully blurred by some with political agendas, it is important that children can tell the difference. An Ofcom Report (2014) on media use and attitudes found that in the UK among 8-11 year olds, 66% of boys and 56% of girls believe that all or most information they see on websites is true. This should worry us all in our 'post truth' world.

- f) **There are benefits to primary pupils' knowledge, skills, and values from learning about global issues.**

Research from Hunt (2012) in McGough and Hunt (2012, p. 3) shows the benefits to primary pupils' knowledge, skills, and values from learning about global issues:

... global learning is seen to causally impact on the development of pupils' values, knowledge, and skills, developing their competences as twenty-first century citizens. ... For many schools, global learning has impacted on pupils' attainment, it has developed pupils' awareness and interactions with diversity and has developed pupils' thinking and communication skill.

- g) **Many people have stereotyped and misinformed views about different people and places,**

This is referred to at length under Step 2.

- h) **It is very easy to incorporate Global Citizenship into your teaching and teachers and children can be advocates for change.**

Global Citizenship can be incorporated into all subjects at Early Years and Primary level. For example, science can cover sustainability and biodiversity; English can look at persuasive writing, stories from different places, diverse writers and books that raise real, global issues. Art can include a diversity of artists (women, men, artists with disabilities and different sexual orientations); art from all countries, periods of history and styles and look at how Islamic, Chinese, Egyptian, or Nigerian art has influenced European art and vice versa. In math data handling, can deal with real life and sustainable issues and global counting systems can show historical and geographical aspects of the subject.

In terms of empowering children to become advocates for change, there are many activities that can be done in school. These can include: buying Fairtrade school uniforms or snacks, writing to Members of Parliament or local newspapers about an issue that matters locally, planting an organic school garden, and keeping chickens, learning to be media literate, or learning how to welcome the elderly, homeless people, or refugees into the community.

Step 5: Build student confidence through incremental learning

To equip students with the confidence to challenge injustice and discrimination and to promote Global Citizenship, the students revisit the principles of equality, diversity, inclusion, and Global Citizenship each year (Table 5). This is incremental learning in addition to the Global Citizenship module occurs as below.

Table 5. Sessions and courses to build student teacher confidence in Global Citizenship through incremental learning

Year 1: **Equality and Diversity**.3 hours.

Includes: Definitions of equalities; rationale for incorporating equalities into teaching; looking at stereotypes and how to challenge them; critical thinking; an outline of the key approaches in Box 6.

Year 2: **Professional Studies** 3.36 hours.

Includes: Race, inclusion, and White Privilege; tackling Homophobia and Transphobia; understanding pupils with Special Educational Needs and mental health issues; working with Gypsy Roma Traveller pupils; provision for pupils with English as an Additional Language.

Year 3: **Equality and Diversity**.3 hours.

Includes: How to connect Equality and Diversity with the Teaching Standards and all subject areas; how to teach about Global disasters and tragedies; how to combat direct discrimination.

In addition to these whole cohort sessions, the students who choose Citizenship as their specialism have three additional taught courses that are all relevant to Global Citizenship.

These are modules on Citizenship in the classroom, Empathy, Democracy & Rights and Race & Ethnicity. Year 3 student teachers also write a 7000-word Independent Project on an area of their choice. Examples of titles chosen in the past are:

- How confident are teachers to promote Global Citizenship in the classroom?
- What perceptions do pupils have of gender stereotyping?
- How far does a teacher's ethnicity influence how and what they teach?

Another aspect of incremental learning is that we enable the students to challenge their own misconceptions (as well as any that the children may have) very directly and in as many aspects of education as possible by referring consistently from Year 1 to Year 3 to a list of key approaches (Table 6).

Table 6. Key approaches to promoting Global Citizenship and addressing children's problematic opinions (as outlined in Table 2)

-
- Make links and connections to promote empathy
 - Think global, act local
 - Think critically
 - Recognise and challenge stereotypes and discrimination
 - Act sustainably
 - Appreciate diversity
 - Learn more and lead by example.
-

We illustrate different aspects of how the students can apply these key approaches in different workshops and courses. For example,

Make links and connections to promote empathy

Aim: To illustrate some ways that students can address the problem of an inability of pupils to make connections with people who look different from themselves.

We use many image-based activities to encourage students to make connections between themselves and someone in a photo; to find something of interest to them in a range of images; to imagine a conversation with someone in a photo.

These activities can build empathy and promote a sense of common humanity and that people around the globe and with different skin colours have similar ideas and aspirations as themselves.

We also use part of Martin Luther King's Christmas Eve sermon on Peace, (1967) about the interrelation of life.

It really boils down to this: that all life is interrelated. We are all caught in an inescapable network of mutuality, tied into a single garment of destiny. Whatever affects one directly, affects all indirectly. We are made to live together because of the interrelated structure of reality. Did you ever stop to think that you can't leave for your job in the morning without being dependent on most of the world? You get up in the morning and go to the bathroom and reach over for the sponge, and that's handed to you by a Pacific islander. You reach for a bar of soap, and that's given to you at the hands of a Frenchman. And then you go into the kitchen to drink your coffee for the morning, and that's poured into your cup by a South American. And maybe you want tea: that's poured into your cup by a Chinese. Or maybe you're desirous of having cocoa for breakfast, and that's poured into your cup by a West African. And then you reach over for your toast, and that's given to you at the hands of an English-speaking farmer, not to mention the baker. And before you finish eating breakfast in the morning, you've depended on more than half of the world. This is the way our universe is structured, this is its interrelated quality. We aren't going to have peace on earth until we recognize this basic fact of the interrelated structure of all reality.

Think global, act local

Aim: To show some ways of making connections with people and places that are different from ourselves as well as suggesting how to make a difference to global problems.

We encourage the students to link local and global issues as often as possible, for example, to look at a local area where a wood is being cut down and link it to a project on deforestation in the Amazon rainforest. The idea is to see that problems can be complex, but can have solutions, and that it is good to see what can be done in local communities before suggesting ideas for those in Brazil about how they can protect their environment.

Think critically

Aim: To address poor critical thinking skills.

There are many critical creative and collaborative thinking skills that can be developed on a daily basis where children are encouraged to give plausible reasons for their opinions. Stimuli used can be images, everyday objects or current affairs. An example of an interesting discussion recently had during a workshop on Equality and Diversity at the University is: To be an action hero, do you have to be a white man?

In addition, Philosophy for Children (P4C) is a useful technique here and a way of practicing critical and creative thinking skills routinely.

Recognise and challenge stereotypes and discrimination

Aim: To address stereotypical and unrealistic views regarding people with disabilities, LGBT people, gender roles, people from poor socio-economic backgrounds, Black and Minority Ethnic people and about Islam. To challenge routine negative stereotyping of the African continent (in particular) and the people who live or come from there. To question the specific connection of poverty and charity with the whole continent of Africa.

Many activities we do with the students routinely show people in situations that challenge stereotyped ideas. We do a lot of work on role models from diverse backgrounds, ethnicities, abilities, religions, genders, and sexual orientation. We actively practice how to respond to discriminatory remarks and situations.

We encourage students to show an all-round view of all places they teach about and to be careful about making distinctions between continents and countries, for instance that Africa is made up of 53 countries, all diverse, each with rich and poor areas.

We practice critically examining the sorts of charitable activities schools can be involved with to ensure they are not having a negative impact on pupils' perceptions.

Act sustainably

Aim: To tackle over-reliance on recycling and not dropping litter as the best ways to protect the planet and encourage more ideas beyond these as to how to make a difference to broader global problems, for example Climate Change.

We discuss how students can support and go beyond recycling and not dropping litter to address broader environmental concerns. Recycling is a good and fairly easy approach to take in primary schools, but unless children are taught to look at more significant causes of greenhouse gas emissions and discuss what we can each do to cut down our carbon footprint, we are giving them partial information and doing a disservice to the planet.

Appreciate diversity

Aim: To tackle the lack of confidence many children have about language use to describe diversity and also the misconceptions often held about the diversity of British society. For example, a common belief that people who are not white cannot be British.

We suggest representing the diversity in society routinely, for example a display of British writers or sportspeople which would include as much diversity as possible. We would also directly talk about why diversity is not always apparent, for instance in the all-white Oscar nominations of 2015 and 2016.

Appropriate words to use to describe people so as not to unwittingly offend them are discussed and practised as well as ways of challenging words that are inappropriate.

Step 6: Model it; learn more; lead by example

Possibly the most challenging aspect of Global Citizenship for educators is the requirement to model, articulate and teach the sort of values and behaviour they want to promote. This is crucial if one is to be an effective educator in this field. That is not to say it is easy, as given the breadth of knowledge, skills and values Global Citizenship covers, it is a big challenge for anyone. However, as action is central to Global Citizenship, it is important to try to practice what we preach, and this is where Global Citizenship departs from being something that just happens in school and turns into a life choice. Consequently, it can become very challenging for the educator and something for each of us to wrestle with ourselves!

So, how we relate to others, what we choose to buy and from where, how sustainably we choose to live, whether we see and tackle prejudice, and how far we enable every student to flourish, as we would expect the student teachers to enable each child in their class to flourish are all aspects of walking the talk. None

of us is perfect, but at least by having the ideal of being a Global Citizen to aspire to, perhaps we are in a good position to set off along this path.

CONCLUSIONS

To return to the discussion at the start about our vision of wanting “outstanding” teachers and outstanding graduates, we would argue that what we need are outstanding teacher educators who understand what teaching and learning about Global Citizenship really means. As Peterson and Warwick (2015, p. 23) remind us:

...the reality of growing up in an increasingly globalized world requires a new kind of education in and for the twenty-first century. Students in their present and future capacity as global citizens require a dimension to their education that draws out their global consciousness and global competence.

REFERENCES

- Alexander, R. (ed.) (2010). *Children, their World, their Education. Final Report and Recommendations of the Cambridge Primary Review*. Routledge.
- Allum, L., Lowe, B. & Robinson, L. (2008). *How do we know it's working? A Toolkit for Measuring Attitudinal Change* RISC.
- Beere, J. (2012). *The perfect (Ofsted) lesson (Revised & updated)*. Carmarthen: Crown House.
- Chief Seattle (1854). speech. Available at: <http://www.synaptic.bc.ca/ejournal/seattle.htm#.WLV6pk1vh9A>; Accessed: 22.02.2017.
- Christian Aid, *The Trading Game*. Available at: http://learn.christianaid.org.uk/YouthLeaderResources/trading_game.aspx; Accessed: 22.02.2017.
- Department for Education (DfE) (2014). *National Curriculum for England and Wales*. Available at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/national-curriculum-in-england-framework-for-key-stages-1-to-4/the-national-curriculum-in-england-framework-for-key-stages-1-to-4>; Accessed 17.01.2017.
- Department for Education (DfE) (2011). *Teachers' Standards*. Available at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/teachers-standards>; Accessed: 17.01.2017.
- Equality and Human Rights Commission: *Equalities Act* (2010). Available at: <https://www.equalityhumanrights.com/en/equality-act-2010/what-equality-act>; Accessed: 04.01.2017.

- Hunt, F. (2012). *Global learning in primary schools in England: Practices and Impacts*. DERC Research Paper no 9. London: Institute of Education.
- McGough, H. & Hunt, F. (2012). *The Global Dimension: A Practical Handbook for Teacher Educators*. Development Education Research Centre. Available at: www.ioe.ac.uk/derc/; Accessed: 24.02.2017.
- Ipsos MORI on behalf of the DEA (2008). *Young People's Experiences of Global Learning*. DEA. Available at: <https://globaldimension.org.uk/resource/young-peoples-experiences-of-global-learning/>; Accessed: 22.02.2017.
- King, Martin Luther (1967). Available at: http://www.ecoflourish.com/Primers/education/Christmas_Sermon.html; Accessed: 24.02.2017.
- Nottingham, J. *Challenging Learning Programme*. Available at: <http://www.challenginglearning.com/>; Accessed: 04.01.2017.
- National Union of Students (2016). Sustainability Skills. Research into students' experiences of teaching and learning on Sustainable Development. NUS. Available at: https://s3-eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/nusdigital/document/documents/28740/22840265895e4d786f0a73345e2eb684/NUS_Sustainability_Skills_2016.pdf; Accessed: 27.02.2017.
- Ofsted (2014). *The report of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Education, Children's Services and Skills 2013/14*. Crown Copyright. Available at: https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/384707/Ofsted_Annual_Report_201314_Schools.pdf; Accessed: 04.01.2017.
- Oxfam Education (2015). *Education for Global Citizenship: A guide for schools*. Available at: http://www.oxfam.org.uk//media/Files/Education/Global%20Citizenship/Global_Citizenship_Schools_WEB.ashx?la=en; Accessed: 22.02.2017.
- Ofcom (2014) *Children and Parents: Media Use and Attitudes Report. Research-Document*. Crown Copyright. Available at: http://stakeholders.ofcom.org.uk/binaries/research/media-literacy/media-use-attitudes-14/Childrens_2014_Report.pdf; Accessed: 05.02.2017.
- Peterson, A. and Warwick, P. (2015). *Global Learning and Education*. Oxon: Routledge Philosophy for Children (P4C). Available at: <http://sapere.org.uk/>; Accessed: 22.02.2017.
- UNESCO (1995) Declaration and Integrated Framework of Action on Education for Peace, Human Rights and Democracy. Available at: http://www.unesco.org/education/tlsf/mods/theme_b/mod07.html; Accessed: 20.02.2017.
- UNICEF Rights and Responsibilities Schools (RRS) work. Available at: <https://www.unicef.org.uk/rights-respecting-schools/>; Accessed: 20.02.2017.

9

Research into the Dynamics of University Students' Social Representations of Early Childhood Education – Change and Stability

Abstract

This article presents university students' social representations of early school education. The research is of a longitudinal nature and was carried out with the same groups of students for over a period of three years (at the beginning and the end of their university studies). Social representations may be manifested in utterances, but also appear in actions and interactions in everyday life, as well as in the way we organise our lives, institutions, and rituals. The analyses and interpretations included in this article answer the problem question: *How do the dynamics of social representations of early childhood education students change over the course of their studies at university?* The tasks that were given to the groups of students (designing a game for playing school, including a writing description and role-playing) demonstrated their social representations of early school education. They required the joint creation of ideas, coordination of solutions and justification of one's position. The study of the pedagogical discourse of teacher candidates made it possible to recognise what may be described as a predictable approach to child education and thereby establish the concepts of teacher and pupil, as well as the concepts of learning and teaching, adopted by the students. The theory of social representations and the concept of cognitive polyphasia were applied to determine how different kinds of knowledge coexist in a group of early childhood education students.

Key words: social representations, cognitive polyphasia, concepts of early childhood education.

INTRODUCTION

Changes which occur in the global economy, politics, and social life alter what is required from education. As a result, it becomes necessary to focus instruction on the development of every subject and encourage lifelong learning, so graduates can have a positive impact on the environment and actively participate and cooperate with others for their own sake, for the sake of their country, and for the sake of the international community. The current (Polish) school does not fulfil these expectations. We still struggle with departure “from the transmission education model to the transformative education model, from shaping a child to supporting its autonomy, engagement, responsibility and common learning” (Bałachowicz, 2015, p. 60).

The two education models (the transmission model and the transformative model) result from different paradigms (behaviourism and social constructionism) and, therefore, different ways of perceiving a child's education, a child's activity, different types of learners, and a teacher's activities, all of which result from a different understanding of the function of the school. Jerzy Trzebiński (2002, p. 21-22) describes these patterns as cognitive and action models with reference to the specific ways in which we perceive, name, think, remember, understand, and act. The model is not a physical copy of reality but constitutes its distinctive idealisation: it represents reality's most typical and fundamental elements and properties. The model is a crucial category of constructivism and constitutes a mental representation of a socially established reality.

The description of the models indicates a close semantic relation with the category of social representations (hereinafter: SR), which is the goal of this project (described in detail in Section 2.). The fact that representations are shared means that they are shaped in the process of social communication (similarly to patterns) and constitute a frame within which mutual relations are produced and determined. The shared representations determine the scope of interpretation patterns available and simultaneously constitute the reality in which we live. They ensure the exchange of thoughts, reciprocal understanding, gathering of information, and distribution of negotiated beliefs, concepts, ideas, and perceptions. Our SR of education is established by our own experiences as pupils. We obtain our SR from the media, during conversations with others, and while preparing to become a teacher. We are confronted with them while reading professional literature, observing professional teachers, participating instudent teaching assign-

ments, etc. Having analysed the content and structure of SR characterised by the patterns of the models mentioned above, the 'nature' of (early school) education may be discovered.

Teachers and their concepts of a child's mind and its relationship with culture, beliefs concerning learning styles, a child's development, etc., play a determinative role in activating certain patterns of education.

According to the constructivist model of the professional development of teachers formulated by American researcher William J. Pankratius and popularised in Poland by Stanisław Dylak (2000), teacher candidates undergo significant changes corresponding with the socio-cultural expectations of the role of the teacher described during their studies. According to Pankratius, "meanings and interpretations concerning teaching are reconstructed but not substituted with the acquisition of new information in the course of studies. Students actively construct and restructure the knowledge in order to give meaning to a world that can be experienced. New terms are integrated into the structure of pre-existing knowledge possessed by the students" (after Dylak, 2000, p. 188). It can therefore be assumed that the profession of an academic teacher, as this model presupposes, strongly influences the social representations of (early childhood) education and other pedagogical categories. Three (out of four) stages of Pankratius' model occur during the period of academic education.

Focusing on the importance of preparing future early childhood teachers for the Polish educational system, this paper represents an inquiry into students' SR of early childhood education over a four-year period. It demonstrates that understanding the process of what happens to the students' SR of education during pedagogical studies is essential.

THE JUSTIFICATION OF THE AIM AND THE SUBJECT OF RESEARCH

In Polish pedagogical literature, especially within the dynamic approach, the concern has been raised about the deficiency of inquiries into teachers' preparation. Henryka Kwiatkowska (2008, p. 122) notices the lack of research explaining the relations between a teacher's personal knowledge, his/her personal theories, and scientific theories. There is no research concerning the circumstances in which both types of knowledge complement each other, or, alternatively, in which circumstances personal theories contradict scientific knowledge. The social

representations theory (hereinafter: SRT) is the ideal theoretical base for such research. Serge Moscovici, in a study titled *La psychoanalyse, son image et son public*, published in 1961, suggests that SRT should be used to analyse the way in which theory/scientific knowledge penetrates society and changes its language, common sense thinking, and behaviour.

New phenomena/objects (here these are usually students' new experiences and increased pedagogical knowledge) bring new meaning and old phenomena/objects undergo transformation as their previous meaning is modified. The appearance of new knowledge – according to the creator of SRT – is the perfect time to research the process by which the social forms of pedagogical knowledge are constructed. This is because it is at this point that the majority of communicative mechanisms appear, which serve to reconstruct the *common-sense construct* and *taken-for-granted knowledge* (Moscovici, 2001). SRT is, therefore, a good theoretical base for researching students' SR. This is particularly important since, as Dorota Klus-Stańska (2015) emphasizes, problematic aspects connected with the knowledge of students are rarely the subject of scientific research. Most often, the research conducted focuses on their opinions, which should be treated as second-hand information. It is equally difficult to carry out research among academic teachers, e.g., through applying the method of observation. “This blank spot on the map of pedagogical, empirical data is constructed on the basis of oppressively generated, specific permissions. The lack of research creates a barrier of paradoxical unawareness: the researchers of educational processes (like academic teachers on pedagogical courses) do not have access to the practices they produce. This means that they do not know what educational processes they activate themselves. In any case, they have no information concerning the scientific perception of knowledge” (Klus-Stańska, 2015, p. 113).

After establishing the foundations, this paper intends to show the results of teaching early school education students at the university (or lack thereof) in their SR. The real changes (based not on students' opinions but on the image conveyed in their representations) are conceptualised as traits of memory with an internal structure interacting with inseparable normative and evaluative dimensions. Therefore, SR are understood as acquired social knowledge consisting of beliefs, ideas, and stereotypes. They direct our choices and allow the rapid processing of social information.

Empirical studies that belong to this field of research are scarce (see Hejnicka-Bezwińska, 1995; Leppert, 1996; Mizerek, 1999; Kędzierska, 2005, 2007; Červinková, 2013). Instead, it is the professionally active teachers who are the subject

of pedeutological research (e.g. Dróźka, 1993, 2002, 2004, 2008; Nalaskowski, 1998; Polak, 1999; Dylak, 2000, 2013; Klus-Stańska, 2000; Męczkowska, 2002; Kwiatkowska, 2005; Bałachowicz, 2009; Kędzierska, 2008, 2012, 2013).

Quoting the Combs' Approach to Teacher Education, Henryka Kwiatkowska emphasizes the importance of familiarisation with a teacher candidate's personal knowledge as a starting point or reference point for actions connected with academic professional education. "It is vital for the colleges educating teachers to be interested in these resources of (personal – Z.Z.'s note) knowledge because they play an important role in making decisions about the effectiveness of pedagogical-psychological education" (Kwiatkowska, 2008, pp. 124-125).

More research inquiries should focus on the sources of student's previously developed personal knowledge in the context of social construction (representations are forms of social knowledge, see: Augoustinos *et al.*, 2014, p. 97). The requirement of being familiarized with knowledge before beginning one's education refers primarily to students in theoretical and empirical fields. In reference to the constructivist model of education, it is necessary to identify a students' informal and personal knowledge in order to be able to "rationally educate, 'transferring' the student to higher levels of cognitive and skill competences and to the higher levels of understanding of phenomena and events occurring in the classroom" (Kwiatkowska, 2008, pp. 122-123). Surprisingly, this is rarely discussed (see: Sajdak, 2013). The issue of SR of (early) education in Poland (to the author's best knowledge), has not yet been reviewed in the context of Polish pedagogy. This is particularly the case when it comes to longitudinal, empirical research.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Social representations as a tool of description and understanding of reality

SR is the basic theoretical and methodological category in the SRT. According to Moscovici (1984, 1988, 2000), it concerns a specific type of knowledge which may be called lay-knowledge, common sense knowledge, everyday, stereotypical, or even naive knowledge. The specificity of this kind of knowledge consists in not only in the social nature of its creation, but also in its importance for explaining the processes of primary socialisation or habits originating from the social group.

For Moscovici (1973, p. xvii), “[a] social representation is a system of values, ideas and practices with a twofold function: first, to establish an order which will enable individuals to orientate themselves in their material and social world and to master it; and secondly to enable communication to take place among members of a community by providing them with a code for social exchange and a code for naming and classifying unambiguously the various aspects of their world and their group history”.

Contrarily to scientific knowledge, SR is knowledge generated by common sense¹. It enables a person to understand “the new” – ideas, cultures, objects, and phenomena—through association with anything that is previously known. When something is named and classified into categories and becomes connected with other objects of the same kind, every member of the community can speak about it. Representations allow people to understand reality by virtue of the fact that every society has their own systems of representations (of different objects and phenomena, e.g. politics, school, aggression among pupils)². Members of the same group can develop representations which not only connect them to each other, but also increase their understanding as well as direct and orient their behaviour. They help them to comprehend the world and facilitate living in it. SR refers to the construction of a collective reality by a certain social group for which the constructed representations are a tool for “direction”, guiding the way the social situation is registered and signalling appropriate behaviour. Since representations are created in the course of dialogue and interaction, they refer to collective behaviour and social communication and legitimise common sense knowledge.

Researchers who are conceptually interested in the SRT have created a graphic definition of an SR: “A social representation is a collective phenomenon pertaining to a community which is co-constructed by individuals in their daily talk and action. [...] Instead of imagining representations *within* minds it is better to imagine them *across* minds, resembling a canopy being woven by people’s concerted talk and actions (cf. Sugiman, 1997). In summary, *a social representation is the ensemble of thoughts and feelings being expressed in verbal and overt behaviour of actors which constitutes an object for a social group*” (Wagner *et al.*, 1999, p. 96).

¹ Moscovici compares SR to the trunk from which common-sense theories, “cognitive systems with a logic and language of their own [...]” grow. Social representations “do not represent simply “opinions about”, “images of” or “attitudes towards” but “theories” or “branches of knowledge” in their own right, for the discovery and organisation of reality” (Moscovici, 1973, p. xii).

² Readers interested in the issue of social representations will find a lot of information and examples in the journal *Papers on Social Representations*, which is available on-line.

The results of research into SR show a clear connection between social representations and the behaviour of people within a certain SR (e.g. Wagner, 2015)³. Therefore, identifying a person or group's SR may be scientifically inspiring.

The concept of cognitive polyphasia⁴

Social representations should not be viewed as logical and coherent patterns of thought. On the contrary, they may be full of fragmented thoughts and contradictory ideas. Within the concept *cognitive polyfasia*, social representation refers to the fact that everyday thinking about something may be characterized by different, sometimes opposite, forms of thinking (Höijer, 2011, p. 5). Polyphasia describes the state in which various types of knowledge, characterising different rationalities, function simultaneously in the mind of a unit or in one's social awareness. This is indirectly connected with the necessity for flexibility in communication and plurality in public discourse. According to Jovchelovitch (2007), SR constitute fields of knowledge which are continuously moving; as a result, the researcher may focus on how various representations collide and compete in the social sphere, how they coexist in the same context, in the same social group, or even in the same unit.

Research on cognitive polyphasia has led to the conclusion that SR comprise a dynamic structure which is in continuous movement, even if a group is coherent. Knowledge is not simply given to us but is constructed in social processes and is constantly developing (Berger, Luckmann, 1991). Different types of representations and explanations coexist alongside each other. By this virtue, units and societies can understand complexity and react to various situations in social life (Jovchelovitch, 2012). Therefore, the process of a teacher's education should, theoretically, enable him/her to change his/her representations into ones that reflect the current social needs.

This is important considering that research by Priego-Hernandez has demonstrated that encounters between knowledge systems⁵ take place on the

³ What causes problems for researchers studying SR include the establishment of the basis on which some pieces of information are remembered and others are forgotten and identifying the reason for such selection.

⁴ Several important concepts have been developed within the last decades within the framework of approaches characteristic of SRT. The concept of cognitive polyphasia is one of them.

⁵ Sandra Jovchelovitch defines a knowledge encounter as "the meeting between two or more representational systems, expressing different subjective, intersubjective and objective worlds" (2007, p. 129).

macro level as group encounters (e.g. encounters of teachers as professionals and students preparing to become teachers) and on the micro level between individuals (e.g. encounters of teachers or students having access to different knowledge resources) and within the frame of one's own "I"⁶. A state of cognitive polyphasia can be generated by different dimensions of representational fields, e.g., contents, processes, and emotions. This means that people may give various meanings to objects (have different points of view), and think differently (understand something in a different way and feel something in a different way) (Jovchelovitch, Priego-Hernandez, 2015, p. 172). This serves as advice for SR researchers and provides information about which dimensions can be identified during data analysis in terms of oppositions and contradictions (of contents, processes, and emotions). Until the dynamics of contradiction within the frames of SR studied are precisely described and developed, no campaigns or activities intended to change the representations will be effective.

The approach to researching students' SR considered the results of studies on cognitive polyphasia, and enabled the analysis of research outcomes for the coexistence of various kinds of knowledge in the group studied.

1. "*Selective prevalence*. Distinct systems of knowledge are held together and retrieved separately at different points in time/space; here we can use the metaphor of multiple drawers, where different knowledges are kept and drawn upon to respond to different contexts and fulfil different functions. [...]. Selection involves recognition of multiple knowledges, which are used alternatively depending on situations and which aspects of phenomena are being considered. In this type of cognitive polyphasia, different knowledge systems live side by side retaining their content, logic, and emotional load" (Jovchelovitch, Priego-Hernandez, 2015, p. 174). In the context of this paper, such a situation may occur when student teachers function according to the traditional, transmission model and when they function according to the transformative model; that is, interaction between the behavioural and the constructivist model would take place interchangeably in the school context depending on the situation.
2. "*Hybridization*. Multiple systems of knowledge are drawn upon simultaneously and interpenetrate generate single mixed representational field. [...] Representations are not just combined or applied simultaneously, but amalgamate and create a new form of knowing. In such encounters there

⁶ Author's own examples on the basis of Jovchelovitch, Priego-Hernandez (2015, p. 171).

is recognition of other knowledges and interaction that enables the integration of contradiction.

3. *Displacement*. One system of knowledge is favoured over other parallel systems leading to the displacement of alternative representations from a representational field⁷. [...] In displacement there is lack of mutual recognition and exclusion of the knowledge of the other. [...] Displacement in the knowledge encounters is associated with a communication situation in which interlocutors seek to 'extend' their knowledge to other interlocutors"⁸ (Jovchelovitch, Priego-Hernandez, 2015, pp. 174, 177). This displacement may occur in the direction of the "old" or the "new" knowledge.

METHODOLOGY PROCEDURE

Stages of research

This article presents the results of research which took place in two stages of a longitudinal, real panel study.

Stage 1 – October 2013, at the beginning of the second year of B.A. studies with a specialisation in early-school and preschool pedagogy; students had not yet attended any subjects in their specialisation. The results present the students' SR of early childhood education constructed on the basis of their previous experiences of being a pupil.

Stage 2 – December 2016, the last year of M.A. studies. The SR of the pedagogical subjects studied had been developed within strong cultural and historical contexts, primarily connected with the previous school experiences of the participants (originating from the period when they were pupils themselves), as well as with the representations existing in the public sphere (media, books, magazines, conversations with other people, etc.). The research at the end of the MA program makes it possible to observe the changes which occur in the students' SR of early childhood education.

⁷ To one dominant system of knowledge, sometimes forcibly imposed.

⁸ E.g., teachers instruct students, giving them their knowledge, while at the same time imposing their vision of reality and its representations.

The analyses and interpretations in this article constitute an answer to the problem question: *How do the dynamics of social representations of early childhood education student's change over the course of their studies at university?*

The material discussed in this paper focuses on responses from the same group of five female students. It represents an excerpt from a broader study, which was conducted with all pedagogy students at our university during those years (full test). Each of the groups involved in the study comprised 4-5 students who had chosen to work together. This is advantageous for SR research, which benefits from the existence of good relationships between group members for engagement in the task and quality dialogue. The group of five female students discussed in this article was selected because the participants showed the greatest change in their SR of early education.

The methodology of research

On account of the fact that SR researchers claim that “all methods and their methodological background are tools causing the empirical research to be fruitful for the understanding of the social representations” (Flick *et al.*, 2015, p. 79), the research methods applied in this study constitute a selection of methods connected with the specificity of the subjects studied as well as theoretical findings concerning the representations themselves. None of the methods commonly used in SR studies were designed exclusively for SR research, yet they have all be widely used in the social sciences and humanities. The following were taken into consideration when deciding on research methods.

1. The theoretical foundation is that the change/modification in SR is a result of gaining new knowledge. This project analyses the change of representation as a result of personal experience and common-sense and social knowledge, which are influenced by the scientific, pedagogical knowledge students acquire during their studies and student teaching assignments.
2. Methodological findings concerning the ways of researching SR as well as what people know, how they think, how they act, and how they understand the phenomena around them were taken into consideration (e.g. Wagner, 2015). SR may be manifested in utterances, but they also appear in actions and interactions in everyday life, as well as in the ways we organise our lives, our institutions, rituals, etc. (e.g. Moscovici, 1984). Therefore,

researchers usually use an ethnographic approach which includes informal discussion and observation of a social group.

Analytical materials applied in SR research are of a discursive nature. This makes it possible to reach basic (sometimes hypothetical) shared representations when participants develop and question their representations in a conversation or discussion. In other words, it occurs during the co-construction of meaning in a group, when members of the group try to negotiate a common position and representations for a given object. This suggests the need to research the pedagogical discourse of teacher candidates.

The tasks, which were given to the groups of students, required joint development of ideas, agreement on solutions, and justification of one's own position. These qualities make it possible to understand what may be described as a prospective model of child education. Hence, it becomes possible to determine the students' concepts of teacher and pupil as well as the concepts of teaching and learning.

Designing a game for playing school – written description (agreed on in groups)

After Jerome S. Burner (1996), this project assumes that the concept of teacher and the substance of a teacher's actions are strongly connected with everything that is the subject of the profession: the choice to become a teacher presumes a concept of the pupil which may be later acquired as the right way of thinking about the process of learning.

Analysis of data of the tasks which aimed at revealing the SR of early childhood education (pupil, teacher, learning, teaching, etc.) consisted in designing a game of playing school. Table 1 presents a chosen example. It should be remembered that the research was a real panel study: we observed the solution presented by the same groups of five students. The group which showed the greatest change was chosen to be described in this article.

Stage I, 2013

The image of school which was agreed on by the (chosen) student group is associated with the traditionally fixed relation of pupils being the subordinates of the teacher in which the teacher's attributes of power (desk, class register, red pen), as well as the teacher's effort to maintain discipline through disciplining tools, are

Table 1. Revealing the SR of earlyschool education in designing games for playing school

<p style="text-align: center;">Stage I (2013) Traditional social representations</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Stage II (2016) Observed changes: selective prevalence (<u>behaviourism</u>, <i>constructivism</i>) with elements of hybridization</p>
<p>In the game of playing school, the child plays the role of a teacher while a parent becomes a pupil.</p> <p>The game should be played in the child's room. The room should be decorated so that it resembles a classroom (we can use cardboard boxes to create desks etc.).</p> <p>Various objects should be used during the game: <i>stamps, a class register created by the child, a red pen, a blackboard made by a parent, stationery, toys used by the child instead of educational materials.</i></p> <p><i>The child (teacher) sits at the desk and a parent as a pupil sits in front of them. The game consists in the child conducting a lesson, grading the "pupil" and a spontaneous conversation.</i></p> <p><i>The requirements for a successful game is silence, safety, and subjection of a parent as a pupil to the teacher. The child may also give his/her parent a test (the red pen is for grading).</i></p> <p><i>The parent-teacher may prepare different worksheets and tasks beforehand in order to help the child learn the material that was discussed at school. The assessment of inappropriate behaviour should also be remembered. While playing school, motion games should also be included in which other members of the family may participate.</i></p>	<p>Child as a teacher teaches dolls and teddy bears, who are his/her pupils. Parent and child decorate the room together <u>to make it look like a classroom: a desk, a small blackboard, etc.</u></p> <p><i>During the game, the child allows the parents and siblings to change roles. During the lesson, the child gives the pupils positive or negative grades. For good behaviour, he/she gives the pupil's stamps made from a potato or carrot and prepared beforehand.</i></p> <p>It would be best if the parents and children together choose the topic of the lesson. Children <i>often choose</i> cooking classes during which in which they can "teach" interesting recipes and create new dishes which are tasted by all. <i>Chemistry experiments</i> are also popular. They are a way of <i>teaching, entertaining and inspiring the young learners to explore. All participants of the game should be smiling and be willing to cooperate, which is a constant element of the work of a teacher and pupils.</i></p> <p>It is also possible to <i>take the child on a trip to a park</i> and conduct a „lesson about nature“, e.g. <i>joint collecting of leaves, recognising trees from their leaves. Having returned home, parents and their children can make a nature corner with the child, sow seeds etc.</i></p>

made distinct (see Foucault, 1975). Notes about bad behaviour/punishment, tests, grading by means of stamps or a red pen are probably known to every pupil who attended a transmission model school. Correcting errors with a red pen draws attention to what was done incorrectly and to the child's failures. The colour red

focuses the attention of the child on its deficiencies and imperfections. The feeling of failure results in time in the feeling of adversity and anxiety and leads to constantly experiencing fear and a negative attitude towards school. Pointing out errors solidifies them in the memory of the student. Such consequences are visible in other research conducted by the author (Zbróg, in print), in which the centre and the periphery of the SR discussed was studied. Students primarily associate school with anxiety, fear, class record, and a red pen.

The above-mentioned aspects of disciplining and subordinating the pupils appear as overt categories. Students write directly about “subordinating” the parent/pupil to the child/teacher and about silence as an element of the game of playing school. Silence may be understood “as exclamation demanding silence” (sjp.pl) which is strongly connected with demanding composure (e.g. in class, at home). The prohibition of speaking and disturbing adults: *one might hear a pin drop, as silent as in church, as silent as in a grave*. These are again references to instrumental (behavioural, transmission) pedagogy. Teacher’s/parent’s “Quiet!” is a stimulus and the reaction will be “silence” in the classroom/at home, obedient, sitting at one’s desk and executing the teacher’s commands.

The utterances of students connected with the traditional “design” of the classroom, filling in worksheets, and “fixing” the material suggests the focus on verbal teaching and memorization learning strategies is central to their conceptualization. The pupil’s activities are limited to listening and obeying the instructions of the teacher. Pupils are perceived as passive participants of the teaching process, entirely dominated by the active teacher who strictly sets the frames of their (passive) behaviour in class. Similar observations were made by Józefa Bałachowicz, who evaluated B.A. students’ suggestions for classes for young learners. They perceived the pupil as a “passive person who is not ready for the independent fulfilment of educational actions, who is immature and whose actions require constant guiding and supervising. Relations of a child with the socio-cultural world are organised by a teacher and the child is only their passive performer and imitator of suggested actions” (Bałachowicz, 2015, p. 15).

The future teachers do not seem to care to know what the child feels, what he/she thinks about the world and school, or what he/she wants to learn about. If assuming at this stage the students’ SR is a reconstruction of their personal experiences, the academic teachers face a complex and difficult task of changing it.

Stage II (2016)

The students' SR of early school education are distinctly different. The utterances are characteristic of the constructivist rhetoric and of the transformative model of education, which is aimed at the joint construction of meanings, subjectivity of the child, relaxed atmosphere, and freedom of expressing thoughts (choosing the subject of the class), cognitive activeness, creativeness, etc. Changing roles and joint decision-making demonstrates progress towards ensuring the engagement of pupils in the learning process and their participation in it. The dialogue character of mutual relations appears in the willingness to encourage joint discussion/agreement on later elements of the game of playing school. Learning outside the school (in the kitchen) is connected with being aware of the fact that education does not only take place in the school building. Students focus on experimenting, experiencing, and learning through acting. They see the pupil as an explorer who is inspired by the "school" classes and may experiment further on his own. Therefore, there is no struggle to autoregulate the child's activity.

Referring to the concept of cognitive polyphasia in the 2nd phase, selective prevalence is observed for the constructivist model because knowledge about children's learning, the concept of the role of the teacher, and the mind of the pupil is constantly activated – outside the designed situation in which evaluation appears. Then, the knowledge ascribed to the behavioural/transmission model appears. During the class, students suggest giving positive and negative grades as well as giving stamps made of potato and carrot for good behaviour, which is nothing else but a form of evaluation. Yet, from the students' point of view, giving stamps is an expected reward for the children (they do not perceive it as a form of external motivation), which demonstrates the hybridization of behavioural and constructivist knowledge as well as the creation of a consistent amalgam – a new form of knowledge which is a blend of both didactic models. This is also seen in collectively decorating the room to make it look like a classroom, which places the location of education in the classroom, which is strongly fixed in Polish culture. The solution suggested by the students may be evaluated positively from the point of view of SRT because it is known that the acceptance of a new SR is connected with anchoring it in previously existing, cultural foundations. Without this, the transformation of SR would face too strong a resistance, which would prevent any results.

Scenes from the school life

Table 2 presents chosen examples of a transcription of fragments of the students' game of "playing school" on any topic. Similar to the previous example, during classes with students in which they played the part of the teacher in scenes from school, their SR of early school education appear. The discussed school scenes, as well as all the remaining scenes that are not presented in the examples, showed the students' SR of child rearing. Once again, the group in which the most significant changes were noticed was chosen.

Table 2. The manifestation of SR of child rearing in earlyschool education in scenes

Stage I (2013) traditional social representations	Stage II (2016) the observed changes: selective prevalence (<u>behaviourism</u> , <i>constructivism</i>)
<p>Girls boast about backpacks. One girl offends the other and ridicules her backpack.</p> <p>S: Your backpack is a disaster. Mine cost 159 zł.</p> <p>T: What is going on here?</p> <p>S: Nothing. We're just talking.</p> <p>T: Not true. I've heard what you're talking about.</p> <p>Is it important how much money we have and how much our backpacks cost? Or maybe your friendship is more important. Say sorry to each other.</p> <p>S: I'm sorry.</p> <p>T: Your friendship is the most important thing. Be nice.</p>	<p>T. walks out of the classroom and sees Basia doing something secretly.</p> <p>T: Basia, why aren't you taking a break? Basia, what are you doing? Let me see. What do you have here? Basia, is that Asia's homework? Why did you tear it?</p> <p>S: Asia offended me.</p> <p>T: Basia, sit down, please. Did you talk to Asia about what she did? Do you understand that you have done the same now? <i>Now, let's go and find Asia. Together we will explain this situation, okay?</i></p> <p>T: <u>And remember: what goes around, comes around.</u></p>

Stage I (2013)

All of the observed students are convinced that the basic educative task of the teacher is to explain to the pupils how to behave properly. They identify the transmission of cultural values to be in the verbal transmission of knowledge, habits, norms, values, and morality to the next generations. Future teachers are at this stage convinced that persuasion, incitement, explaining and demonstrating the direction is the most effective solution at school. In the presented scene, demonstrative teaching in which children observe how the teacher functions, or listen

to the teacher explain how to behave in a given situation, is emphasized. Students do not know that a situation in which the teacher only explains the rules of behaviour to the children (no matter if they provide examples or use reading materials, tales, etc.) is insufficient for teaching correct behaviour. Knowledge transmitted in this way does not have personal meaning for them. This is someone else's knowledge, therefore, it cannot be applied in new, problematic, and unusual situations. A new, unknown problem or a new social situation may only be solved if the solutions are given personal meaning; that is, when pupils are able to understand their own path through understanding their own experiences (Vygotski, 1986; Bruner, 1996). As a result, over time many pupils find it difficult to order socio-moral knowledge according to the ready patterns of behaviour, rules, and advice which teachers transmit in stiffened, algorithmic form. Rules of behaviour and rulebooks constitute a set of schematics, algorithmic regulations to be used in a strictly specified situation which has nothing to do with the essence of understanding and internalisation of the appropriate behaviour in problematic, controversial, and morally complex situations.

Stage II (2016)

After over three years of studying at a university, only some students begin to understand that problematic situations may be an opportunity to create the social and moral intuition of a child and encourage self-reliance in interpersonal relationships (this is the only group in which it was possible to observe the selective prevalence of constructivist knowledge). Self-reliant discovery of meanings develops the pupils' awareness regarding how to understand situations and think about the appropriate behaviour in a given moment. It teaches them that contemplation and learning "why something happens this way" is the most important. It is necessary to use natural situations so pupils continue gathering new experiences. It is vital for the teacher to organise such cognitive situations in which pupils contemplate such problems, even if they have not encountered them directly.

It should be emphasized that in none of the fictional (and collectively agreed on) scenes created by the students (apart from the one discussed in the article), was it possible to observe a clear appearance of constructivist knowledge. In all cases in which a behavioural problem was presented, there was an element of moralisation, lecturing the ready rules of behaviour and expecting an apology "on command" (*Say sorry to each other. Shake hands to make up*), without explaining the causes of the situation, without contemplating the possible consequences, and without considering actual feelings of the children, mainly feeling hurt by

another person. The “ceremony” of apologising (shaking hand to make up) is very often organised and it ends the problematic situation from the point of view of the possible educative actions. This is a situation in which the pupil under the “supervision” of the teacher learns to reproduce the enforced behaviour which he/she – like the teacher – treats as something obvious. In future, he/she will undoubtedly construct the world, establish it, and find his/her place in it through obedience to the presented aims and visions of reality.

CONCLUSIONS

SRT may shed light on the way in which knowledge (as representation) is transformed by social practices in the process of communication and interaction between people in different social and cultural contexts, especially in the context of learning and professionalisation (e.g. of teachers). The essence of the dynamics of SR is the analysis of different forms of knowledge: commonsense, professional, and scientific. This is possible in any context, including the field of education (pedagogy).

It is necessary to be aware of the way in which future teachers perceive the basic pedagogical categories with which they bind their professional future, as well as the future of the next generations. These categories include how they think about school, their profession, their pupils, and the basic educative processes: learning, teaching, moral development, etc. Recognizing one’s SR of early school education may prevent the implementation of changes which are not thought through, but rather mask the actual didactic problems in the academy. Bałachowicz (2015, p. 19) agrees, arguing that “[...] for the future educationists urgently need deepened reflexion on their own school experience and the construction of a model of school in their awareness during the studies. A critical approach to school and disclosure of what is concealed in the everyday functioning of education, or what seems normal, will allow us to open ourselves to alternative ways of school learning and teaching. This is not about rejecting all experiences of educational institutions but about showing what fosters and what hinders development in a democratic society”.

The self-reported exposition presented in this article shows what changes in the social representations of early childhood education took place after over three years of preparation for the teaching profession. It also reveals what expected

changes did not occur, which domain is neglected in academic didactics, thus giving an indication of which area to focus on in working with subsequent generations of students. These are data that can be considered, for example, at scientific meetings of the staff of a university.

In addition, the results are a great source for participatory research involving students and, above all, learning through inquiry and learning to unlearn, leading to the emancipation of future teachers and their liberation from the influence of dominant social practices. The common discovery of the meanings of school situations and the collective analysis of shared structures of reality, makes students aware of what schematic forms of action and stereotypes they use when organizing / designing an educational situation (see tables).

By creating a narrative learning environment and by engaging students in discussions, instructors learn how students talk to pupils, what they suggest, what meaning they give to educational situations, concepts, and categories, and what social experiences and practices drive them. During discussions, it is possible to identify problems in different scenarios and to understand the consequences of using this approach in working with children.

It is also an excellent opportunity for academic teachers to learn academic teachers, as students become leaders in their own world, in the world of their experiences and beliefs. Students look at school reality with different eyes than lecturers – they are curious about something else, they are amused by something else, they pay attention to something else. Is important for the academic teacher to realize that her/his preparation for the teaching profession occurred in a completely different socio-cultural context.

If a lecturer does not participate alongside students in pedagogical practice, if she/he does not interpret educational events with them, she/he loses credibility, and become someone who, as one student said, *Does not know what is happening on the front lines*, because she/he lives in isolation from real school life.

Creating the right conditions for students to learn requires at the same time creating conditions for lecturers to learn, so as to be grounded in current school practice, in the current socio-cultural context.

The educational reality may look different only after collectively agreed on beliefs about contemporary education, as well as conscious and subconscious representations of reality and its different objects are redefined.

This is a specific form of learning by identifying and modifying the social representation of basic pedagogical categories, allowing for a transformation in the approach to the process of child (and adult) education in the academic context.

REFERENCES

- Augoustinos, M., Walker, I., Donaghue, N. (2014). *Social cognition: an integrated introduction*. London: Sage.
- Bałachowicz, J. (2009). *Style działań edukacyjnych nauczycieli klas początkowych. Między uprzedmiotowieniem a podmiotowością*. Warszawa: WSP TWP.
- Bałachowicz, J. (2015). Zmiany współczesnych kontekstów edukacji dziecka. In J. Bałachowicz, K.V Halvorsen & A. Witkowska-Tomaszewska, *Edukacja środowiskowa w kształceniu nauczycieli. Perspektywa teoretyczna* (pp. 11-61). Warszawa: Wydawnictwo APS.
- Berger, P. L. & Luckmann, T. (1991). *The Social Construction of Reality. A treatise in the Sociology of Knowledge*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.
- Bruner, J. S. (1996). *The Culture of Education*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Červinková, H. (2013). Etnografia edukacyjna i badania w działaniu – z warsztatu kształcenia nauczycieli. *Forum Oświatowe*, 1(48), 123-137.
- Dróżka, W. (1993). *Pokolenia nauczycieli*. Kielce: Wydawnictwo WSP.
- Dróżka, W. (2002). *Nauczyciel – autobiografia pokolenia. Studia pedeutologiczne i pamiętnikoznawcze*. Kielce: Wydawnictwo AŚ.
- Dróżka, W. (2004). *Młode pokolenie nauczycieli. Studium autobiografii młodych nauczycieli polskich lat dziewięćdziesiątych*. Kielce: Wydawnictwo AŚ.
- Dróżka, W. (2008). *Generacja wielkiej zmiany. Studium autobiografii średniego pokolenia nauczycieli polskich 2004*. Kielce: Wydawnictwo AŚ.
- Dylak, S. (2000). Nauczycielskie ideologie pedagogiczne a kształcenie nauczycieli. In K. Kruszewski (ed.), *Pedagogika w pokoju nauczycielskim* (pp. 176-190). Warszawa: WSiP.
- Dylak, S. (2013). *Architektura wiedzy w szkole*. Warszawa: Difin.
- Flick, U., Foster, J. & Caillaud, S. (2015). Researching social representations. In G. Sammut, E. Andreouli, G. Gaskell & J. Valsiner (eds.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Social Representations* (pp. 64-80). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Foucault, M. (1975). *Discipline and Punish; the Birth of the Prison*. New York: Random House.
- Hejnicka-Bezwińska, T. (1995). *Edukacja – kształcenie – pedagogika. Fenomen pewnego stereotypu*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Höijer, B. (2011). Social Representations Theory. A New Theory for Media Research. *Nordicom Review*, 32, 3-16.

- Jovchelovitch, S. (2007). *Knowledge in context: representations, community and culture*. London: Routledge.
- Jovchelovitch, S. (2012). Narrative, memory and social representations: a conversation between history and social psychology. *Integrative Psychological and Behavioral Science*, 46(4), 440-456.
- Jovchelovitch, S. & Priego-Hernandez, J. (2015). Cognitive polyphasia, knowledge encounters and public spheres. In G. Sammut, E. Andreouli, G. Gaskell & J. Valsiner (eds.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Social Representations* (pp. 163-178). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Kędzierska, H. (2005). Edukacyjny obraz świata studentów pedagogiki jako wskaźnik efektywności edukacji nauczycielskiej. *Problemy Wczesnej Edukacji*, 1, 39-47.
- Kędzierska, H. (2007). *Akademickie konstruowanie tożsamości zawodowej studentów pedagogiki w narracjach ich planów życiowych*. In R. Kwiecińska, S. Kowal & M.J. Szymański (eds.), *Nauczyciel – Tożsamość – Rozwój* (pp. 253-261). Kraków: Wydawnictwo Naukowe AP.
- Kędzierska H. (2008). *Nauczyciele polskiej szkoły w poszukiwaniu swojej samoświadomości*. In Klus-Stańska (ed.), *Dokąd zmierza polska szkoła?* (pp. 153-168). Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Akademickie „Żak”.
- Kędzierska, H. (2012). *Kariery zawodowe nauczycieli. Konteksty – Wzory – Pola dyskursu*. Toruń: Wydawnictwo „Adam Marszałek”.
- Kędzierska, H. (2013). Między powołaniem a strategią maksymalizacji zysków – przemiany dróg wyboru zawodu nauczyciela. In B.D. Gołębiak & H. Kwiatkowska (eds.), *Nauczyciele. Programowe (nie)przygotowanie* (pp. 15-41). Wrocław: Wydawnictwo Naukowe DSW.
- Klus-Stańska, D. (2000). *Konstruowanie wiedzy w szkole*. Olsztyn: Wydawnictwo UWM.
- Klus-Stańska, D. (2015). Konstruowanie wiedzy pedagogicznej studentów: bariery, pułapki, tropy. In D. Urbaniak-Zajac & J. Piekarski (eds.), *Akademickie kształcenie pedagogów w procesie zmiany. Perspektywy teoretyczne i doświadczenia absolwentów* (pp. 111-125). Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Kwiatkowska, H. (2005). *Tożsamość nauczycieli. Między anomią a autonomią*. Gdańsk: GWP.
- Kwiatkowska, H. (2008). *Pedeutologia*. Warszawa: WaiP.
- Leppert, R. (1996). *Potoczne teorie wychowania studentów pedagogiki*. Bydgoszcz: WSP.

- Męczkowska, A. (2002). *Od świadomości nauczyciela do konstrukcji świata społecznego*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Mizerek, H. (1999). *Dyskursy współczesnej edukacji nauczycielskiej. Między tradycjonalizmem a ponowoczesnością*. Olsztyn: Wydawnictwo UWM.
- Moscovici, S. (1973). Foreword. In C. Herzlich, *Health and Illness: A social Psychological Analysis* (p. xiii). London: Academic Press.
- Moscovici, S. (1984). The Phenomenon of Social Representations. In R. Farr & S. Moscovici (eds.), *Social Representations* (pp. 3-69). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Moscovici, S. (1988). Notes Towards a Description of Social Representations. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 18, 211-250.
- Moscovici, S. (2000). *Social Representations. Explorations in Social Psychology*. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.
- Moscovici, S. (2001). Why a Theory of Social Representations? In K. Deaux & G. Philogéne (eds.) *Representations of the Social* (pp. 8-35). Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishers.
- Nalaskowski, A. (1998). *Nauczyciele z prowincji w przededniu reformy edukacji*. Toruń: Wydawnictwo „Adam Marszałek”.
- Polak, K. (1999). *Indywidualne teorie nauczycieli. Geneza. Badanie. Kształtowanie*. Kraków: Wydawnictwo UJ
- Sajdak, A. (2013). *Paradygmaty kształcenia studentów i wspierania rozwoju nauczycieli akademickich*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Trzebiński, J. (2002). *Narracja jako sposób rozumienia świata*. Gdańsk: GWP.
- Wagner, W. (2015). Representation in action. In G. Sammut, E. Andreouli, G. Gaskell & J. Valsiner (eds.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Social Representations* (pp. 12-28). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Wagner W., Duveen G., Farr R., Jovchelovitch S., Lorenzi-Cioldi F., Markova I. & Rose D. (1999). Theory and method of social representations. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 2, 95-125. Available at: <http://eprints.lse.ac.uk/2640> Available in LSE Research Online: August 2007.
- Vygotski, L.S. (1986). *Thought and Language*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

SECTION 3

PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT OF PRESCHOOL AND EARLY YEARS SCHOOL TEACHERS

Suzanne Gatt

University of Malta, Malta

Charlotte Zammit

St Francis School, Cospicua, Catholic Diocese, Malta

10 The Challenges of Implementing Inquiry Science in Primary Schools

Abstract

Europe considers Inquiry-based learning as one of the most effective pedagogies to teach science at primary level. Inquiry is particular as it views learners as actively engaged: emotionally, cognitively and socially as they carry out investigations to answer questions which they set. Primary schools wanting to reform the way that science is taught often need to experience a paradigm shift in their view of how science is taught: from a transmission approach where children sit, hear and learn, to one where children are engaged in asking questions, designing investigations and gathering data to formulate answers. This shift is not easy to achieve as it requires a change in teaching practices as well as in the use of space and resources within the school. This chapter presents two case studies of primary schools committed to inquiry-based learning in science and the challenges and demands that they face in terms of physical and human resources. The case studies presented in this chapter highlight the importance of teacher commitment and capacity as well as the need for physical resources such as scientific equipment or everyday things. Recommendations for schools wanting to implement inquiry-based learning, mainly in terms of investment in professional development are proposed.

Key words: Inquiry science, primary, challenges, resources.

INTRODUCTION

Science and technological is what drives progress and economic growth (Ruiz *et al.*, 2014). To sustain such growth, countries need to ensure that more young people opt for scientific careers (UNESCO, 2010). Schools, even at primary level, play a major role in promoting Science among students (Schreiner & Sjøberg, 2006). Traditional teaching approaches where students are passive learners have been shown to put students off science (Rocard *et al.*, 2007). On the other hand, students are engaged when they learn Science through argumentation and collecting of evidence to provide explanations (Goldberg, 2011). This is why inquiry-based learning is considered key to fostering enough interest and understanding in science to promote positive attitudes to science and to attract more students to science career choices (Rocard *et al.*, 2007; Kennedy, 2014).

Malta, despite being a small country, also needs its supply of scientists. The country's National Curriculum framework (Ministry of Education and Employment, 2012) follows international trends in pedagogy, and acknowledges the need to move away from direct explanations of phenomena (Reiser, 2013) to pedagogies which engage students through inquiries and investigations, and solving problems related to scientific phenomena. There is a national commitment to inquiry-based learning as the pedagogy which can arouse students' curiosity and promote the uptake of scientific careers.

Effective pedagogical change can only be achieved through investment in education. Shifting from a traditional pedagogy to one of inquiry poses challenges to schools and teachers in different ways and to different degrees. It is not only an issue of introducing inquiry-based lessons (Jarret, 1997), but that of creating a whole school learning environment that supports inquiry. There needs to be a whole school commitment to inquiry with school management investing in human and physical resources. Science inquiry demands its own specific resources in terms of human capacity, space as well as equipment.

Despite the challenges, some primary schools have still taken up the challenge of supporting whole school inquiry-based learning. This chapter presents two case studies of primary schools committed to implementing inquiry-based learning in science and the challenges that they face with respect to the investment required in terms of human and physical resources. They provide insights and understanding of what schools face and how they can bring about change to different degrees.

AIM OF STUDY

The two schools in the study, following national policy, set to implement inquiry-based learning in science across the whole school. The research question set for this study is related to the implementation of inquiry-based science and is:

What key challenges do primary schools face, in terms of both physical and human resources, when implementing inquiry-based learning across the primary school curriculum?

The two primary schools are different in that one is an Independent school while the other is run by the Catholic Church. Both have committed to inquiry-based learning in science. One school has a dedicated Science room while the other does not. The research also provides insights into whether it helps to have a dedicated science room in primary schools.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The teaching of science at primary level remains a challenge to many countries. Main issues include curriculum, assessment, teacher training, further research and policy making (Harlen, 2008). Malta is also experiencing challenges despite recognising science as a core subject in the primary curriculum (Ministry of Education, Employment, and the Family, 2012). Many primary school teachers lack confidence to teach science lessons as they might not be subject specialists (Appleton, 1995; Morgan 2012), and instead adopt a traditional approach as they do not have enough support in innovative pedagogies (Varley, Murphy & Veale, 2008). Teachers hesitate to build their inquiries on children's natural curiosity (OFSTED, 2013), and to motivate children to seek explanations (Milne, 2008), to describe phenomena, properties, and relationships in a different way (Harlen, 2010). Teachers also lack the required skills to use ICT when teaching primary science (Bingimlas, 2009). All these challenges show how there still tends to be emphasis on a content-oriented curriculum and assessment, with teachers resorting to traditional methods rather than ensuring deep understanding of scientific knowledge, process, and enterprise (Kim & Chin, 2011, p. 24).

Inquiry-based learning has been the focus of research interest (van Aalderen-Smeets & van der Molen, 2015), particularly after the Rocard report (Rocard *et al.*, 2007) which highlighted how it could promote young people's interest in science. Inquiry can help eradicate the traditional rigid approach to learning science (Kotuláková & Orolínová, 2013). When children are enthusiastic about science, full of curiosity and with plenty of questions (Harlen, 2015) inquiry creates learning opportunities to ask questions and to find answers (Flannagan & Rockenbaugh, 2010). Inquiry thus promotes a student-centred approach (Kotuláková & Orolínová, 2013) and the co-construction of knowledge. Inquiry helps children to be engaged, formulate questions, investigate and then build new understandings, meanings and knowledge (Branch & Oberg, 2004). They also take responsibility for their own learning (Engeln, Euler & Maass, 2013). It also enhances more critical and complex thinking as well as relating subjects in science to their personal life (Marx *et al.*, 2004). Inquiry learning promotes competencies relevant for lifelong learning (Engeln, Euler & Maass, 2013).

Inquiry can be open-ended, focusing on the questions posed by the children. It can also be done through projects based on children's interest. Or it can be guided with the teacher setting the questions and guiding the investigations. The 5E Instructional Model on inquiry is based on five phases: Engagement, Exploration, Explanation, Elaboration, and Evaluation (Bybee *et al.*, 2006). Students engage to build on what they already know, making connections to past experiences and expose their misconceptions. The explanations and elaborations promote deep understanding of the scientific concepts covered. Students are then encouraged to evaluate their understating (Bybee *et al.*, 2006).

Resources play an important role in ensuring the successful implementation of inquiry at primary level. Schools thus need to ensure pedagogically trained teachers to implement inquiry-based learning effectively (Blessinger & Carfora, 2014). Teachers require the support of the head of school and other members of staff as they are important in ensuring effective use for the required resources (Shadreck, 2013). They also need to have: the necessary equipment and consumables and an estimation of quantity required; classroom facilities; access to outside space; and technician support (SCORE, 2013). For instance, learning about plants and trees can be more successful if done in an environment which is more suitable such as a garden. Investing in teachers' pedagogical skills is also crucial to implementing effective changes in learning practices (Welcom Trust, 2014). Many see science involving experimentation done in a science laboratory. However, inquiry does not necessarily need to be conducted in special rooms. Inquiry can take place in science learning centres,

in and out of a school environment (Nilsson, 2008). It can also include conducting investigations done in the classroom (Varley, Murphy & Veale, 2008). An evaluation of schools in England in 2013 (SCORE, 2013) on the adequacy of rooms or classrooms found that 70% of the schools had less than 60% of the items or resources needed for science to be taught effectively. However, educators interviewed did not demonstrate any dissatisfaction with respect to accessibility to resources. This was branded as a “culture of tolerance” (SCORE, 2013, p. 2). This complacent attitude to science influences what portion of the budget is allocated to science compared to other subjects (Hackling, 2006). Availability of resources can boost teacher’s confidence and self-efficacy, who in turn increase time dedicated to Science.

METHODOLOGY

The case studies included in this study are two primary schools which decided to implement inquiry-based learning at school level. Both schools were primary schools catering for years 1-6 (ages 5-11 years) of primary education and committed to implementing teaching science through inquiry across the whole school. The two schools were different, however, in type of provision, as well as in the way that they catered for science.

School 1: was an independent school (private school where parents pay fees). At primary level, the school has one Science teacher who is responsible for teaching all year groups (years 1-6) in the primary sector. The school also has one Science dedicated room and science lessons are delivered in the science room.

School 2: was a Church school (administered by the Catholic Church and which is free) very much committed to teaching Science. It strongly promoted the use of inquiry-based learning in Science. However, it did not enforce it. There was no designated science teacher but every classroom teacher is responsible to teach Science. The school also did not have a specific Science dedicated room and teachers taught science in their normal classroom.

A qualitative approach was adopted to study the practices in the schools, to what degree there was inquiry science actually being done and how many resources were available and being utilised. The case study was based on three research tools: interviews, observations, and inventories.

Inventories: The first step included identifying and taking stock of the resources used by the schools. This exercise included compiling an inventory of all the resources found in both schools. Different types of resources: normal classroom resources, everyday materials used for science; and specific scientific equipment were identified and recorded in a table. Resources that were brought by students themselves to the school were also recorded. The resources were not all necessarily Science related equipment.

Table 1: A sample of the inventory done for both schools

	Independent School	Church School
Interactive Whiteboard	✓	✓
Skeletal figure	✓	✗

Lesson Observations: Two lessons in each school were observed. The researcher took field notes during the lessons as well as audio recorded the sessions. The observations focused on the teaching method used by the teachers and the resources used. These observations allowed an assessment of the degree to which these lessons could be considered to be inquiry.

Interviews: Interviews were carried out with teachers (Science teacher for the independent school and 2 primary teachers for the Church school) as well as the heads of both schools. The interviews were semi-structured. The interviews included questions regarding time dedicated to science, resources used for science lessons and their approach towards inquiry based learning.

Prior to data collection, ethics clearance was obtained from the University of Malta. The schools were contacted and visited to carry out the inventories, interviews as well as the lesson observations. Lesson observations in the independent school were carried out in classes with children between 8 and 10 years. There were 24 students in each class seated in groups of four and the lessons took place in the Science dedicated room. The first lesson observed was about pollination and fertilisation while the second lesson was about pollution. Two lessons were also observed in the church school. These took place with 26 students in year 5 (age 9/10 years) in the classroom by the class teacher. The students were seated in a 'U' shaped arrange-

ment. The lessons observed were sequential lessons on the topic of Earth and the planets which were spread over one week. The teacher and Head interviews took place at the schools and were audio recorded while short notes were taken.

RESULTS

The findings were analysed with respect to the school's commitment to inquiry, the investment made in resources, and how much inquiry is actually taking place. For the purpose of identification, the schools will be referred to as 'School A' (the Independent school) and 'School B' (the Church school). Similarly, students and teachers from the different schools will be labelled A and B according to their school. The schools were analysed on three aspects:

- The schools' vision with respect to inquiry-based learning – reflected by the school administration;
- The investment in physical resources, both scientific and general resources; and
- The teaching methods adopted – defining to what degree the teachers were actually using the inquiry based learning approach when teaching Science.

Commitment to inquiry and resources

Both schools expressed a commitment to inquiry-based learning in science. The head of school A claimed that the school gave science its due importance, so much so that a specific science teacher was assigned to teach science to all the primary school children. Head A stated that she encouraged the use of hands on activities and the school worked towards the implementation of inquiry based learning as an approach to science education. The aim was to build students' knowledge and skills based on their natural curiosity. Science is considered important for developing problem solving skills. Despite this stated commitment, however, only a 50 minute slot per week is dedicated to science. School B's head of school stated that even if commitment to science has not yet been officially included in the School's development plan, the intention is to do so in the coming years. School B committed more time to science with at least 3 science lessons per week total-

ling 2 hours. This is in line with the national curriculum requirements. Science is considered to provide life-long competencies. The head of school B highlighted that the school is slowly building towards a more inquisitive approach to teaching science. The head of school highlighted that teacher training is a necessity and intends to invest in professional development in the near future together with increasing the provision of resources for science.

The teachers in the two schools reflected the schools' commitment to different degrees. The designated science teacher in school A expressed a degree of understanding of inquiry-based learning. She viewed inquiry-based learning as a pedagogy that *'involves the children more, and they become more motivated towards the subject apart from acquiring scientific skills such as investigating, hypothesising, concluding etc.'* Her reference does not reflect the emphasis which inquiry usually gives to asking questions and carrying out investigations to gather data to find answers to the questions set. The teacher from school A agreed that science should be given more importance and that schools should adopt the inquiry based approach. She claimed that prior to her employment science was taught by the class teacher in School A and suggested that the investment in her as science teacher brought a shift towards inquiry science. The teacher in school A is a science teacher hence science is her field of specialisation, even if she was trained as a secondary rather than as a primary school teacher.

One teacher in school B, on the other hand, expressed a limited understanding of inquiry-based learning, considering it as *'learning through questioning, research and open discussions'* while the second teacher stated that it *'involved students looking for information themselves without being spoon fed by the teacher'*. School B teachers' understanding of inquiry is less clear than the teacher in school A and to a degree reflects a reluctance to allow students to carry out their own investigations. The two teachers in school B disagreed over having a science dedicated room. One teacher would like to have a science room, while the other teacher stated that a room should not condition the teacher to deliver a lesson.

Physical Resources available at the schools

The teacher in school A stated that she is provided with science resources such as scientific equipment, but she also likes to collect everyday things which she can use for investigations. She believes that having a science dedicated room allows her to gradually build her own resources. She argued that resources should

not necessarily be expensive science equipment. In fact, she stores material in her room which she described as the rubbish dump corner. On the other hand, the two teachers in School B stated that they were sometimes provided with resources. For example, one teacher mentioned how she was given an electric circuit built for purpose to conduct her lesson. When they did not find resources in the school, one teacher stated that she used whatever she finds while the other teacher brought objects from home. For example, she once brought magnets from home during the topic of magnetism.

The inventory of the resources available at school provides a snapshot of the amount and type of science resources that the schools possess. A number of common resources were found in both schools. These included general resources such as interactive whiteboard, books, notes and worksheets. Schools also had digital media which teachers use with the interactive board. There were also resources which can be used for demonstration such as charts, globe, maps, figures and plants.

The inventory showed that School A possessed more resources than School B (Table 2). School A also had a webcam linked to the teacher's computer to the interactive board to project small items magnified on the screen. School A also had a vast range of scientific equipment such as test tubes, petri dishes, flasks, pipettes, and safety goggles, which were in abundance and enough for students to carry out investigations individually or in groups. School A also had scientific equipment such as flasks and funnels to be used for demonstration purposes and a microscope which students can use by taking turns. Resources in school A were also easily accessible as they were all stored in the science room where the teacher teaches science. The classroom observations also showed how the teacher in School A made frequent use of resources both through hands-on and demonstration experiments, allowing students to be investigative (Russell, 2012). In fact, teacher A believed that resources allow the students to understand a topic better. The teacher considers the room where students do science also as a resource. The science dedicated room in school A had tables set up in clusters of four and allowed teamwork.

The teachers in School B felt that the school had limited resources and this restricted their practice. The classrooms also did not have enough space to create science stations which can be used to conduct investigations. In addition, storing resources in classrooms was constrained by the lack of storage space in the room and resources were shared across all the classes. Science equipment was used only on certain occasions and depending on the availability of equipment and topic covered.

Table 2: Inventory of resources in the two Schools

Resource	Independent School	Church School	Resource	Independent School	Church School
Interactive Whiteboard	✓	✓	Flasks	✓	✗
Digital media	✓	✓	Petri dishes	✓	✗
Science books	✓	✓	Funnels	✓	✗
Teacher's notes	✓	✓	Microscope	✓	✗
Worksheets (fill-in)	✓	✓	Skeletal figure	✓	✓
Worksheets (investigative)	✗	✗	Human body figure	✓	✓
Charts	✓	✓	Lenses	✓	✗
Teacher's computer	✓	✓	Globe	✓	✓
Computers (for children)	✗	✗	World map	✓	✓
Plants	✓	✓	Thermometer	✓	✗
Flowers	✓	✗	Pipettes	✓	✗
Safety goggles	✓	✗	Litmus paper	✓	✗
Test-tubes	✓	✗	Substances	✓	✗

Both studied schools also invested in resources made from everyday materials. The teacher in school A stated that she often asks students to bring inexpensive items from home to be used during science lessons. During one of the lessons observed, Teacher A asked students to bring fruit from home to dissect and investigate during the next lesson. The two teachers from School B also used resources found in the classroom or at home and stated that they often create their own resources.

Classrooms in School B were all equipped with new furniture and plenty of light, allowing students to stay alert during the lessons. The class observed in school B had its desks set up in a 'U' arrangement which is not ideal for creating group work activities. In fact, pair work tasks were observed. Both schools,

however, did not have computers available for children's direct use, these being absent in classrooms, thus not enabling teachers to use and incorporate technology when doing science. This was mainly due to the schools investing in a computer laboratory instead.

Human resources

School A has invested in a specialised science teacher to teach all the primary years. In fact, the teacher in school A is a science graduate and is focused on teaching science. The same teacher thus teaches students along the primary years. In contrast, the Teacher in school B teaches her students all the curricular subjects. In the lessons observed and interviewed, teacher A tended to be more knowledgeable on inquiry based learning and her lessons included experiments. On the other hand, investigation and inquiry by the teacher in school B were very limited. Teacher B1 tended to use traditional teaching rather than inquiry in her lesson deliveries.

Both teachers, however, demonstrated limited actual inquiry being implemented. In the lesson on pollination and fertilisation of flowers, the teacher opted for a class activity, which although involved dissecting a Calla Lilly, involved only a demonstration of the teacher dissecting the flower on the interactive board by means of a camera. The students were not provided with the opportunity to investigate and examine the flower themselves. Even if the digital resources were used effectively to magnify what can't be seen by the naked eye, handling real flowers would have been a great resource for implementing inquiry based learning. The teacher did ask open ended questions and did allow the students to reflect, but the activity was still teacher-directed. The questions were controlled and did not allow much space for hypothesising. The lesson ended with a worksheet exercise where students had to fill in the blanks which did not promote inquiry but served mainly assess the students' understanding of the content covered. The second lesson observed in School A the students were involved in an experiment on the effect of acid rain, and students worked in groups of four. The students used the safety goggles, and the experiment involved dropping few drops of hydrochloric acid on marble chips which would result in a chemical reaction and erosion of the chips. During the experiment scientific equipment and non-science related resources were used. Equipment such as petri dishes, pipettes and eye goggles were helpful to conduct the experiment in an explorative manner. However, the

hypothesising step of inquiry was not included. With a few modifications to the lesson, inquiry based learning could have taken place.

The topic of the lesson observed in School B was the Earth, Sun and Moon. The interactive board was used to provide information, but not much beyond that. The teacher also used a large world map to explain the concept of the world's time zones. Most of the lesson involved explanation. Even if it is not easy to have investigations on the topic covered, students could easily have been presented with a real situation and asked to investigate the different time zones. The second lesson was a continuation of the previous topic of Earth, Sun and Moon, this time about gravity and life on Earth. A significant proportion of the lesson involved an explanation and reading from a book. Although the teacher asked open-ended questions, no actual investigation or inquiry took place. None the less the students demonstrated a high level of interest in the lesson and asked various questions which the teacher gladly answered. The teacher may have resorted to a traditional approach to teaching because she may not have been so confident. As in the case of school A, an adapted fill in the blank worksheet was used.

The resources used in the lessons varied from one school to the other, with the teacher in school B using fewer resources during both lessons. On the other hand, Teacher A used plenty of resources. While the teacher in School A provided the science teacher with more resources, the teacher in school B used what was available in her classroom. Despite the limited science resources in School B, the teacher could have used the interactive whiteboard more effectively. When resources were used for hands-on activities, the impact was greater as in the case of the acid experiment. Students were not only motivated, but could link and understand the consequences of acid rain on statues from their direct observations.

The teacher in school A tended to use inquisitive and investigative approaches during the science lessons, but not necessarily inquiry-based learning as the lessons were still teacher- directed. Although students were encouraged to ask questions, they were not given the opportunity to investigate their own questions. The teacher in school B adopted a more traditional approach involving mainly explanation. Students were asked questions but not during the teacher's explanation. Students were not given a chance to be investigative. The U-shape desk arrangement in School B did not allow for any type of group work to take place while the clustering of desks in School A facilitated the use of group work activities such as the marble experiment. It can be concluded that in both schools, despite the commitment, there is still a lot to be done to change the way that science is taught to one based on inquiry.

DISCUSSION

This study shows clearly that implementing inquiry-based learning across a whole school poses greater challenges than just changing pedagogies and catering for the resources needed. It requires bringing about a paradigm shift in how teaching and learning is conceptualised and implemented. To implement inquiry-based learning, good teachers of science, whether science specialists or not, need to be ready to give away a large degree of their control over the learning process, and allow students to follow their interests and try to find answers to questions posed themselves. Students should be provided with the opportunity to investigate and be given problem solving activities to work in pairs or in groups. Physical resources play a supportive role as they enable teachers to enrich the lesson through taking part in practical experiments using the proper tools and equipment (Wellcome Trust, 2015).

The two teaching methods observed in this study demonstrated different levels of questioning within limited inquiry approach where there were few open-ended and reflective questions and still aspects of non-inquiry teacher questions used to assess the students' understanding instead. The two schools show how teachers remain the key resources to changing pedagogies within the inquiry model. Teachers' reluctance to organise learning cycles starting with asking questions, building and analysing the evidence, formulating and connecting explanations and ending with communicating the findings and reflecting upon the conclusions (Lameras *et al.*, 2014) persists even when schools are committed to such approach.

Having confident practitioners employed in a school is one of the best investments in human resources, whether it is a subject specialist or a classroom teacher. Before training teachers, they first need to be convinced of why they need to change the learning experiences. It is only then that it is worth training teachers and providing them with the right skills to implement inquiry during lessons will prove to be more successful. Teachers with great knowledge and competence are an asset and leave a positive impact on the student's accomplishments (Harlen, Holroyd & Byrne, 1995).

The study has also shown that resources for science inquiry can be both scientific equipment as well as everyday things. It does not matter whether one uses a jar or a scientific beaker. However, having space where to keep and accumulate scientific equipment helps. The science teacher in school A had the option of cre-

ating space specifically for science, an aspect which is difficult to achieve in a normal classroom. This does not necessarily imply that there needs to be a dedicated science room for science inquiry. It does highlight however, that there needs to be a dedicated space for science resources, and that it also has to be easily accessible to teachers.

Another challenge which emerged was the role of assessment. Summative assessment does not tend to be conducive to inquiry-based learning as inquiry skills tend to be cognitive process and not content bound. For this reason, paper and pencil tests pose challenges to the implementation of inquiry science as they assess only scientific knowledge and possibly some cognitive processing and experimental design. Fully implementing inquiry-based learning thus implies that the assessment system also needs to change to reflect the type of learning taking place.

CONCLUSION

Both schools had resources, even if school A was better equipped. However, both schools were struggling in implementing inquiry, with much more needed to really achieve significant pedagogical change. Transforming the type of learning taking place at the school still needs time and continual investment and support as old ways of working and conceptualising how learning takes place is difficult to change. In addition, schools do not work in a vacuum. Constraints such as the curriculum to be covered and assessment processes which are beyond the control of school hamper pedagogical innovation as they cater for the old system (Gatt *et al.*, 2013).

This does not mean that it is not possible to fully implement inquiry-based learning in science at primary level. It rather highlights that the process is lengthy and slow and can only be achieved over a number of years through a slow gradual shift in pedagogical approach supported with adequate training and resources. There will always be those who are not willing to change. But as more and more teaching staff change, with the continual support of senior management, a whole-school change will eventually take place.

REFERENCES

- Appleton, M.K. (1992). Discipline knowledge and confidence to teach science: Self-perceptions of primary teacher education students. *Research in Science Education*, 22(1), 11-19.
- Bingimlas, K.A. (2009). Barriers to the successful integration of ICT in teaching and learning environments: A review of the literature. *Eurasia Journal of Mathematics, Science & Technology Education*, 5(3), 235-245.
- Blessinger B., & Carfora J. (2014). *Inquiry-based Learning for Faculty and Institutional Development: A conceptual and Practical Resource for Educators*. Bingley UK: Emerald Group Publishing Ltd.
- Branch, J., & Oberg, D. (2004). *Focus on inquiry: a teacher's guide to implementing inquiry-based learning*. Canada: Alberta Learning.
- Bybee, R.W., Taylor, J.A., Gardner, A., Van Scotter, P., Powell, J.C., Westbrook, A., & Landes, N. (2006). *The BSCS 5E instructional model: Origins and effectiveness*. Colorado Springs, CO: BSCS, 5, 88-98.
- Engeln, K., Euler, M., & Maass, K. (2013). Inquiry-based learning in mathematics and science: A comparative baseline study of teachers' beliefs and practices across 12 European countries. *ZDM Mathematics Education*, 45(6), 823-836.
- Flannagan, J.S., & Rockenbaugh, L. (2010, December). Curiosity + Kindergarten = Future Scientists: Teaching inquisitive young children how to ask good questions. *Science and Children*, 48(4), 28-31.
- Gatt S., Byrne J., Rietdijk W., Tunnicliffe S., Kalaitzidaki M., Stavrou D., Tsagliotis N., Gaudiello Ii, Zibetti E. & Papadouris N., (2014). Adapting ibse material across Europe: experiences from the Pri-Sci-Net FP7 Project, in Constantinou, C. P., Papadouris, N., & Hadjigeorgiou, A. (eds.), *E-Book Proceedings of the ESERA 2013 Conference: Science Education Research For Evidence-based Teaching and Coherence in Learning*. Nicosia, Cyprus: European Science Education Research Association.
- Goldberg, L.B. (2011). Case-study participant description. *Learning disabilities*, 5, 8.
- Harlen, W. (2008). Trusting teachers' judgement in Swaffield S. (ed.), *Unlocking assessment: Understanding for reflection and application* (pp. 138-153). Abingdon: Routledge.
- Harlen, W. (2014). Helping children's development of inquiry skills. *Inquiry in Primary Science (IPSE)*, Volume 1, Issue 1, 5-9.

- Harlen, W. (ed.) (2010). *Principles and big ideas of science education*. London: Association for Science Education.
- Jarret, D. (1997). *Inquiry Strategies for Science and Mathematics Learning: It's Just Good Teaching*. Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.
- Kennedy D. (2013). The role of investigations in promoting inquiry-based science education in Ireland. *Science Education International*, Vol. 24, Issue 3, 282-305.
- Kim, M. & Chin, C. (2011). Pre-Service Teachers' Views on Practical Work with Inquiry Orientation in Textbook-Oriented Science Classrooms. *International Journal of Environmental and Science Education*, 6(1), 23-37.
- Kotuláková, K., & Orolínová, M. (2013). *Inquiry Based Science Education in Continual Professional Development Program of In-Service Teachers*. Slovakia: Trnava University.
- Marx, R.W., Blumenfeld, P.C., Krajcik, J.S., Fishman, B., Soloway, E., Geier, R. & Tal, R.T. (2004). Inquiry based science in the middle grades: Assessment of learning in urban systemic reform. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 41(10), 1063-1080.
- Milne, I. (2008). Imaginative Practice Imaginative Inquiry. *Sixth International Conference on Imagination and Education*, Canberra, Australia, 29-31.
- Ministry of Education, Employment and the Family (2012). *A National curriculum framework for all*, Malta: Ministry of Education, Employment and the Family.
- Morgan, A.M. (2012). 'Me as a Science Teacher': Responding to a Small Network Survey to Assist Teachers with Subject-Specific Literacy Demands in the Middle Years of Schooling. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(6), 6.
- Nilsson, P. (2012). Learning to Teach and Teaching to Learn—Primary science student teachers' complex journey from learners to teachers. *Nordic Studies in Science Education*, 5(1), 111.
- Ofsted (2013). *Maintaining Curiosity: a Survey into Science Education in Schools*. Manchester: Ofsted.
- Reiser, B.J. (2013). *What professional development strategies are needed for successful implementation of the Next Generation Science Standards*. In Washington, DC: Paper presented at the Invitational Research Symposium on Science Assessment. K-12 Center at ETS.

- Rocard, M., Csermely, P., Jorde, D., Lenzen, D., Walberg-Henriksson, H., Hemmo, V. (2007). *Science Education Now: A renewed Pedagogy for the Future of Europe*. Brussels: European Commission.
- Ruiz, M.A.O., Osuna, L.V., Salas, B.V., Wiener, M.S., Garcia, J.S., Cordova, E.C. & Ibarra, R. (2014). *The Importance of Teaching Science and Technology in Early Education Levels in an Emerging Economy*. *Bulletin of Science, Technology & Society*, 34(3-4), 87-93.
- Russell, D. (2012). *Primary Industry Centre for Scientific Education (PICSE)*. University of Tasmania, Australia.
- Schreiner, C. & Sjøberg S. (2007). Science education and youth's identity construction – two incompatible projects? In D. Corrigan, Dillon, J. & Gunstone, R. (eds.), *The Re-emergence of Values in the Science Curriculum*, Rotterdam: Sense Publications
- SCORE (2013). *Report: Resourcing Practical Science In Primary Schools*. London: Association for Science Education.
- Shadreck, M. (2013). Resource Potentials for Teaching Science in Rural Day Secondary Schools in Buhera District, Zimbabwe. *European Journal of Scientific Research*, Vol. 98, No.1, 106-112.
- UNESCO, (2010), *Current Challenges in basic Science Education*, Paris: UNESCO Education Sector.
- van Aalderen Smeets, S.I. & Walma van der Molen, J.H. (2015). Improving primary teachers' attitudes toward science by attitude focused professional development. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 52(5), 710-734.
- Varley, J., Murphy, C. & Veale, O. (2008). Science in primary schools, Phase 1. Final report. *National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA)*. Dublin, Ireland: St Patrick's College.
- Welcome Trust (2014). *Improving Primary Science: Primary Science: Is it Missing out? Recommendations for reviving primary science*. London: Welcome Trust.

11

Narrative understanding as the primary meaning making tool and the capacity of young children to engage in abstract conceptual thinking in the context of story and play

Abstract

In this chapter the author weaves, together the work of theorists and practitioners to show how a storytelling approach to the curriculum can harness the power of story and philosophical play in the early year's classroom to support children's abstract conceptual thinking. Beginning with a vignette from practice with 3-4 years old, the author claims that narrative understanding is the primary meaning-making tool that should influence curriculum planning and practice in the early year's classroom. It is through story that children can access abstract concepts and when opportunities are provided for play with the concepts children can inhabit those stories and explore the big ideas they contain. The role of teacher in scaffolding this approach is discussed in relation to work going on in real classrooms. The relationship of storytelling and story play to children's later literacy development is discussed as a counter-narrative to government intervention across Europe that prescribes or promotes particular top-down approaches. The main suggestion for the teachers of young children is to engage in the practice based on implementing a socio-cultural approach to learning in which teachers and children are working together.

Key words: storytelling, story play, narrative understanding, early years.

INTRODUCTORY VIGNETTE

The setting is a nursery where the teachers have adopted ‘The Storytelling Curriculum’ (Lyle & Bolt, 2016). We join a class in a poor socio-economic area where a small group of children aged 3-4 has spent the last week exploring the story of ‘The Three Billy Goats Gruff’. For those who don’t know this traditional folk tale, the basic scenario is the plight of three hungry goats that need to cross a river to reach the green grass on the other side. Unfortunately, a bridge that is guarded by a horrible troll who wants to eat them obstructs their journey. The youngest Billy goat decides he will be brave and go first: “trip-trap, trip, trap, over the rickety, racketsy bridge”. Half way across the bridge, the ugly Troll pops up and declares: “I am a Troll foldy-roll, I am a Troll foldy-roll, I am a Troll foldy-roll and I’m going to eat you for my supper”. The goat is very afraid, but decides to trick the Troll by suggesting: “Why don’t you wait until my big brother comes along. He is much bigger than I am and will make a much better supper”. Persuaded by the logic of this argument the Troll allows the small goat to cross the bridge. The second Billy goat adopts the same strategy as his younger brother and also escapes across the bridge. Finally, it is the turn of the oldest and biggest Billy goat who sets off across the bridge. When the Troll threatens to eat him he adopts attack as the best form of defence:

Oh no! You are not going to eat me!” said the third Billy goat gruff and he put his head down and charged at the Troll and sent him flying into the air where he disappeared into the river.

This story was told orally to a small group of twelve children, age 3-4, with the aid of puppets and together the teacher and children created a role-play area where the children could explore the story for themselves. They built a bridge for the troll to hide under, found some blue cloth to represent the river and used green bean bags for the fields on either side of the river. During the week that followed, the role-play area was added to. The children were able to decide themselves whether or not to engage with, and become a part of, the organic and unfolding narrative. As they played the story they learned to communicate with each other and build community together as they exercised their imaginations.

Each day the teacher asked, “Shall I tell you the story of ‘The Three Billy goats Gruff?’” and each day the children said, “Yes”. By the third day they recognized the

repetitions in the story and began acting these out as they followed the teacher to “trip-trap, trip-trap, over the rickety-rackety bridge”. They started to join in with the sing-song refrain of “I’m a Troll foldy-roll” and delightedly played at being the biggest Billy goat sending the puppet Troll flying through the air into the river.

On the fourth day after re-telling the story, the teacher put two of the puppets on the floor and asked the children, “Who do you think is the strongest? The Troll or the biggest Billy goat?” Some of the children thought it was the Billy goat and some thought it was the Troll. The teacher asked the children:

T: Why do you think the goat is stronger?

C: Because he butted the troll into the air

T: Why do *you* think the Troll is stronger?

C: Because he’s bigger.

T: If you are bigger does this mean you are stronger? (Most children thought so).

T: (acting perplexed) But the Billy goat was smaller than the Troll and he butted him into the air. I wonder how someone smaller can be stronger?

This counter-factual invitation intrigued the children. They couldn’t explain it: it was clearly a concept that needed more thinking time.

The next day the teacher invited the children to look strong, “Can you look strong?” The children thought they could and adopted a range of ‘strong’ poses and facial expressions. The teacher pretended to be afraid and asked, “If you look strong does it mean you are strong?” Some children were not sure. The teacher held up the smallest Billy goat. “Was he strong?” They shook their heads. “But he tricked the Troll”. One child said he was good at tricks, but he wasn’t strong. “I wonder”, said the teacher, “if he wasn’t strong, was he clever?” One child agreed – by tricking the Troll he had crossed the bridge and that was clever. “What is better?” asked the teacher, “to be strong or to be clever?” The children weren’t sure. The teacher set up a line: “Stand on this side of the line if you would rather be strong. Stand on the other side of the line if you would rather be clever”. Children stood on different sides of the line. “Hmmm, I’m not sure,” said the teacher, showing the children that this was not an easy right/wrong decision, but some-

thing that needed thought and exploration. She asked them if they needed to use the magic word 'because' and encouraged them to use the sentence structure, "I would rather be strong/clever because...". She asked the children to think: "I wonder what's good about being strong?" "I wonder what's good about being clever?" "Can we think about this while we're playing and see what ideas we have?" And the teacher sent the children off to play.

This use of story as a way into exploring abstract concepts embedded in the story intrigued the children and was reflected in the role-play that the teacher observed taking place. The next day the teacher set up a board – on one side she indicated 'clever' and on the other 'strong' and asked the children to place their name pictures on the side they would choose to be. Six children opted for 'strong' and six for 'clever'. The teacher was pleased they had different opinions and asked them:

T: Why would you rather be strong?

Emily: I'm strong because I eat vegetables.

T: You think you are strong because you eat vegetables – what can you do now you are strong?

Emily: I can pick lots of toys up.

T: You think you are strong because you can pick up lots of toys. Some of you would rather be clever – why would you rather be clever?

Millie: Because I can get dressed [by myself].

T: You think you are clever because you can get dressed by yourself.

We see in this extract that the teacher is encouraging the children to select and give reasons for their selections. She repeats the selections using the 'magic' word – because – to reinforce the reasoning of the two children who had modeled this important skill for the other children.

On the fifth day after the children had heard and acted out the story again the teacher put the Troll under the bridge: "The Troll is back! He wants the goats to help him get out of the water. Goats, will you help him?" Using an agree/disagree

line the children were asked to stand on one side of the rope if they wanted to help the Troll and on the other if they didn't want to assist him. The children found it difficult to give reasons for their choices and so the teacher called on her teaching assistant to model an answer: "I want to help him because I think he will be kind".

T: Do you think if we help him he'll be kind?

Lots of disagreement amongst the children.

T: You don't think he'll be kind.

Child: No, because he's not kind, he's naughty.

T: Do you think he can change and be kind or will he always be naughty?

Children: Naughty.

T: What can we do to help him be kind?

C: Play with him

T: If we play with him will he be kind?

Children: Yes

T: Does playing with people help them to be kind?

Children: Yes

The discussion then swiftly turned to discussing the kinds of games the children like to play.

Discussion

I have taken some time to discuss this small example of a nursery classroom where teachers have adopted 'The Storytelling Curriculum'. Telling stories is part of our collective human identity (Booker, 2005). Stories are fun and tap into a raw

human desires for narratives that make us feel good. They are vessels for information and cultural transmission (Bettelheim, 1991). A good story well told creates emotional connections in the listeners and is a powerful way to share information as well as explore ideas, concepts, and emotions.

Many researchers in multiple disciplines recognize the centrality of story in the human narrative and over the last thirty years a theoretical base has emerged that supports what we instinctively know to be 'true' (Lyle, 2000). Good teachers everywhere 'know' the power of story to engage their students. By drawing on a body of theory and practices of teachers, we can find principled approaches to organizing learning in our classrooms. In this chapter I draw on the practice of teachers working with the youngest children (aged 3 to 5), those who have been inspired by 'The Storytelling Curriculum' and in particular the work of teachers such as Vivian Gussin-Paley (1987, 1991, 2005) and Sara Stanley (2008, 2011) who have written about their own practice. From years of working with young children, these practitioners know what happens when children are given the chance to create their own imaginary, storied worlds through play (Lyle, 2012).

The story is also a powerful vehicle for exploring abstract concepts and to help the children to do this we draw on the pedagogy of Philosophy for Children. First established by Matthew Lipman (1988) it is practiced in over 50 countries worldwide and has been established as an effective approach to helping children think for themselves. In the extract, we see the teacher facilitating dialogic enquiry between the children around some of the abstract concepts embedded in the story. A P4C approach seeks to harness children's imagination to work with their rational faculties to increase their understanding of the world and what it means to lead a good life and be an ethical person (Lyle, 2008a). In the examples given we see the teacher creating a safe space for the children to explore philosophical concepts through enquiry together, where different views and interpretations are welcomed. Traditional tales like the 'Billy Goats Gruff' provide good examples of narratives that can be explored philosophically and have the power to generate imaginative thinking.

In supporting children's play and discussions we seek to scaffold the children's play using puppets and props where the teacher models the use of props during the story-telling sessions. We have found that children in the early years need this initial play scaffolding, especially modeling of the language that accompanies the play and the philosophical discussions that follow the story. We have found that this Vygotskian approach to scaffolding impacts on the development of play and following this, children's language, cognitive, emotional, and social skills.

In this chapter I weave together the work of theorists and practitioners to show how ‘The Storytelling Curriculum’ together can harness the power of story and philosophical play in the early childhood classroom (Stanley & Lyle, 2016) to support children’s abstract conceptual thinking.

To start with theory, I begin with the claim that “narrative understanding is the primary meaning-making tool” (Lyle, 2000) and go on to outline the argument and consider its potential to influence practice in the early year’s classroom.

NARRATIVE UNDERSTANDING AS THE PRIMARY MEANING-MAKING TOOL

Understanding the importance of story to the young child comes from recognizing that, from birth until death, human beings are story-telling animals, with a basic need for story to organise our experience (Bruner, 1990). This claim is underpinned by research coming from different disciplinary areas, which supports the claim that narrative understanding is actually *the* major, cognitive tool through which all human beings in all cultures make sense of the world (Egan, 2014). As humans we are predisposed to make sense of experience by imposing a story structure on it. Narrative is also our way of experiencing, acting, living and dealing with time (Bruner, 1996). The power of narrative is reflected in the formidable structure of stories, myths, fairy-tales and legends that exist in all cultures. It follows that in order to participate as a member of a culture we need an understanding of narrative meaning, as it is through narrative that human beings render actions and events meaningful.

An early and seminal proponent of this theoretical perspective was the psychologist Jerome Bruner (1986, 1990, 1996). Bruner proposed two main strategies human beings use to make sense of the world: logico-mathematical and narrative understanding. Of these two, he regarded narrative as a universal way of making sense, of ordering experience. For the first time, Bruner enabled narrative to emerge as a feature of discussions concerning child development. Bruner (1990, p. 80) suggested that there is some human ‘readiness’ or predisposition to organize experience into narrative form – that human beings have an “‘innate’ and primitive predisposition to narrative organization”, and that the ability to comprehend stories is more basic to human intelligence than anything measured through tests of logico-mathematical development. He also emphasized the importance of narrative understanding:

Our capacity to render experience in narrative is . . . an instrument for making meaning that dominates much of life in culture . . . Our sense of the normative is nourished in narrative, but so is our sense of breach and of exception. (Bruner, 1990, p. 97).

Bruner (1990, p. 80) notes that children “produce and comprehend stories ... long before they are capable of handling the most fundamental Piagetian logical propositions that can be put into linguistic form”.

Such a claim is supported by work within different disciplinary areas that show narrative understanding is an important, if not the major tool through which all human beings in all cultures make sense of the world. Several writers (Bettelheim, 1976; Bruner, 1990; Booker, 2005; Egan, 2014) have pointed out that to participate as a member of a culture requires an understanding of narrative meaning. It is through narrative that human beings render actions and events meaningful. As linguist Rosen (1985, p. 7) observed, “given the least prompting we are disposed to arrange around people and things a meaningful sequence of events”. Rosen believes that stories are a product of the predisposition of the human mind to frame experience in narratives and to transform it into findings, which as social beings, we can share and compare with those of others. To be human is, for Rosen (1985, p. 12), to be in a high state of readiness to transform into story:

... not only what we experience directly but also what we hear and read— a cross on a mountainside, graffiti, ‘Accident Black Spot’, a row of empty whisky bottles, a limp, a scar, a dog howling in the night, a headline, a cryptic note.

The shaping of experience by narrative and the impulse to tell stories points to the value of narrative for the creation of meaning. Rosen (1985, p. 19) wants educators to examine all classroom practice for its narrative possibilities, and in so doing he predicts this will lead to “a liberation of the narrative genius of humankind”.

If narrative understanding is so central to meaning-making, its practical application in the classroom needs to be explicated. In educational research, the most ardent and consistent supporter of narrative understanding is Kieran Egan (1988, 1992, 2014), who also contends that narrative understanding is *the* primary form of understanding: “We are a storying animal; we make sense of things commonly in story forms; ours is a largely story-shaped world” (Egan, 2014,

pp. 96-97). In his critique of Piaget, Egan (1983, 2014, p. 250) emphasizes that he does not wish to replace the cognitive with the affective, the rational with the imaginative; rather, he sees them as interdependent. In fact, he believes imagination to be a necessary and neglected component of rational, cognitive activity; for Egan, 'cognitive activity' that lacks imagination and affective components is desiccated and inadequate.

We have allowed curricula and instruction aimed at producing measurable learning to suppress or depress that imaginative activity . . . [We have] emphasized measurable 'products' over meaning, understanding, emotional significance, and, generally, imagination. (Egan, 1992, p. 113)

In the UK for example, the EYFS (Early Years Foundation Stage) (age 3-5) (DfE, 2014) with its emphasis on early learning goals and assessment has led to imbalance between play and teaching and squeezed out time for imaginative, child-led play in response to stories (Nicolopoulou, 2010). In a review of the literature Zigler & Bishop-Josef (2009) consider that "play is under siege" with dire implications for children's cognitive, social and physical development. Bodrova (2008, p. 367) has argued that:

By scaffolding make-believe play and making sure it does exist in its most mature form, we can positively impact not only the development of play itself, but also the development of early academic skills.

In order to play children must use their imaginations. Egan (1992) believes that the key strategy for developing the imagination is narrative. He claims that any event or behaviour only becomes intelligible by finding its place in story. However, educators must not assume that Egan's emphasis on the affective is intended to displace the cognitive, indeed Egan sees the two as inextricably linked. Like other critics (e.g. Bettelheim 1991) he decries the educational focus on certain limited, logical, intellectual activities to the detriment of children's imaginative and affective development. Egan (1992, p. 71) believes that children's imaginations are more readily stimulated by content that engages their emotions than content that does not. He suggests that, "the tool we have for dealing with knowledge and emotions together is the story". It is stories that have the power to engage the emotional commitment of their hearers, which in turn, promotes thinking (Murriss & Haynes, 2005).

Egan points out that human beings' manner of making sense of experience is profoundly mediated by emotions. How we feel about, and feel during, the sequences of our lives is of central importance:

So the affective connection is also the story connection. Whenever our emotions are involved, so too is a narrative, a story or story fragment, that sets the context and the meaning. The role of the story is fundamental to our sense-making, and in education where sense-making is of primary concern, it is still largely neglected. (Egan, 1992, p. 113)

If narrative understanding is a primary meaning-making tool, then it becomes of the utmost interest to find out how best to engage narrative modes of thought. For Bruner (1996, p. 133, 136), understanding an idea through narrative means a number of things. First, imposing a “structure of committed time”, at the very least a beginning, middle and end; second, locating the text in a genre to help people both envisage and talk about the human condition by “assimilating them [events] to the shape of comedy, tragedy, irony, romance”; and third, asserting that “actions have reasons” for what people do in narratives is “motivated by beliefs, desires, theories, values or other intentional states”. Narrative actions imply intentional states.

If children are to make sense of events in the world through a narrative mode of thought they need to interpret them in terms of ‘who, where, when and why’. If children are to make meaning out of classroom texts they need to ‘story’ them. When children create different story versions to explain events, they engage in narrative negotiation in order to reach an agreement on how to interpret the world and in the process engage in philosophizing. Research shows that children as young as three are able to engage in such activity (Stanley & Lyle, 2017).

What Egan brings to our attention so sharply is the tendency of us as practitioners to set up a false dichotomy between the affective and the cognitive. He argues that there is no cognitive gain if the affective is not engaged. Unless we care about the topic and have some emotional engagement with it, the cognitive will not follow – it is not a case of either/or, for true learning to take place we must have both. He points out that the story is the primary way in which we think about our lives and our worlds, we live and breathe through story. Without story, we don't exist. It follows therefore that story must be the starting point for curriculum planning. Find a good story and as practitioners we will get emotional engagement.

Let's stop for a moment and consider some of the implications for these claims. I am arguing that the presence of abstract concepts in stories told to young children across space and time is a universal truth and provides a challenge to a widely accepted belief that young children cannot engage with such concepts. This raises an important challenge to such logic: why would all cultures everywhere share such stories if young children could not engage with them?

In the 20th century, following Piaget, the specialists of child development accepted children's thinking as moving from the simple to the complex, from the concrete to the abstract and following this, hierarchical devices such as Bloom's taxonomy of thinking skills emerged. For Egan such views of child development have "got it wrong from the beginning" (Egan, 2004). If he is right then much of what passes for good practice in the Early Years will need critiquing and challenging on an ongoing basis. Let us consider in more detail how a story-telling curriculum might work.

EGAN'S TOOLKIT FOR LEARNING

Egan has considered the implications of the theory of narrative understanding across the whole age range from 5-18. I go on now to discuss how we have applied some of this theoretical work to the Early Years curriculum, to a context of working with children aged 3-5 years old. Egan asks us to consider some of the components of good stories to help us identify tools to help plan how we use them to shape our curriculum. To illustrate, consider the stalwarts of children's stories across the world such as Cinderella (over 700 versions found worldwide), Little Red Riding Hood or Jack and the Beanstalk and their capacity to mediate abstract concepts for children through the device of binary opposites. Concepts such as rich and poor, ugliness and beauty, cleverness and stupidity, good and evil, cowardice and bravery provide rich pickings for children's thinking to begin to complicate these seemingly straightforward binaries.

Such claims were supported by the work of Paley in her kindergarten class over 38 years. We see in many of the children's discussions recorded by Paley (1987) the cognitive device of binary opposites. We can also see that binaries played a central part in the exploration of "The Three Billy Goats Gruff" discussed above. As children considered the concepts of strong/weak; strong/clever; goodies/baddies; kind/unkind; bravery/cowardice in their play and in their dis-

cussions, they were able to inhabit the story for themselves. We can therefore see that Egan's (2014) argument for the central role that binary opposites play in mediating young children's understanding of story and therefore of the world are born out in classroom practice and are an important planning tool in a storytelling curriculum. It is important to identify the binary opposites in the stories we choose to share with our children to aid our planning.

Egan also identifies other tools for us to capitalize on in the early years' setting. He refers to the importance of rhythm, rhyme and pattern in story that resonate with a child's natural way of learning. There are surely few early years' practitioners that would disagree with the notion that stories, poems, and songs are nourishing food for young minds. The early year's classroom has always resonated with the sound of singing, nursery rhymes and poetry. In the videos, we made of the classroom portrayed above the children quickly began to join in with the rhythmic 'trip-trap', and 'hop-and-skip' and to sing along with 'I'm a Troll foldy-roll'. Role-playing the story came very naturally to the children. As Paley (2005) argues, "fantasy play and its immediate connection to story-telling and acting are universally accepted by children" and metaphor is central to this process and it is therefore not surprising to find metaphor identified by Egan as a key cognitive tool (Lyle, 2008b).

In a fantasy-rich classroom children share and shape metaphors: a door-shape piece of cardboard nailed to the classroom skirting board becomes a 'fairy door', a piece of blue cloth laid on the floor becomes a river to be crossed, creating the need for a 'bridge' to help the fairies get home or the goats to reach the sweet green grass. A poison river made of blocks threatens the doll corner at its shore, a net covered in cut out paper leaves becomes a forest and a 'magic' cloak turns its wearer into a superhero (Paley, 2005). In our story bean-bags became the fields of 'sweet green grass', blue cloth the river and a set of cardboard tubes fixed together with elastic bands a bridge.

Fantasy and imagination are clearly the stuff of early childhood and are rich in metaphor. For the young child, a cardboard box can become almost anything, a pencil a magic wand, a piece of cloth a device for making you invisible, a table with a cloth thrown over it becomes a cave or a castle, and yet metaphor doesn't figure in our curriculum documents and requirements for young children.

Egan also recommends drama and role-play as a key tool to promote children's understanding and a chance to fully inhabit the stories they are exploring. Here again, Paley's years of experience and research support Egan's theory. She recounts how fantasy play enables children to experience abstract concepts and

binary opposites as they move from one strong emotion to the next, “from pleasure to jealousy, from power to abandonment to recovery” (Paley 2005, p. 13). She also makes a fundamental point that in fantasy play children “stretch their language and logic beyond our expectations” – a key requirement of the curriculum and aim of all teachers. The ‘Storytelling Curriculum’ makes time for embodied and experiential learning, as the children play at being goats and ‘trip-trap’ over the bridge and run from the ‘horrible Troll’, they embody the story; as they role-play the story using puppets and props they communicate and express their understanding; this prioritization of the children’s imagination facilitates such learning. Stanley (2008,) has carefully documented the language of play collected in her role as ‘story-spy’ in her early year’s classroom and provides empirical evidence of how abstract concepts in stories are explored by children their through ‘philosophical play’ (Stanley, 2011).

So far we have considered the work of philosophers, psychologists, linguists and practitioners. We turn now to the cognitive sciences and in particular to the research of Professor Alison Gopnik and her team. Their work supports ideas of the affective, cognitive and inter-relational as central tenets of early years practice thus challenging the long-held and dominant Piagetian discourses of provision.

COGNITIVE SCIENCE AND THE YOUNG CHILD

Support for Egan’s view of the importance of the child’s imagination comes from Gopnik (2012, 2016) and her team of cognitive scientists who have been engaged in research into the young child for over a quarter of a century. They tell us that by the age of 2-3, many of the child’s waking hours are spent in a world of imagination, as they create possible universes and assume different identities and become super-heroes, fairies, witches, knights, and princesses. These young children are also able to consider alternative scenarios put forward by other children and imagine their consequences, ‘if...then’ – an important thinking skill, for example, ‘*If* the goat was able to butt the troll into the river, *then* he must be strong’. Gopnik’s (2012) research shows that causal knowledge about the world and counterfactuals go together: they allow children to use their imaginations to explore alternative possibilities and use this knowledge to make predictions about the future, to explain the past and to imagine other possible worlds. It is worth considering these causal maps of the physical world in more detail.

By three years old a young child's brain has constructed a kind of unconscious causal map, an accurate picture of how the physical world works. A map, Gopnik (2012) tells us, is a very efficient device for constructing different cognitive blueprints, pictures of what will happen as you move yourself through space. Together with counterfactuals these causal maps give imagination its power – it's what makes creativity possible. When we know how events are connected we can imagine altering those connections and creating new ones. It's because we know about this world that we can create possible worlds (Bruner, 1986). The three-years-old pretending to be a fairy princess or a knight on horseback is therefore demonstrating a uniquely human kind of intelligence. Our three year olds deciding whether or not the troll or one of the goats was stronger are forced to deal with the counterfactual of the smaller and apparently weaker goat being able to defeat the giant troll.

At the same time as they are developing their understanding of the physical world necessary for causal maps, these very young children are developing theories of mind – psychological causal maps. Knowing how people's minds work, imagining what they might do is essential for pretend play.

It is the world of stories that help young children develop skills of empathy, skills that Gopnik (2012, 2016) tells us the very young child displays. In our nursery classroom, most children thought the Troll was unredeemably 'naughty' and were asked to consider, 'What if we play with him – can he become kind?' 'What might happen?' Psychological counterfactuals reflect the way people might be and how they might act. As the children disagreed about whether they would rather be 'strong' or 'clever' they discover that different people have different beliefs and behave differently because they have different kinds of minds. It is this understanding of the minds of others – psychological causality – that allows us to maintain complex social networks and to develop culture (Lyle, 2011). It is the story that provides the vehicle for such development.

If we consider some of the detail of Gopnik's research (2012, 2016) we find that between 15-18 months a child has developed a theory of mind and is capable of empathy, and by the time a child is two she has an understanding of the physical world – of cause and effect. The two-year-old also understands counter-factuals – the 'what-ifs' of the world; she can understand and use metaphors and can pretend using props. By the time she is 3-4 she can pretend without a prop. In her most recent book presenting the implications of her research findings, Gopnik (2016, p. 15) tells us that children from the age of six months can pretend and by the age of two live in their own imaginations and in fantasy worlds:

...one of the great discoveries of the past few years has been that even very young children can imagine new possibilities and consider new ways they themselves, or the world around them, could be.

What Gopnik has done is show us that when a young child is able to respond to a 'What if...?' scenario they demonstrate their understanding of causal connections between things in the world and furthermore show that they are able to predict other possible events as being the outcome of such an occurrence. They can also imagine themselves acting in this possible scenario in order to try out how they might affect events. Young children are also able to consider alternative scenarios put forward by other children and imagine their consequences. In fact, causal knowledge about the world and counterfactuals go together; they allow children to use their imaginations to explore alternative possibilities and they use their knowledge to make predictions about the future, to explain the past and to imagine other possible worlds.

Of course, it is not just the young child who thinks about counter-factuals. In fact all human beings are constantly imagining, 'what would happen if...?' We all create counter-factuals about possible futures because we are responsible for the future and can imagine how we would like and not like it to be and choose to act accordingly by drawing on our social imaginations. As philosopher Fricker (2009) has argued the social imagination is a mighty resource for social change and has the capacity to inform our thinking directly, children need opportunities to engage their social imaginations – should we save the Troll? What might happen if we play with him? Adults also create counter-factuals about the past and consider how things might have been if we had acted differently and children need to have the opportunity to explore counter-factuals – although he is strong and mean, the Troll might become kind. This Gopnik (2012) argues is what it means to be human. We are beings who can hope for the future and make plans to get the kind of future we want, as well as regret or be disappointed about the past and imagine how life would be different if the past had been different. This is part of the human condition. Even if we wanted to, we couldn't escape considering possible pasts and futures. Gopnik (2012) goes further to claim that children's lives depend on their imaginations and play is the time they need to exercise this because it is play that has most to contribute to their learning.

Research from cognitive science and educational philosophy tells us that when we put story at the heart of our practice we open up possibilities for chil-

dren to be social actors with their own stories and understandings which they can bring to their engagement with other stories told to them.

In the next section, let us try and summarize how the theoretical framework offered by Bruner (1986, 1990, 1996), Egan (1989, 1992, 2014) and Gopnik (2012, 2016) amongst others can be incorporated into ‘The Storytelling Curriculum’ in the Early Years.

THE STORYTELLING CURRICULUM IN THE EARLY YEARS

We have argued (Stanley & Lyle, 2016) that children in the early year’s classroom should be immersed in story and fantasy play, role-play and dialogue, as these are the vehicles that promote intellectual growth and emotional intelligence. The traditional story with its binary opposites mediating abstract concepts provides a wealth of imaginative stimulus and emotional engagement for the young child. Children’s ability to engage with metaphors encouraged and celebrated.

An opportunity for children to play with story is provided through the creation of fantasy role-play areas, making puppets and props available, constructing places for acting out the stories and modeling of play by teachers. Shared pretend play makes high demands for imaginary and cooperative interaction. As Goswami in a review for the Cambridge Primary Review argued (2015, p. 14):

Shared socio-dramatic play provides a large number of opportunities for reflecting upon one’s own and others’ desires, beliefs and emotions – sharing mental states.

The teacher in our example provides an example of the role of the adult in the shared activity she planned around the story of the ‘Billy Goats Gruff’. She made effective use of Vygotsky’s (1980) zone of proximal development (ZPD) by instigating shared activity to mediate the children’s acquisition, mastery and internalization of the story and understanding of the abstract concepts identified in the story. She provoked puzzlement in the children by raising questions about the concepts embedded in the story and made good use of modeling questioning and possible responses to the questions and involved the children in exploration of the concepts through play.

It follows from this that story and story-telling should have a central place in our work with young children. As the introductory vignette illustrates, it is story that has the power to engage children's interest and stimulate their imagination. It fulfills Egan's request for pattern, rhythm, and rhyme. Story has the power to promote wondering and thinking – what if the troll can become kind? – and plays a central role in both language acquisition and articulation and, as our example suggests, through this the exploration of abstract concepts– is it better to be strong or clever? Introduce moral problems to be solved – should we help the troll? It therefore also has an important role to play in the development of personal, social and emotional intelligence and can create a zone of proximal development for new mental processes (Vygotsky, 1980).

In a recent book summarizing some of her ideas, Paley (2005) declares herself an ardent proponent of fantasy play. She argues that anyone who spends time with young children will quickly recognize their passionate attachment to fantasy and their need to create, tell and act out their own narratives. Her books present young children as complex thinkers who need to express their thoughts through play to bring them to life. She goes further and suggests that fantasy play is a necessary precursor for every kind of learning in classrooms.

In choosing appropriate stories for the 3-5 year olds, Paley argues that traditional stories are always emotionally engaging and appealing to children:

Fairy tales stimulate the child's imagination in a way that enlarges the vocabulary, extends narrative skills, and encourages new ideas. (Paley, 1987, p. 128)

As Paley (2005) suggests, "Pretending enables us to ask, 'What if?'" – the counterfactuals that Gopnik refers to. For Paley fantasy play should be the foundation of early childhood education and she provides evidence from her own classroom to support this (Paley, 1987; 1991). Such views are also supported by Vygotsky (1962) who strongly argues for the role of fantasy play to support children's exploration of ideas; such play should not be seen as competing with academic learning, but enhancing it (Bodrova, 2008, p. 358).

In line with this thinking, we introduce problem-solving to our storytelling curriculum. The children received a letter from the Billy Goats telling them the bridge has fallen down and they can't get back to the field on the other side – can the children help? In designing and making a new bridge the children link physical cause and effect to their imaginations. This practice of combining reason and imagination through improvised problem-solving and role-playing helps

children anticipate possible situations and outcomes and prompts their visions of different solutions to problems (Worth, 2008). In the problem-solving process, they develop the language and comprehension to articulate and negotiate plans and solutions (Berkowitz, 2011).

In sum, good stories have rhythm, pattern and repetition that the young brain thrives on. Good stories are clearly set in physical and psychological worlds and provoke an imaginative and reasoned response. Stories like 'The Three Billy Goats Gruff' can be used to promote empathy, the selection and justification of ideas as well as inviting the 'what if' questions that the young child can engage with.

Traditional childhood stories are conceptually rich and because children enjoy hearing them over and over again they have the power to promote language assimilation and articulation and are especially important as more and more children across the world join school speaking a mother tongue that is not the language of instruction.

In early years' settings across the world, practitioners are under enormous pressure to introduce skills related to the development of literacy at the expense of traditional early childhood activities (Bodrova, 2008) and in these contexts fantasy play rarely features as a planned aspect of the curriculum. It has therefore been important to carry out research into how the use of story as a stimulus to fantasy play also relates to literacy development (Lyle & Bolt, 2016).

LINKS TO LITERACY

In the context of literacy education, in a special issue of the journal of 'Reading and Writing', Murriss & Kell (2016) argue that imagination as a meaning-making faculty receives remarkably little attention. Standardised national curricula are premised on assumptions about how people's minds develop and therefore how literacy should be taught – a focus that is mainly focused on cognitive development. Murriss (2016) wants us to see imagination as a central part of thinking differently about literacy education. She argues that imagination should be conceptualized as a central part of becoming literate, of reaching for something new in both expression and communication. In a powerful plea for the arts and in particular visual ways of making meaning, Murriss & Thompson (2016) present research from the classroom where children used drawing to represent their thoughts about a picture book that unleashes their 'intelligent imagination' to

explore abstract concepts visually. Such thinking follows Vygotsky's (1962) assertion that creating an imaginary situation can be regarded as a means of developing abstract thought. Furthermore, play impacts on literacy development by affecting oral language development as well as imagination and metalinguistic awareness (Vygotsky, 1980). This understanding of the relationship between literacy and the imagination is also supported by Gopnik's (2012) claim that young children live in their imaginations. These ideas informed our work with the 'Storytelling Curriculum' because it puts imagination and story center-stage.

Curriculum planning

To help our curriculum planning, we draw on the work of Booker (2005) who puts forward the thesis that all narratives draw on one or more of seven basic plots that form the archetypal themes which recur throughout every kind of storytelling, not only for children, but for adults, not only orally or through books, but in film and TV, and in the media. In selecting stories that encapsulate these basic plots we can introduce children to the entire repertoire of stories that exist in the world. By drawing on these stories in the early years we can be sure that children will be familiar with all seven basic plots and be well prepared for story-writing (Lyle, 2014).

'The Billy Goats Gruff' can be located in Booker's 'Overcoming the Monster' plot, where a hero or heroine overcomes the monster troll. The listening child can identify with these heroes. Fortunately, most children live in the security of a home with adults who protect them. Stories like this introduce them to the world beyond home where danger might lie. There are many stories of this kind including such favourites as 'The Three Little Pigs', 'Red Riding Hood' or 'Hansel and Gretel' where children see that it is possible to escape from danger and get home safe and sound.

All stories introduce children to narrative structure – they have beginnings, middles, and endings. For a story to work it needs characters and settings, plot, rift, and resolution. 'Overcoming the Monster' stories begin with a main character who is immature and somewhat naïve but who is basically good. In the middle of the story the character meets a dark power whose presence threatens them. The ending of the story provides the resolution when the dark power is overthrown and our hero or heroine wins the day. Following on from 'overcoming the monster' stories, we suggest teachers introduce the plot of 'Voyage and Return'. The

essence of voyage and return is that its hero or heroine travel out of their familiar, everyday 'normal' surroundings into another world where everything seems abnormal. The hero/heroine is threatened, even trapped until, through a thrilling escape, they can return to the safety of the familiar world.

This storyline is developed through the story of 'Goldilocks and the Three Bears'. Goldilocks has left her home and gone into the forbidden forest and gets lost. She comes across a mysterious house belonging to the three bears. She is hungry and eats the bears' breakfast, sits in their chairs and sleeps in baby bear's bed. When the bears return the sense of threat comes nearer as the bears climb the stairs and discover Goldilocks fast asleep. She wakes up and makes a daring escape by jumping out of the window and running back safely to home.

Following Egan (1986) we begin planning how to use this story by identifying the binary opposites contained in it. There are two types of such opposites: physical and psychological. The physical includes the binaries of human/animal, big/small, hard/soft, up/down, hot/cold, home/away. All of these concrete physical concepts will later be used as metaphors for children to use to create effect in their writing as reflected in popular idioms, for example, 'she blows hot and cold', she's as 'soft as butter', or 'hard as nails', some days 'he's up and others he's down'. Secondly, the psychological and discursive binaries in Goldilocks include naughty/obedient, good/bad, fear/safety, stealing/giving, kind/unkind. Young children through play are able to explore these abstract concepts. Traditional childhood stories are conceptually rich and because children enjoy hearing them over and over again they have the power to enrich language as well as imagination and thinking.

Sharing the stories

Traditional stories once selected should be told as they have always been told: orally. Oral storytelling to small groups enables eye-contact between the story-teller and the children and allows the story-teller to emphasis the rhythm, rhyme, and pattern in stories to engage the very young and to respond to the children in front of them (Berkowitz, 2011). Our experience suggests this may be hard for many practitioners in the early year that may lack confidence to tell an oral story. This has implications for staff training. Training in the Storytelling Curriculum should therefore include helping staff gain skills in oral storytelling. They need to learn how to read the children's responses as they raise their voices or

lower them to a whisper, as they lean forward or jump up, invite children to mime actions or join in refrains. Oral storytelling is a dance of listening and responding that unfolds between teacher and children and is an art that can be learned.

In our work we have found that when children encounter stories regularly their imaginations are stimulated, they bring aspects of the stories to their play and in turn start to create their own stories (Stanley & Lyle, 2016). However, as our Billy Goat example above shows, it is necessary (but definitely not sufficient) for children to merely listen to stories. Young children need time to play with the stories they hear and this can be supported by staff using imaginative ideas to scaffold children's learning, by providing appropriate props and opportunities, as illustrated in our opening vignette and through presenting problems arising for story characters that need solving, by exploring the abstract concepts embedded in the stories.

When we put story at the heart of our practice we open up possibilities for children as social actors who have their own stories and understandings that they bring to their engagement with the stories told to them. In role-play children embody characters that our video evidence shows as they change their voices and movements to bring the stories alive. Our video evidence of the 'Billy Goats Gruff' role-plays saw children using their voices to distinguish between the smallest and largest Billy goat, between the Troll and the goats, how sometimes they took on the role of narrator to admonish the characters. They used their bodies differently depending on which character they were representing; thus, showing their understanding of the narrative as well as the attitudes and values of the characters. They recalled the repetitive phrases, "Who's that trip-trapping over my bridge?", as they acted out the movements with puppets or their bodies. And so they develop their '100 languages' (Cagliari *et al.*, 2016) as they used space and time, movement and sound, pattern and rhythm, props and artefacts to physically enact the story and gain confidence as story-tellers.

This is not to underestimate the importance of sharing books with children. However, we suggest this is best done 1:1 or 1:2, particularly for children from backgrounds where sharing books is not part of their daily experience. We recommend that every child should share a story with an adult at least once every day. Research shows that some children start school at four having had over 5000, 1:1 interactions sharing a book with an adult (Tassoni, 2014). Other children have only ever had a group story (*ibidem*). It is important that all children have 1:1 interaction with a variety of books, that they have time to turn the pages, point and begin to ask questions. This means allocating ten minutes 1:1 for each child

who does not have this experience outside the setting every day. This may be difficult to achieve in many settings but is so important that we recommend it be protected as a right of every child. This is a key way to prevent children arriving in a reception class with low levels of vocabulary, knowledge, and few experiences of books.

To summarize, Egan wants us to think of the curriculum as a story-to-be-heard and a story-to-be-told (Egan,1989). He reminds us that good stories are always emotionally engaging – an essential prerequisite in his framework. Having identified how the curriculum can be told through story he asks us to identify what binary opposites best capture the meaning and emotion of the topic. In our work a philosophy for children pedagogic approach supports children's exploration of these abstract concepts. Next Egan asks us to develop images, metaphors, and other forms of creative depiction to promote affective engagement. We are asked to think about what activities can help children experience rhythm, rhyme and pattern, and finally to consider how drama and role-play can enhance children's experience. Extending this by identifying how the teacher can create joint activity to support the zone of proximal development through the practice of philosophy for children that includes modeling questioning, making choices, giving reasons for choices and making connections between ideas supports children's critical, creative ,and collaborative thinking. We have found that these guidelines offer an important planning tool for the Early Years' practitioner.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has been about pedagogy and planning in the early year's classroom, something that is currently a matter of explicit political and value-laden decision-making throughout Europe and North America. We see governments that worry about standards of literacy and directly intervene in prescribing and/or promoting particular approaches, even when these clash with significant research evidence to the contrary (Hodginson, 2005). I have argued that we should focus on learning as something that is socially enacted through the practices the teacher and children engage in together, a relational pedagogy. All teachers we have worked with to introduce 'The Storytelling Curriculum' in their classrooms have valued the emotional and cognitive engagement of the children with the stories. They recognize its power to support children's cognitive, affective, lan-

guage and emotional development. By observing their play and recording it on video or audio or in teacher notes, they are able to examine it later and reflect on the children's progress and more importantly the children's thinking and meaning-making processes that can inform their planning. Practitioners involved in our research contrast this approach favourably with current schooling rationalities that recommend step-by-step teaching of skills accompanied by check-lists, targets and assessment scores (Lyle & Bolt, 2016). For these practitioners, a relational pedagogy has the potential to make teaching and learning an emotionally and cognitively satisfying experience for teachers as well as children.

'The Storytelling Curriculum' is built on the assumption that all people are social beings embedded in relationships; knowledge is not something 'out there' for people to discover, or to be transmitted. It is constructed by each of us in relationships with others as we share experiences and develop ideas and understandings about what those experiences mean. As Gopnik (2016) has shown, such understanding starts from the moment of birth and should guide our curriculum planning. Following Biesta (2006) early years practitioners should think of their classrooms as an opportunity for the children to find and speak in their own voices, (such as the child who thought we could teach the troll to be kind by playing with him) and that these voices may be expressed orally, through role-play, drawing or playing with material objects. It therefore draws on Reggio-inspired practices that value the '100 languages of children' (Cagliari et al, 2016).

In settings using this approach, children appropriate the cultural practice of storytelling by engaging in it together. The knowledge they generate through this relational pedagogy is not just a rational knowing but one that fully acknowledges the affective, the emotional, the empathetic, and intuitional. The theory of narrative understanding as the primary meaning-making tool combined with the pedagogic practice of P4C should inform curriculum planning around story.

A curriculum rich in story is necessary for the Storytelling Curriculum approach to be successful. Children need to be immersed every day in a rich variety of stories that include fairy-tales, picture books and books children have created themselves. Children need opportunities to listen, act out and produce their own stories. Continual provision should be made for role-play, puppets, small-world play and other drama-based approaches to engage the emotional commitment of pupils that is the prerequisite for cognitive attainment (Lyle, 2014). To do this, teachers need to identify abstract conceptual binaries in stories and plan activities to explore these concepts and challenge in their charge to make the ZPD for the development of new mental processes.

REFERENCES

- Bettelheim, B. (1976). *The Uses of Enchantment: The Meaning and Importance of Fairy Tales*. New York: Random House.
- Bettelheim, B. (1991). *The Informed Heart*. London: Penguin.
- Berkovitz, D. (2011). Oral Storytelling. Building Community through Dialogue, Engagement, and Problem Solving. *Young Children*. March, 36-40.
- Bodrova, E. (2008). Make-believe play versus academic skills: a Vygotskian approach to today's dilemma of early childhood education. *European Early Childhood Research Journal*, Vol. 16:3, 357-369.
- Biesta, G.J. (2006). *Beyond learning*. Paradigm Publishers: Boulder, CA.
- Booker, C. (2005). *The Seven Basic Plots: why we tell stories*. London: Continuum.
- Bruner, J. (1986). *Actual Minds, Possible Worlds*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bruner, J. (1990). *Acts of Meaning*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bruner, J. (1996). *The Culture of Education*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Cagliari, P., Castagnetti, M., Giudici, C., Rinaldi, C., Vecchi, V. and Moss, P. (2016). *Loris Malaguzzi and the Schools of Reggio Emilia: A selection of his writings and speeches, 1945-1993*. London: Routledge.
- Department for Education (DfE) (2014). *Statutory framework for the early years foundation stage. Setting the standards for learning, development and care for children from birth to five*. Crown Copywrite: www.gov.uk/government/publications. Reference: DFE-00337-2014.
- Egan, K. (1983). *Education and Psychology: Plato, Piaget and Scientific Psychology*. New York: Teachers' College Press.
- Egan, K. (1989). *Teaching as Story Telling*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Egan, K. (1992). *Imagination in Teaching and Learning*. New York: Routledge.
- Egan, K. (2004). *Getting it wrong from the beginning: our progressive inheritance from Herbert Spencer, John Dewey and Jean Piaget*. London: Yale University Press.
- Egan, K. (2005). *An Imaginative Approach to Teaching*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Egan, K. (2014). *Primary Understanding: Education in Early Childhood*. London: Routledge. Reprint edition.
- Fricker, M. (2009). *Epistemic Injustice and the Ethics of Knowing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Gopnik, A. (2012). *The Philosophy Baby*. London: Bodley Head.
- Gopnik, A. (2016). *The Carpenter and the Gardener*. London: Bodley Head.
- Gussin-Paley, V. (1987). *Wally's Stories: Conversations in the Kindergarten*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Gussin-Paley, V. (1991). *The Boy Who Would be a Helicopter: Uses of Storytelling in the Classroom*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Gussin-Paley, V. (2005). (New Ed). *A Child's Work: The Importance of Fantasy Play*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Hodkinson, P. (2005). Learning as cultural and relational: moving past some troubling dualisms. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, Vol. 35:1, 107–119.
- Goswami, U. (2015). *Children's Cognitive Development and Learning*. York: Cambridge Primary Review Trust.
- Lipman, M. (1988). *Philosophy goes to school*. Philadelphia, P.A: Temple University Press.
- Lyle, S. & Bolt, A. (2016). What brings children to writing and energises their efforts. In C.J. McLachlan & A.W. Arrow (eds.), *Literacy in the Early Years: Reflections on International Research and Practice*. Springer.
- Lyle, S. (2014). Incorporating Literacy into Imaginative Play. *School Leadership Today*, Vol. 5.3, 71-77.
- Lyle, S. (2012). How the Young Child's Mind Works. *Creative Teaching and Learning*, Vol. 3.4-5, 18-20.
- Lyle, S. (2008a). Dialogic Teaching: Discussing Theoretical Contexts and Reviewing Evidence from Classroom Practice. *Language and Education*, Vol. 22:3, 222-240.
- Lyle, S. (2008b). Mythic Understanding. *Teaching Thinking and Creativity*, Vol. 8.5, 20-24.
- Lyle, S. (2000). Narrative understanding: Developing a theoretical context for understanding how children make meaning in classroom settings. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 32(1), 45-63.
- Murris, K. (2016). *The posthuman child: Educational transformation through philosophy with picturebooks*. London: Routledge.
- Murris, K.S. & Kell, C. (2016). Imagination and literacy: Introduction to the special issue. *Reading and Writing*, Vol. 7:2, 1-5.
- Murris, K.S. & Thompson, R. (2016). Drawings as imaginative expressions of philosophical ideas in a Grade 2 South African literacy classroom. *Reading & Writing* 7(2), a127. Available at: [http:// dx.doi.org/10.4102/rw.v7i2.127](http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/rw.v7i2.127).

- Murris, K. & Haynes, J. (2005). *Storywise: Thinking Through Stories*. Dialogue Works.
- Nicolopoulou, A. (2010). The alarming disappearance of play from Early Childhood Education. *Human Development*, Vol. 53, 1-4.
- Rosen, H. (1985). *Stories and Meanings*. Sheffield, UK: National Association of Teachers of English.
- Stanley, S. & Lyle, S. (2016). Tuning in to Philosophical Play by Children in the Early Years classroom. In M. Rollins Gregory, J. Haynes & K. Murris (eds.), *The Routledge International Handbook of Philosophy for Children*. London: Routledge.
- Stanley, S. (2008). *But Why?* London: Continuum.
- Stanley, S. (2011). *Why Think? Philosophical Play from 3-11*. London: Bloomsbury.
- Tassoni, P. (2014). *Getting It Right for Two Year Olds: A Penny Tassoni Handbook*. London: Hodder Education.
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1962). *Thought and Language*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1980). *Mind in Society*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Worth, S. (2008). Storytelling and Narrative Knowing: An Examination of the Epistemic Benefits of Well-Told Stories. *Journal of Aesthetic Education*, 42 (3), 42-56.(3)l
- Zigler, E.F. & Bisop-Josef, S.J. (2009). Play under Siege: A Historical Overview. *Zero to Three*, Vol. 30:1, 4-11.

12 Between Submission and Independence – Locus of Control as a Factor Determining the Choosing of The Teaching Profession and Teacher Efficacy

Abstract

The article focuses on the locus of control as one of the potential determinants of choosing the teaching profession and a key factor determining the efficiency in this occupation. Provided data suggests that from the point of view of teacher's professional achievements, they should be characterized by an internal locus of control, although the specifics of the school environment might involve in such case some difficulties of intra- and interpersonal nature. The results of research conducted with the participation of teachers employed in Warsaw primary schools are the exemplification of the texts theoretical considerations.

Key words: teacher, locus of control, teacher professional efficacy, choosing the teaching profession.

INTRODUCTION

A reliable analysis of the crucial and most characteristic properties of vocations operating in today's labor market, must lead inevitably to the conclusion that the teaching profession, undoubtedly, in a significant way stands out from the rest – both from the point of view of its ascribed key social role and the associated responsibility, as well as from the perspective of all the inherent requirements and expectations addressed to the representatives of this particular work group.

Modern teacher must be a professional who holds all the attributes indispensable for the proper and efficient conduct of the most important of all the tasks entrusted to him – preparation of the next young generations to the efficient functioning in the rapidly expanding society of knowledge and mastering of the 21st century core competencies (Trilling & Fadel, 2009; Ananiadou & Claro, 2009). The responsibility resting on educators is therefore enormous – on their effectiveness depends not only the future of individuals, but also the local communities they belong to, and, from a wider perspective, the development of whole societies and nations.

A factor essential from the point of view of the successful implementation of the tasks outlined above is undoubtedly the awareness of the teacher that the set of knowledge and skills he/she acquired during the studies is insufficient and must be constantly broadened. What's more, alongside with all the systematic changes in the role of a professional teacher, the list of all the knowledge and abilities he should have at his disposal is constantly expanding. This raises the need for all the teachers to engage themselves in further potential-developing initiatives implemented in the context of continuous non-formal (various courses, workshops and trainings) and/or informal education (various forms of self-education and learning in the course of work or during various interactions with superiors, colleagues etc.) (Kwiatkowski, 2016, p. 33). Any activity of this kind constitutes a process known as **professional development** – it consists of all the experiences related to the natural learning process and the conscious and planned activities, which purpose is to directly or indirectly benefit the individual, group or school (Day, 2004, p. 21).

Founder of the psychoanalytic trend in psychology, Sigmund Freud, included the teaching profession to a group he referred to as “the impossible professions” which encompasses also the occupations related to health care and politics (Aichhorn, 1925, pp. 2-3). Freud ascribed teachers to this specific category primarily

because he was aware of the fact that even if they give their best and engage all their time and widely-understood potential in the execution of the tasks they have been given, they will never be fully capable of meeting all the requirements and fulfilling all the hopes of all the interested parties (superiors, officials, parents and pupils as the most important group in this context). First of all, the area of desired teacher actions is so vast that the daily presentation of each of them at a level that would satisfy all the concerned groups is simply impossible. Second, school work, above all, concerns working with students – children and youths. This type of occupation cannot be in any way compared with the predictability of all the activities based on the technical principles, involving routine activities and releasing the individual from the need to constantly analyze the situation in order to determine the optimal form of action relevant to the given circumstances.

Due to the fact that regardless of the undertaken actions teachers are not fully able to effectively respond to the whole range of the requirements imposed upon them, their vocational career is characterized by a never-ending process called “growing as a professional”. This means that even though reaching of the required ideal is not possible, constant striving to achieve it is the primary duty inscribed in the professional role of a modern teacher. Initiating and sustaining of that pursuit is mainly the responsibility of teachers and should be based on their own beliefs concerning the necessity of all the activities involved in this key process.

The human factor always involves an element of uncertainty, hence one of the most distinctive characteristics of the school work is ambiguity or, in other words, far-reaching unpredictability, which is an essential part of any relationship in which, teachers need to involve themselves in the course of their daily work (Kwiatkowska, 2008, pp. 11-13). As a result of such situation, teachers are required to have an expanded capacity to make autonomous, quick decisions, adequate to the requirements of the given case. Such an approach to this crucial issue indicates that one of the fundamental conditions of teaching effectiveness is based on the need that particular teacher will dispose a strong belief that he is in a position to make the right choices and deal with various obstacles, to which both his studies and all the subsequent forms of training could not fully prepare him. Thus, the teacher who wants to be effective must get rid of the assumption that the books and notes from college will provide him/her with all the answers to the questions that might arise during his work and that the operating procedures described within them will provide a comprehensive list of activities, sufficient to cope with all the potential problems, that might be encountered while teaching.

If we assume, referring to the considerations above, that choosing the teaching profession is a conscious and deliberate decision, taken by people who have at least an elementary and necessary knowledge of the various challenges that they will inevitably face after they start their kindergarten or school work, we can also optimistically assume they will not only understand the nature and specifics of this profession (and they should, because it is, after all, a profession all of us had a chance to observe during the whole period of schooling), but also, in effect, they will know perfectly well that a great deal of independence and lifelong learning – training and professional development – is going to be their completely natural duty – an essential and necessary condition for achieving the teachers' mastery.

The conclusion reached above is followed by another – if someone decides to work in a school, he (or she) should have the belief that he is able to cope with the demands posed to the teachers and that the continuous professional development inscribed in this occupation is dependent mainly on the individual's decisions and the actions that follow – this factor should be one of the most important determinants of choosing this profession, which is so vital from the social point of view. Therefore, the system needs teachers, who strongly believe that they have the qualities necessary to initiate change and operate with the knowledge that through their own decisions they are able, at least to some extent, to affect the fate of their students and also – their own.

It seems that, on the basis of the above reasoning, one can say that an effective teacher should be characterized primarily by the following properties:

- factual knowledge – necessary from the point of view of the teachers' basic task – the transmission of knowledge to students (teaching) – this basic demand is so obvious that it will not be discussed in the next sections,
- the ability to cope with the unpredictable – by maintaining the initiative and the ability to make quick decisions adequate to the requirements of the moment,
- awareness of the role played by engaging oneself in subsequent forms of education and training in pursuit of reaching the teachers' mastery.

The key term of the last two characteristics distinguished above is the belief regarding the extent of our impact on what happens to us in our everyday life (to what degree we are capable of shaping our own destiny) – depending on its' form both the performance in unpredictable work conditions and the willingness to become involved in continuing education can take on a completely different shape. This belief is very closely related to the psychological construct described in the next section of the article.

LOCUS OF CONTROL AS ONE OF THE DETERMINANTS OF CHOOSING THE TEACHING PROFESSION AND THE EFFECTIVENESS OF SCHOOL WORK

One of the key terms in the context of further considerations, essential from the perspective of this subsection, is **motivation** – a widely understood process relating to all the mechanisms responsible for initiating, directing, maintaining and completion of behavior (Ryan & Deci, 2000, pp. 54-55; Łukaszewski, 2000, p. 427). One of the fundamental questions various theories of motivation are trying to answer, refers to the causes of human activities and the choices people make regarding the specific forms of behavior (while other potential possibilities are rejected).

The supporters of the behaviorist approach in psychology would surely claim, on the basis of their studies and theories relating to the operant conditioning, that the motive underlying all the human activity is: 1) the desire to achieve pleasure (positive reinforcement) or 2) the desire to avoid discomfort (negative reinforcement, e.g. to avoid the negative consequences of undesirable behavior – shortly speaking, protection against punishment) (Zimbardo, Johnson & McCann, 2013, pp. 134-135). One of the reasons for the criticism of this approach to learning, were the views of its representatives on the causes of human behavior. Namely, they supported the assumption that regardless of the circumstances, the human activity is a result of external reinforcement (positive or negative), or different kinds of stimuli arising from the environment (see Łukaszewski & Doliński, 2000, p. 457) – the person is therefore, in their opinion, being passive and controlled from the outside (reactive). At the same time, they rejected the idea that various psychological processes (e.g. thoughts or emotions) could have an impact on the way people behave. Thus behavioral psychology is often referred to as the S-R psychology, where “S” stands for stimulus and “R” stands for reaction (Mietzel, 2008, p. 31).

The concept of learning forged within the cognitive approach, formed as an opposition to the behavioral approach, suggests the assumption according to which in some cases we can be indeed willing to take certain actions because of our expectations concerning rewards or punishments (eg. in accordance with the position of behaviorists), but at the same time emphasizes that this crucial process is much more complicated than behaviorists suggested and that the conditions they have neglected, as occurring in the so called “black box” (Watson, 1913),

play a key role in it. The cognitive orientation is associated with a very important thesis assuming that between stimulus and response several cognitive processes take place and that they determine the final human behavior – the external stimuli itself does not determine anything. The person may in fact behave in a certain way because, among other things, the particular activity itself is a source of positive sensations – it is an option completely rejected and not taken into account by the behaviorists (Mietzel, 2008, p. 178).

The inclusion of cognitive processes to the considerations explaining the determinants of human behavior is closely linked with the concept of motive, defined as “an internal mechanism causing agitation of the organism, leading to the selection and orientation of behavior” (Zimbardo *et al.*, 2013, p. 62). The term “motivation” comes from the Latin *emovere*, which means the process of setting something in motion (Mietzel, 2008, p. 265).

Modern psychology knows several typologies of motivation, but the most important is the one associated with the division taking into account the two main types, which are (Ryan & Deci, 2000, pp. 56-65; Łukaszewski & Doliński, 2000, p. 457; Zimbardo *et al.*, 2013, p. 62; Aronson, Akert & Wilson, 2006, p. 138):

- intrinsic motivation – the tendency of the subject to initiate and continue the action, on account of its very nature, e.g. it is pleasant or interesting (the person derives pleasure from the act itself or the act of anticipating its positive, beneficial consequences); its key feature is that the subject tends to act even in the absence of various types of rewards;
- extrinsic motivation – a tendency to take action on account of the external factors, which are a positive consequence of its execution – it occurs in such cases, in which the individual wishes to engage primarily due to the achievement of external results (e.g. getting prizes or avoiding punishment by submission in relation to the external requirements and pressure); externally motivated activity is therefore taken not because it is perceived as interesting or pleasant, though of course we cannot rule out a situation, in which both types of the motives – internal and external – coexist; in the analyzed case it is the extrinsic motivation that plays a leading role triggering the behavior.

We therefore deal with intrinsic motivation when an individual engages in certain behavior due to all the positive feelings that accompany the act itself or that derive from achieving the planned and important results. In the context of the foregoing considerations, there seems to be no doubt left about the fact that this type of motivation and the characteristics and internal processes that underlie it,

are typical primarily for those teachers for whom the choice of the teaching profession has been made on the basis of their calling and a true pedagogical passion visible in their daily work and reflected in its effects. For those teachers the very act of participation in the process of educating the young generations and awareness of the progress made by the pupils, is a reward, but understood differently than in the case of conventional reinforcement in the behavioristic sense – we are dealing here with positive emotional states, which John Watson and his followers incessantly did not want to study, because they considered them to be completely meaningless, and thus not worthy of any attention at all. Of course it would be a far-fetched abuse to claim that passionate teachers, who obtain such positive emotions from the very act of teaching, are in no need of any kinds of extrinsic motivation whatsoever. Like the representatives of any other profession, teachers surely wish to be properly appreciated for their work – both from the immaterial (e.g. the praise obtained from superiors or from parents, children's gratitude for their educational efforts, etc.) and material point of view (e.g. raises and bonuses) (see also *Karta Nauczyciela*, art. 49). It may therefore be assumed that from the perspective of teacher efficacy, the best possible situation is the one, in which the intrinsic motivation is predominant, but accompanied at the same time by its external counterpart. One should be fully aware however, that the incompetent use of reinforcements (creating the extrinsic motivation) in relation to a person with an already strong intrinsic motivation, e.g. in relation to a teacher-enthusiast, may entail negative consequences for his/hers attitude. Social psychology defines this type of situation as the so-called phenomenon of *overjustification effect*, which could lead to a situation in which large awards are actually counterproductive and their beneficiary has a tendency to explain his own behavior as a result of important external causes, while at the same time – to insufficiently appreciate the role of intrinsic motivation (Aronson *et al.*, 2006, p. 138).

It should be noted that, in relation to the changes in teachers professional role mentioned in the introduction, resulting from the continuous expansion of the catalog of proficiencies required of them, factors characteristic to intrinsic motivation are extremely important and greatly facilitate the process of mastering new knowledge, skills and social competences. Noticing various benefits and opportunities for their own development in new content and skills, and on the other hand – the possibility of making the lives of others better (e.g. the higher quality of school work, which provides the students with better education), gives any action in this field a personal dimension. It certainly affects the increase in the efficiency of teacher guided by such motives, which is no longer so easy to

find in the case when an educator acts mostly in order to seek profit or increase in the sphere of his current position/prestige (e.g. a promotion or a raise).

Cognitive theories of motivation have been one of the impulses that led to the formulation of the concept of **locus of control (loc)** (Rotter, 1966), which is crucial from the point of view of considerations and analysis described later in this article. Julian Rotter defined the locus of control, which has a crucial impact on the initiation of human behavior, as a generalized belief (expectation) one has on the nature of factors determining the consequences of his actions – the point is therefore the answer given by the individual to the question whether the control over life (concerning people in general, not just his own) is determined internally or externally (Rotter, 1966, p. 1; Zimbardo *et al.*, 2013, p. 66). The probability to become involved in certain behavior depends mainly on the relatively stable expectations the individual has relating to the extent to which he has the abilities necessary to control particular events that occur in his daily life. Analyzing these issues must of course take into account that both the external and internal determinants affect human behavior and the consequences of their actions. Individuals differ however when it comes to the degree of accuracy with which they perceive the actual form of these dependencies – this is vital, because on this basis people decide which type of conditions has more executive power. As a result of that decision and the analysis of the effects of the previous situations in which the person took part, a relatively permanent, generalized belief about whether the fundamental reason for its success/failure is sited in himself or rather in the external factors is shaped. These beliefs are based on the experiences dominant in the past – a key role is played here by the memories from early life, especially those concerning the relationship with the parents (Matczak *et al.*, 2009, p. 6; Rotter, 1966, p. 1; Bedel, 2012, p. 3052; Oleś, 2011, pp. 181-182) – therefore it can be assumed that the foundation of the analyzed psychological construct is set long before the moment, in which an individual decides on his professional path by choosing the field of study that, to a large extent, determines his future profession. It should be added that as a factor characterized by relative stability, locus of control can with time and due to gaining new experiences be modified (to some extent) – more often these alterations involve the transition from a sense of internal to external locus of control, than vice versa, though on the other hand, some studies show that while people get older, in majority of cases they shift towards the inner sense of control (see also Drwal, 1995).

It can therefore be assumed that the locus of control, as an internal quality relatively constant throughout the life and shaped primarily in its early stages,

belongs to a broad group of determinants of choosing the profession. If we look at it from the point of view of considerations presented in the Introduction, it seems reasonable to reach a more specific conclusion, relating directly to the teaching profession. Namely – teacher studies and their most natural consequence – starting a work in the kindergarten or at school, should be chosen mainly by those who know the specifics of this work and believe that they are able to cope with all of its indispensable requirements, fulfillment of which determines the effectiveness in the teaching profession (e.g. engaging in lifelong learning, the ability to make independent decisions). This means that the internal locus of control, which is described below, can be regarded as one of the determinants of choosing this particular vocational path.

Depending on the form of beliefs on personal agency, people can be divided into (Matczak *et al.*, 2009, pp. 7, 67; Bedel, 2012, p. 3052; Oleś, 2011, p. 182):

- those characterized by the external sense of control – they perceive the results of their activities and undertaken projects as dependent on will and actions of other people or random factors (e.g. destiny, luck or misfortune), or from the coincidence, which proves the complete unpredictability of any situation in which the person is involved; people with an external sense of control believe that the world is simply ‘organized’ in a way meant to prevent them from taking control over the results of their own actions – hence, this is not a matter of self-knowledge and self-esteem, but the general beliefs concerning the relatively stable laws governing the lives of all people;
- those characterized by the internal sense of control – they are convinced that they can influence the course of matters they are involved in, which results in a perception of the relationship between the actions they take or the characteristics they possess and the effects of their activities; they like to test their abilities and skills in action, they are conscientious employees, who are characterized by high motivation of achievement and activity in the context of all the actions they participate in; what is very important, among the internal determinants of their behavior there are both those factors, which depend on the individual (e.g. the effort put into the task), as well as those that are rather beyond the control of the individual (e.g. the abilities or the current health condition) – the effect of such an approach is, therefore, on the one hand the belief that some things can be achieved (through having all the dispositions required in the given situation, like specific competencies or willpower), while on the other hand, that certain effects cannot be achieved due to the lack of adequate intrinsic properties.

When considering the issue of interdependence between internal and external locus of control it should be emphasized that most researchers consider them not as two separate, opposing qualities, but as the two poles of the same dimension representing one personality trait (hence citing earlier data on the changes in the locus control, the term “shift” has been used) (Matczak *et al.*, 2009, p. 9).

The previous analysis showed, among other things, that the internal locus of control is associated with (Matczak *et al.*, 2009, pp. 7-8, 66-67, Plopa & Makarowski, 2010, pp. 38-57; Oleś, 2011, p. 159):

- greater effectiveness and overall well-being than in the case of its external counterpart,
- preference for situations in which the individual’s abilities play the main role (ability situations), whereas in case of external locus of control – favoring random situations (in which the individual has no influence on what is happening); this results from a simple relation:
 - in the first situation the individual has a real impact on the achieved results (hence, in this case, the internal locus of control motivates to initiate necessary actions and grants higher efficacy and on the other hand – the external loc raises the fear of failure and reduces the possibility of obtaining the desired results),
 - in the second case (random situations) the individual has no affect on what is going to happen and due to that people of internal type will experience fear or anxiety resulting from the lack of influence on the turn of events, whereas the external type will feel relieved from the responsibility and as a result, will be able to function more efficiently,
- the higher need for performance, greater tolerance of frustration and postponing of the gratification and the style of coping with stress focused on the task/problem,
- better quality and a wider range of interpersonal relationships maintained by the individual,
- increased self-reliance and independence,
- more realistic aspirations, due to the high level of analysis of information and situational factors relevant to the actions taken in specific situations,
- more efficient coping with stressful situations – locus of control, as a component of personality, is considered to belong to a broad group of the so-called stress moderators (mediators) – the factors that prevent stress or, if it already occurred, mitigate the stressors’ impact on the individual,

- potentially poorer adaptation to the situations, which one cannot control (as compared to the people characterized by the external locus of control).

From this text's point of view, the most important issue, is to examine the role played by the locus of control in the field of professional work – on this background questions relating directly to the people working in the teaching profession, essential for this article, will also be discussed.

Among the most interesting research results relating to the importance of the locus of control in the vocational area, were those which have shown that the internal locus of control is associated with (Judge & Bono, 2001, p. 80; Matczak *et al.*, 2009, pp. 15-19):

- higher managerial predispositions,
- higher level of general efficiency in the sphere of executing the professional duties,
- more advantageous attitudes towards work,
- a higher sense of satisfaction and job contentment.

The last three points seem to indicate clearly that individuals characterized by an internal locus of control are, in general, better employees. However, from the perspective of research carried out in this area, it is obvious that the indicated relationship is not universal – a lot depends on the nature of the given profession. This crucial issue is addressed in more details in the next section.

However, in light of the data presented above, concerning the highly significant differences between the both poles of the discussed internal characteristic, it is worth considering which locus of control type may be more beneficial and adaptive from the perspective of people working in the teaching profession – both in terms of efficacy of coping with the process of implementation of all the daily duties demanding a great deal of independence, as well as the conscious and voluntary involvement in various forms of continuous professional development.

At first it seems completely justified to reach a conclusion that the people, whose locus of control is closer to the “internal” side, are better adapted to operate effectively in the school environment with all its requirements arising from the multitude of diverse roles and responsibilities, especially since, as already mentioned above, it is closely associated with the most adaptable style of coping with stress – concentrated on the task/problem (Strelau *et al.*, 2013, pp. 15-17; see also Zimbardo *et al.*, 2013b, p. 185-186), which is particularly important given the fact that the school work with children and youth is one of the most stressful professions in the whole labor market (see Pyżalski & Merecz, 2010).

THE EFFECTIVE TEACHER – INDEPENDENT OR SUBMISSIVE?

The analysis of broadly understood issue of working in the teaching profession needs to pay special attention to the matters closely related to the locus of control – it has been emphasized in the previous considerations, that the locus of control type, optimal from the point of view of effective functioning in this profession, seems to be the internal one. The term ‘seems’ is used here for a reason – this issue is in fact not as obvious as one might think at the first glance. The specifics of school work make it necessary to initiate more detailed, in-depth analysis, and the result flowing from this reflection may be quite different than the conclusions that naturally come to mind at the first moment.

Referring to the previously mentioned list of benefits, which the internal locus of control grants in the work environment, it should be clearly noted that the conclusions that followed, are correct as long as they concern working in positions requiring autonomous actions, manifestations of individual initiative or independence and willingness to take risk. However, if work in a given profession requires performing simple and clear tasks, and, at the same time, showing far-reaching obedience to superiors is more important than showing initiative, individuals with external locus of control may turn out to be better employees (Spector, 1982, p. 486; Blau, 1993, pp. 134-135). This throws a completely new light on the role, which the type of locus of control can play in the efficient execution of the tasks entrusted to the modern teachers.

The nature of the teacher’s responsibilities and their position in the school hierarchy causes that on the one hand they are under the management of school and constant pedagogical supervision, but on the other hand, every day they have to direct and supervise the work of students (Matczak *et al.*, 2009, p. 55). Furthermore an important part of the school environment that to a large extent negatively affects the teachers’ development potential is the lack of control and co-decision (Kowalik, 2011, p. 353). Supplementing of the above information with the predictions relating to the fact that the experience of directing other people (e.g. the children in the classroom) promotes the internal locus control, and the need to submit to the superiors (e.g. the school principal) results in strengthening of the external type, leads to a very disturbing conclusion, which indicates that teachers must constantly (especially in the era of bureaucracy and centralization – see Śliwerski, 2013) function in a kind of duality – a dualism, where on the one hand they are required to submissively obey to the arbitrarily imposed standards and

the will of their superiors, and on the other – they are expected to perform high levels of such qualities desired in the modern world, as, for example, creativity and independence or permanent manifestation of self-initiative. Because of that, in the analyzed area we are dealing with a kind of dynamic co-variableness of professional situations, which strengthen the belief in one's own capabilities and the relevance of his/hers personal role, while at the same time may support the belief that independence is not advisable in many cases and that exercising daily duties should rather be based on the decisions of others, who stand higher in the hierarchy of power.

The results of a study, which was attended by the representatives of six widely understood professions – alongside teachers, also managers, specialists, officials, manual workers and uniformed services (a more detailed description of these groups – see Matczak *et al.*, 2009, p. 55), revealed in fact that it was teachers who had the lower results on the locus of control scale than all the other groups, which means that compared to other respondents they were characterized by a more external type of this quality.

Consequently, it seems entirely reasonable to conclude that teachers, due to their extremely burdensome professional tasks, belong to a specific risk group. They are exposed to various types of occupational stress occurring in a situation, in which the capabilities and generally understood human needs are not compatible with the requirements and general conditions specific to the particular work environment (Plopa & Makarowski, 2010, pp. 16-38; Cox, Griffiths & Rial-Gonzalez, 2006, pp. 61-81; Van Harrison, 1987; Le Blanc, de Jonge & Schaufeli, 2003). If we look at the phenomenon of effectiveness-impairing occupational stress from the above outlined perspective of dualism of the teaching role (submission vs. independence), attention should be paid primarily to its following forms:

- **the role ambiguity** – occurs in a situation where the employee does not have sufficient information on his vocational role – he is not sure of his place in the organization, and is also uncertain of the scope of his objectives and responsibilities, as well as his superiors' expectations; research indicates that the role ambiguity results in a lower job satisfaction, reduced efficiency, higher tension and various psychosomatic problems – the teacher who is aware that at the same he is expected to be obedient and independent will most certainly suffer from this characteristic type of occupational stress;
- **the role conflict** – occurs when superiors (or situation) require individuals to act in a manner inconsistent with their beliefs, attitudes and value

system, or when an employee is required to perform conflicting roles, e.g. a combination in which the same teacher has to be a submissive subordinate, but simultaneously has to play the role of independent initiator of numerous activities based on his individual decisions;

- **the role overload** – occurs when an employee faces major difficulties due to the scope of tasks, that exceed his ability to cope with – the teacher-role dualism can certainly lead to symptoms of this type of occupational stress;
- **the feeling of being treated objectively** – occurs, among others, when an individual has the impression (justified or just imagined) that he has too little or almost completely limited part in the decision-making process – it can be assumed that the teacher characterized by the internal locus of control will feel that particular kind of stress, in a situation, in which his superior will expect him to submit to arbitrarily imposed standards and the decisions made without his participation.

The analysis of the already presented information relating to the role of locus of control in the process of coping with the challenges specific to the teaching profession may lead to a conclusion that from the point of view of teaching effectiveness and well-being (which is essential in the light of the above mentioned data on occupational stress), the most favorable type of the locus of control might be the moderate (average) one, nearing significantly to the lower parts of the scale (closer to the internal than to the external type). Perhaps this moderate-low locus of control might be a perfect remedy for the conflict inscribed in the role of a professional teacher, which on the one hand, requires submission, while on the other far-reaching independence. Maybe the greatest efficiency will be observed among those teachers, who will be able, depending on the requirements of the specific school situation, to engage in activities, which promote both internal and external locus of control. The next section presents the results of a pilot study conducted in order to lay the foundation for further analysis, which could give a reliable answer to this extremely important, vital question.

THE METHOD AND RESEARCH RESULTS

One hundred forty two Warsaw primary schools teachers – 128 women and 14 men – participated in this research project. The mean age was 37.4 years (median – 33 years, dominant – 29 years). The aim of the analysis was primarily to deter-

mine the participants' predominant locus of control. The tool for collecting the data was the questionnaire *Man at Work* (pol. *Człowiek w pracy – CwP*) (Matczak *et al.*, 2009), which measures not only this main variable, but also the following constructs (closely related to loc), which will be described in the further section, devoted to the results of the study:

- the sense of lack of efficacy,
- the sense of dependence on fate,
- the sense of dependence on others,
- personal control,
- ideology of control,
- perception of success,
- perception of failure.

The data collected using the CwP has been converted to normalized values (sten) – in the case of each of the variables included in the study, categorization of the results was as follows:

- sten 1-3 – low score
- sten 4-7 – moderate (average) score
- sten 8-10 – high score

The participants completed also a questionnaire designed by the Author – data collected by some of its positions will also be presented later in this section.

Locus of control

The results of the frequency analysis clearly show that in this particular group of primary school teachers people with a moderate sense of control dominated. The low score (1-3 sten) was obtained by 36 teachers (25.4%), the moderate score (4-7 sten) by 102 (71.8%), high score – by 4 (2.8%). The average score was 4.5 sten (median – 5 sten, dominant – 4 sten – 34 people). Figure 1 is the graphic illustration of the results.

The obtained results may lead to optimistic conclusions, most of all because of the fact that only 4 participants reached a high score on the analyzed scale. According to the data presented in the previous sections it may be assumed that these teachers will most likely have trouble meeting the essential requirements relevant in the teaching profession. The conviction of lack of influence on one's own destiny is undoubtedly a factor that prevents effective actions and makes it very hard (if not impossible) to successfully engage in any kind of continuous

education or making independent work-related decisions, which are the crucial determinants of teacher efficacy.

In the light of the earlier cited research results, indicating that during the time flow and on the basis of people gaining new experiences, we are able to observe a shift from the external to the internal locus of control in the general population, it may be assumed that in the case of the examined group the characteristics of the internal loc will progressively grow stronger. But this is not the only possible scenario, because functioning in the school environment is also associated with the danger of having experiences enhancing the individual's belief that he/she does not have an effect on the outcome of personally undertaken enterprises. In such a case an opposite trend may very likely appear – namely, the rise of the intensity of the features characteristic to the external locus of control. This means that in terms of the this crucial variable, future changes are still very plausible. The direction of these changes, however, will depend, among others, on the degree of freedom and independence given to the teachers in their work environment. If their superior will limit their autonomy and focus only on instructing them and expecting full obedience, it may end up with their external loc features growing in intensity.

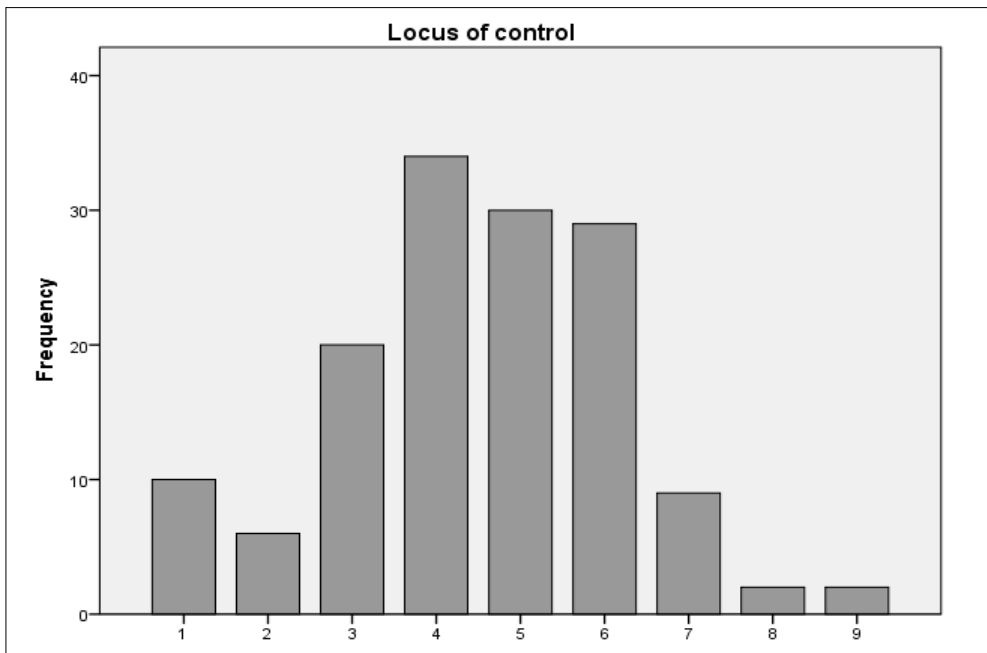


Figure 1. Locus of control in the examined group – frequency distribution.

Once more it should be strongly emphasized that because of the dualistic and unusual (in comparison to other professions) nature of work in the teaching profession, it is justified to claim that in case of many schools and their principals (due to their management style) a moderate intensity of locus of control (close to the low score) may be highly desirable. On the one hand, such a teacher has a predisposition to be independent and creative, and on the other – he does not represent the attitudes, which might prevent him from subordination to the arbitrary decisions made by the superiors.

The dominance of people with a sense of control which is, generally speaking, adequate to the requirements of the profession, leads, among other things, to the key conclusion that, at least for the examined group, the teaching profession is chosen by the people who in terms of locus of control have all the necessary predispositions to take effective action in different school conditions and situations.

Moreover, it should be noted, that on the basis of the data provided above, it is very likely that the distribution of the results obtained in the following subscales will be quite similar. Therefore, discussing the subsequent results may in some cases be limited to reference to the considerations outlined above, concerning the overall result on the main “locus of control” dimension.

The sense of lack of efficacy

The sense of lack of efficacy is a factor related to the degree to which a person is convinced that his/hers whole professional career, including the already achieved results, does not depend on personal motivation and competence (Maczak *et al.*, 2009, p. 67).

In the examined group, the average score on this scale was 5.13 sten (median – 5 sten, dominant – 5 sten). The frequency distribution of the results was as follows: low score – 24 people (16.9%), moderate score – 106 people (74.7%), high score – 12 people (8.4%) (Figure 2).

The overwhelming majority of the respondents was characterized by a moderate level of the sense of lack of efficacy. A brief description of the characteristics of those receiving the high and low scores will allow a better understanding of what these specific results mean (*ibidem*):

- high score – the perception of career development in separation of self-efficacy, resulting from having the competences valued in the given profession or from the right attitude to official duties; people who score high

do not see the source of control in the internal factors (dependent from themselves);

- low score – the belief that the reinforcements experienced at work are the result of manifested motivation, actions taken by the individual and the possessed competences or abilities; such people are convinced that in order to be successful, they must constantly improve their qualifications, engage in work and conscientiously fulfill the responsibilities associated with their daily duties – the effect of such an attitude is the belief that professional success is reached by the people who believe in what they are doing and are highly motivated to act efficiently.

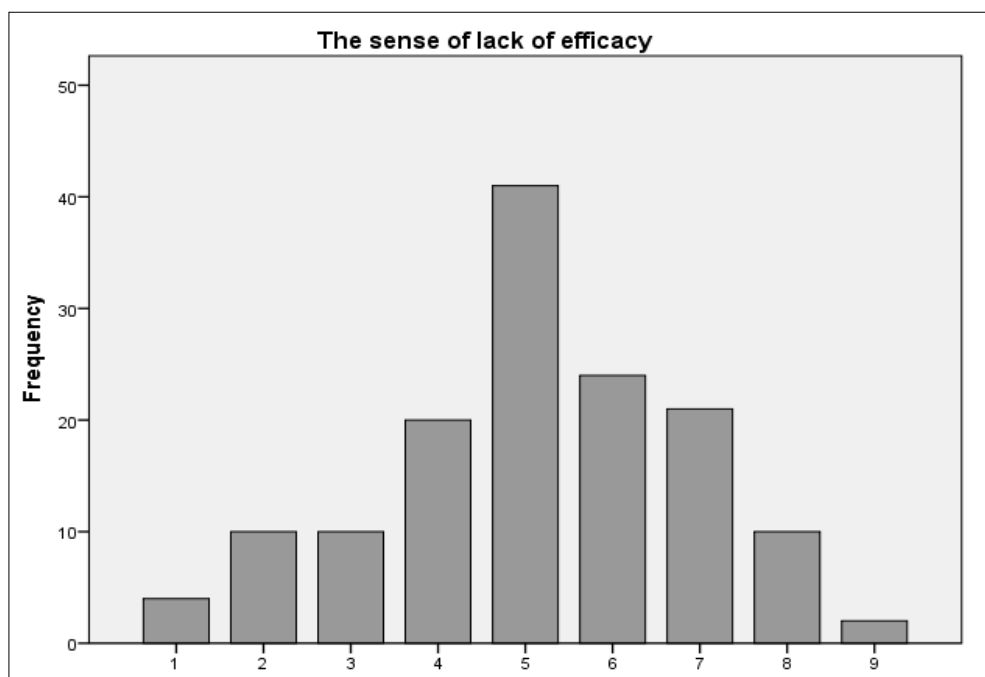


Figure 2. The sense of lack of efficacy in the examined group – frequency distribution.

In this case, conclusions similar to those obtained on the main locus of control scale can be drawn – the attention should be paid especially to only a few high scores, proving the highly possible existence of certain beliefs that are a symptom of maladjustment to the teaching profession. The remaining participants should be well fit to the school work and, thus, efficiently carry out the tasks entrusted to them.

The sense of dependence on fate

The sense of dependence on fate of is a CwP questionnaire subscale investigating the extent to which an examined person is convinced that his/hers professional development and work success corresponds to widely understood fate (luck, bad/blind luck, etc.). Thus, this factor determines the human tendency for locating the source of control in unsocial external factors.

In the studied group, the average score on this scale was 4.97 sten (median – 5 sten, dominant – 5 and 6 sten). The frequency distribution of the results was as follows: low score – 33 people (23.2%), moderate score – 98 people (69.1%), high score – 11 people (7.7%) (Figure 3).

The participants reaching a moderate level in the sense of dependence on fate were distinctly dominant in the examined group of teachers – this outcome should not be surprising at all, when compared with the results obtained in the analysis on the main “locus of control” variable. To determine what this result means in practice, a following description is required (*ibidem*):

- high score – an individual thinks that obtaining a promotion, raise/bonus or words of praise/recognition from the superior does not depend on his/hers actual actions or competence, but is the result of coincidence, a chance; a person with a high sense of dependence on fate believes that pure luck is responsible for all the successes and achievements in the workplace while the responsibility for all the failures and setbacks corresponds to bad luck or unfortunate coincidence; such people tend to withdraw or to refrain from action because they simply believe that no matter what they do, nothing depends on them; they often prefer situations or tasks in which the primary role is played by any kind of random factors – it suits them, because they feel relieved from the responsibility for their actions and their outcomes;
- low score – people scoring low think that fate (whether good or bad) or chance does not have a decisive role in shaping their professional life – they believe that all the encountered situations are mostly dependent on themselves (they may have only a slight tendency to interpret professional accomplishments through the prism of external conditions, such as good or bad luck).

The description provided above shows that the majority of the respondents should have a moderate, healthy approach to interpretation of their successes and failures. In their case, it is possible to use both internal and external factors in the process of determining the results of their own actions.



Figure 3. The sense of dependence on fate in the examined group – frequency distribution.

Consequently, it can be concluded that the result achieved by most of the participants has a positive effect on their adaptive capacity – they should cope equally well in unforeseen circumstances, as well as in ability situations, and they will interpret the results in a manner most advantageous from the point of view of maintaining positive self-esteem. For example they will explain to themselves that some of their failures occurred due to the influence of external environment they were unable to control in any way, although it should be strongly emphasized that such a strategy of explaining setbacks, if too strong, does not favor the process of learning from mistakes and for this reason, has an extremely maladaptive character. And because the teaching profession is vague and during daily school work it is possible to face both ability and random situations, the moderate level of this variable should be the most appropriate to meet the requirements of this complex and dynamic work environment. To sum up – the specificity of the teachers professional role and the distinctive conditions of school work, may lead to a very reasonable conclusion that the moderate level of dependence on fate should be considered as optimal from the point of view of teacher vocational efficacy.

The sense of dependence on others

The sense of dependence on other refers to the individual's beliefs concerning the impact of other people (e.g. co-workers, superiors, etc.) on the course and development of his/hers professional career. This factor, thus, relates to the determination of human tendency for locating the source of control in external social factors (*ibidem*, p. 68).

In the examined group, the average score on this scale was 3.85 sten (median – 4 sten, dominant – 2 and 4 sten). The frequency distribution of the results was as follows: low score – 61 people (43%), moderate score – 77 people (54.2%), high score – 4 persons (2.8%) (Figure 4).



Figure 4. The sense of dependence on others in the examined group – frequency distribution.

As in the previously described cases, the study group was clearly dominated by the participants with a moderate level of the sense of dependence on others. A short description of the qualities inherent for the people reaching high and low scores is provided below (*ibidem*):

- high score – the recipient of such an outcome believes that both the successes (e.g. a promotion), as well as the failures in professional life (e.g. the loss of position), are usually induced by others; people with a high sense of dependence on others are convinced that their skills and knowledge are not as important as being liked by the boss or the co-workers – therefore they can be more focused on developing positive relationships with others, while neglecting the sphere of professional competence and their improvement, which, in the context of continuous professional development as one of the most important determinants of the teacher effectiveness, is of great importance;
- low score – the individual believes that other people do not have a significant impact on his/hers professional accomplishments and does not locate the causes of achieved professional successes and failures in external factors of social nature.

The final result obtained in the study group, referring to the level of dependence on others, should be considered as positive. A reference to the specifics of the teaching profession might once more prove to be useful, namely to the crucial aspect already mentioned above – on the one hand a modern teacher must be independent and able to cope with new challenges or unpredictability of the classroom situations, while on the other – must possess the ability to be submissive whenever it seems absolutely necessary and not suffer from too much discomfort as a result of such dependent behavior. Therefore, as with the case of moderate dependence on fate, a moderate sense of dependence on others means the intensity conducive to optimum adaptation to the requirements of the school environment.

Personal control

Personal control is associated with beliefs concerning the ability to control the occupational situation (*ibidem*, p. 68).

In the examined group, the average score on this scale was 4.64 sten (median – 4 sten, dominant – 4 sten). The frequency distribution of the results was following: low score – 30 people (21.1%), moderate score – 106 people (74.7%), high score – 6 people (4.2%) (Figure 5).

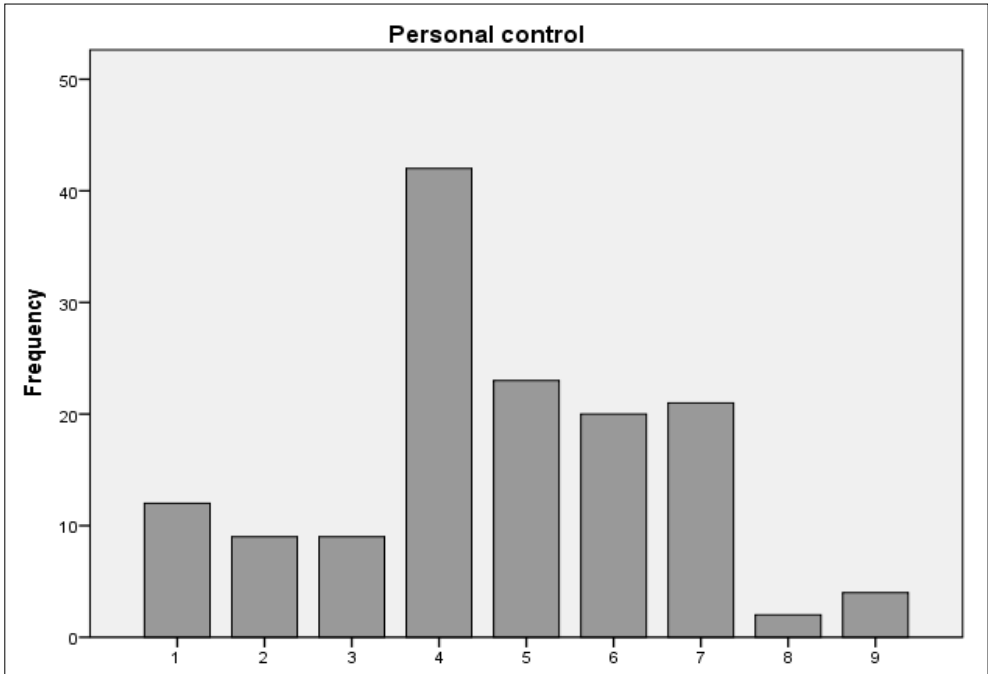


Figure 5. Personal control in the examined group – frequency distribution.

A short description of features distinctive to people reaching high and low scores on this subscale is posted below (*ibidem*, pp. 68-69):

- high score – typical for individuals with a low sense of personal control, which believe that everything happening in the area of their work is the result of a variety of external factors – both social (other people) and unsocial (e.g. luck or accident); such people do not see the relationship (or have a great problem with perceiving it) between received reinforcements (e.g. prize) and their internal qualities or performed professional activities;
- low score – an individual thinks that his/hers professional experiences, both past and future ones, depend mainly on the internal factors; distinctive to this result is the belief according to which people are responsible for their successes and failures, which are affected by factors such as abilities, skills, motivational factors (e.g. the commitment or diligence) as well as personality traits; they have a tendency to associate the received reinforcements with their own actions, and not, as in case of people reaching the high score, with external influences remaining beyond their personal control.

Like in the case of other variables situated in the sphere of locus of control, which are mentioned in this section, it seems that even though at first the low score (high level of personal control) appears to be the best option, especially from the point view of effectiveness and motivational processes, it may be in fact that the moderate (closer to the lower pole of the dimension) result is optimal in terms of difficulties teachers might face due to the already mentioned dualism of their professional role and duties. It may be assumed that maintaining a high level of teachers well-being requires them to look at their everyday work with awareness of the fact that not everything can be controlled, no matter the effort and time devoted. To sum up, it seems that one of the attributes of a good, effective teacher should be the ability to make rational assessment of the situation, leading, among other things, to prevention of blaming oneself for any failures, that occurred in the area lying beyond the individual's control. Such an approach may prove to be extremely helpful in the teaching profession rich both in random and extremely demanding ability situations.

Ideology of control

The ideology of control refers to the beliefs on the generally understood human condition – first and foremost it concerns the generalized idea regarding whether the people are able to shape their own destiny, and if so, to what extent (*ibidem*, p. 69).

In the examined group, the average score on this scale was 4.37 sten (median – 4 sten, dominant – 5 sten). The frequency distribution of the results was as follows: low score – 46 people (32.4%), moderate score – 93 persons (62.7%), high score – 7 persons (4.9%) (Figure 6).

A necessary description of features distinctive to people reaching high and low scores on this subscale is placed below (*ibidem*, p. 69):

- high score – it points to the external locus of control; an individual thinks that employees do not have any real influence on their careers (their course, development etc.); they believe that all the professional successes and failures are conditioned by external factors – this view applies to both themselves and all the other people;
- low score – points to the internal locus of control; an individual believes that all people are able to have an impact on what happens to them in their workplace; they believe that the factors which really matter from the point of view of impact on their career, are the internal qualities such as skills, abilities or specific work-related attitudes.

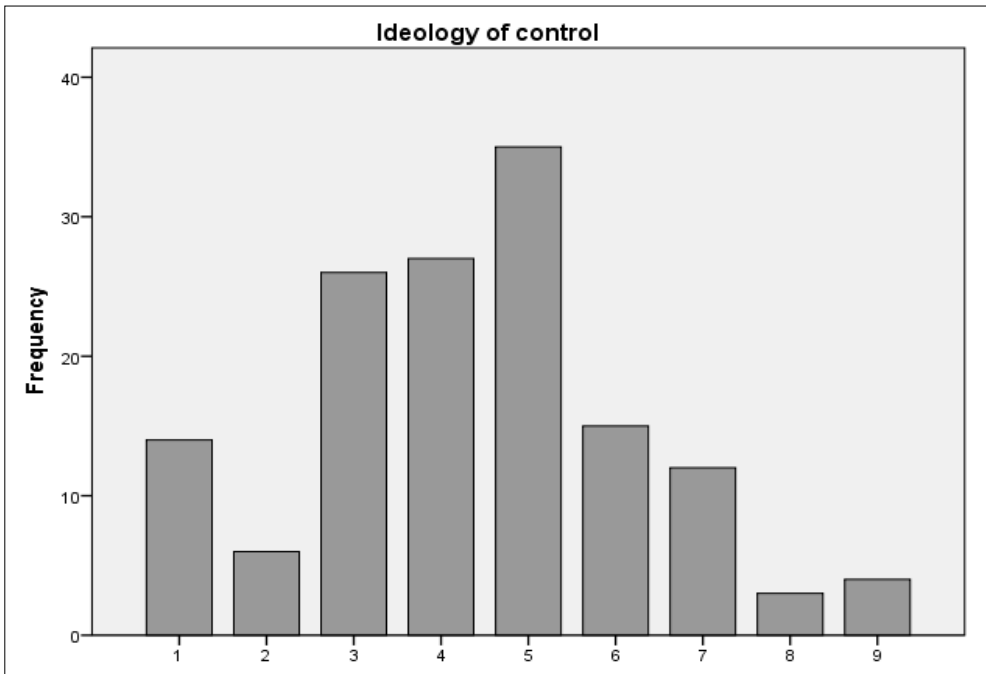


Figure 6. Ideology of control in the examined group – frequency distribution.

It seems legitimate to claim that the interpretation of the results obtained in analyzes associated with the variable “personal control” is also relevant in this case – considerations regarding the ideology of control should be based on similar basis, which requires taking into account the well-being of teachers and the unpredictability of their profession.

Perception of success

Perception of success relates to a process of perceiving the source of control of positive reinforcements (successes) in the work environment.

The examined group scored on this scale with an average result of 4.96 sten (median – 5 sten, dominant – 5 sten). The frequency distribution of the results was as follows: low score – 50 people (35.2%), moderate score – 88 people (62%), high score – 4 persons (2.8%) (Figure 7).

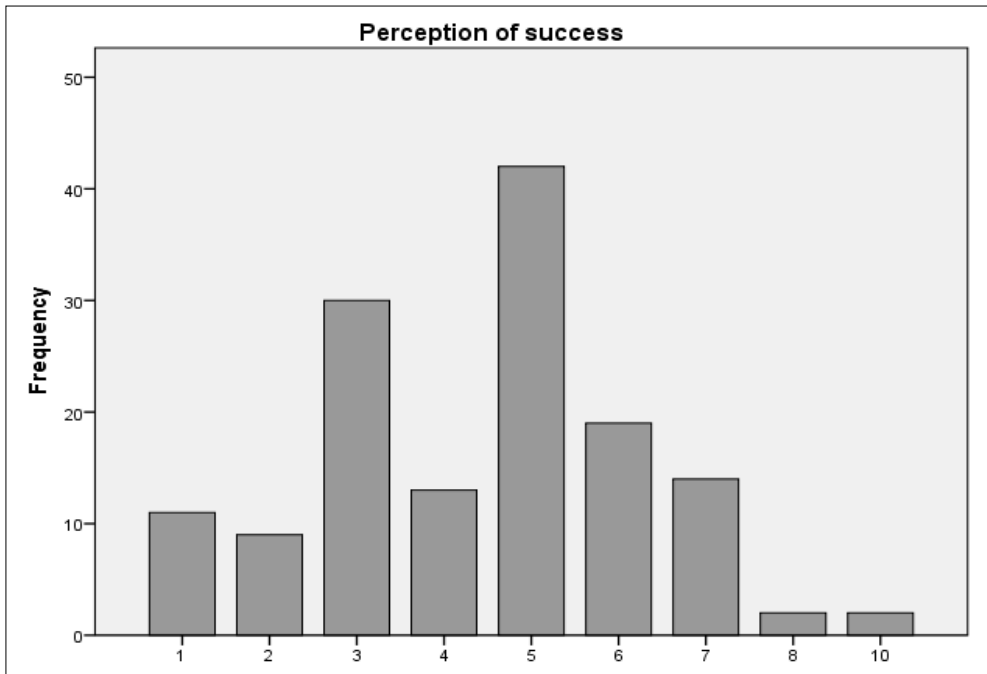


Figure 7. Perception of success in the examined group – frequency distribution.

A brief description of facets distinctive to people reaching high and low scores on this subscale shows what follows (*ibidem*):

- high score – an individual perceives the source of work successes in external factors; getting a promotion, praise or any kind of awards is considered to be a result of a coincidence or decisions made by other people and therefore these reinforcements are not related to internal characteristics;
- low score – an individual perceives internal sources of control of the successes achieved in professional work – all the acquired positive reinforcements are considered to be a result of competences, conscientiousness, commitment to the job etc., enabling the meeting of the requirements of the workplace environment.

The obvious dominance of moderate results can be regarded as one of the elements of a realistic approach to the educational reality, where not everything, including successes, is subject to the overall control of the teachers.

Perception of failure

Perception of failure refers to the perceived source of control of occupational failures.

In the examined group, the average score on this scale was 4.70 sten (median – 4 sten, dominant – 4 sten). The frequency distribution of the results was as follows: low score – 34 people (23.9%), moderate score – 93 persons (75.6%), high score – 15 people (10.5%) (Figure 8).

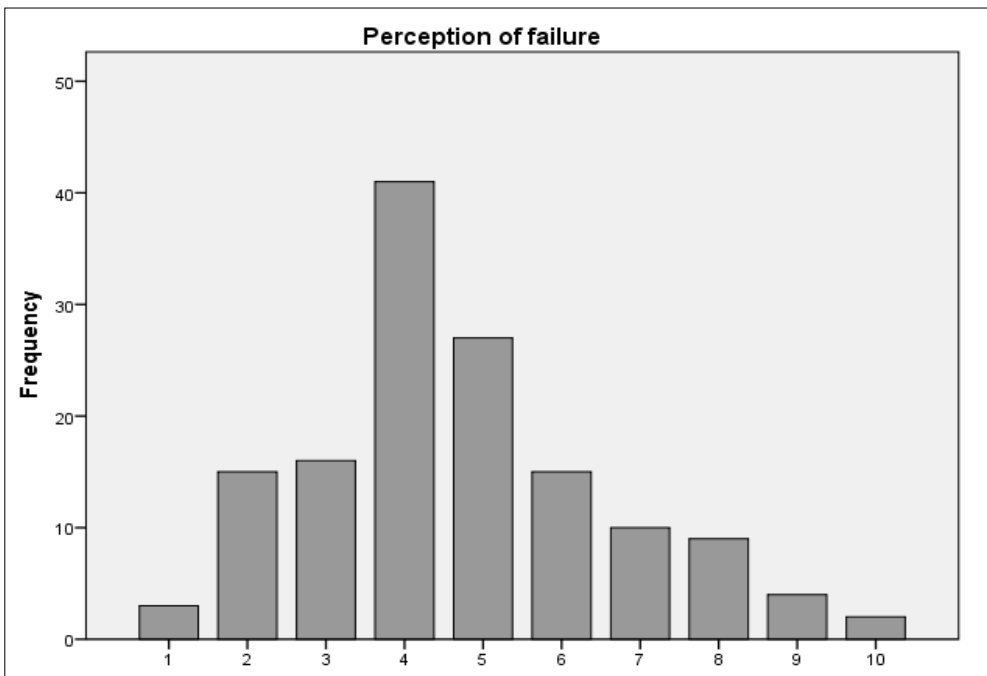


Figure 8. Perception of failure in the examined group – frequency distribution.

The typical qualities of respondents reaching scores from both ends of this dimension are listed below (*ibidem*, p. 70):

- high score – people reaching on this scale a result between 8 and 10, tend to locate the causes of their failures in external factors – they may be characterized by a conviction that lack of positive reinforcements (e.g. promotion or praise) and/or many different adverse and negative events in their workplace is a result of actions and negative opinions of other people (e.g. their boss or co-workers) or simply an effect of bad luck;

- low score – people scoring from 1 to 3 have a tendency do perceive their failures as resulting from their own internal characteristics, or qualities; they take full responsibility for their unfavorable professional development or the improper performance of relevant tasks entrusted to them by their superiors.

The interpretation of the presented results may be based on the claims already included in the previously described analysis. It is necessary to emphasize that a too strong sense of internal control of personal failures (typical for people scoring very low on the analyzed scale) may indicate a tendency to excessive self-criticism – thus, it would not be a favorable result and the fact that only a few participants scored low should be treated as an advantage. Working in the teaching profession is full of different difficult situations and finding an optimal solution for all of them is sometimes out of reach – because of that, a teacher constantly assigning his failures to internal factors will undoubtedly, sooner or later, suffer from decline in well-being, self-efficacy and self-esteem. Then again, also the high scores seem to be completely maladaptive, because shifting the entire responsibility for the failures to fate or lack of other people's goodwill will most likely lead to an unfavorable outgrowth in the form of avoiding necessary constructive insights concerning the modifications required to deal with the deficiencies that were the cause of the initial problems.

Professional development – engagement in the continuous education

From the point of view of the theoretical part of the article, which held the considerations concerning both professional development and involvement in various forms of continuous education, which are without a doubt essential determinants of effectiveness in the teaching profession, it is indispensable to cite also some of the results obtained with the questionnaire developed by the Author. The comparison of this data with the already presented results should provide a consistent image of the articles core issue – namely, the vast majority of the participants is characterized not only by a relevant type of locus control and its covariates, but also by attending (in the past or in the present) in various forms of continuous education. It is justifiable to assume that the obtained results are not coincidental and are a distinct confirmation that confidence in one's own perpetration determined to a high extent by the internal or low-moderate locus of control, is one of the factors crucial in the process of engaging in various activities leading to the widely conceived professional development.

Among the surveyed teachers, only six (4.2%) have never participated in any of the many available forms of continuous education, whereas the remaining 136 participants (95.8%) were engaged in the past (or in the time of the study) in one or more forms of formal and non-formal education. The respondents declared as follows: participation in postgraduate studies (one or more cycles) – 13 teachers (9.1%), participation in a specialist course/courses – 7 teachers (4.9%), participation in a training/trainings – 12 teachers (8.4%), participation in any other form of continuous education – 2 teachers (1.4%) (in both cases it was the doctoral studies), participation in both post-graduate studies and a course/courses – 2 teachers (1.4%), participation in both post-graduate studies and training/trainings – 23 teachers (16.1%), participation in both a course/courses and a training/trainings – 34 teachers (23.8%), participation in postgraduate studies, course/courses and training/trainings – 43 teachers (30.1%) (Figure 9).

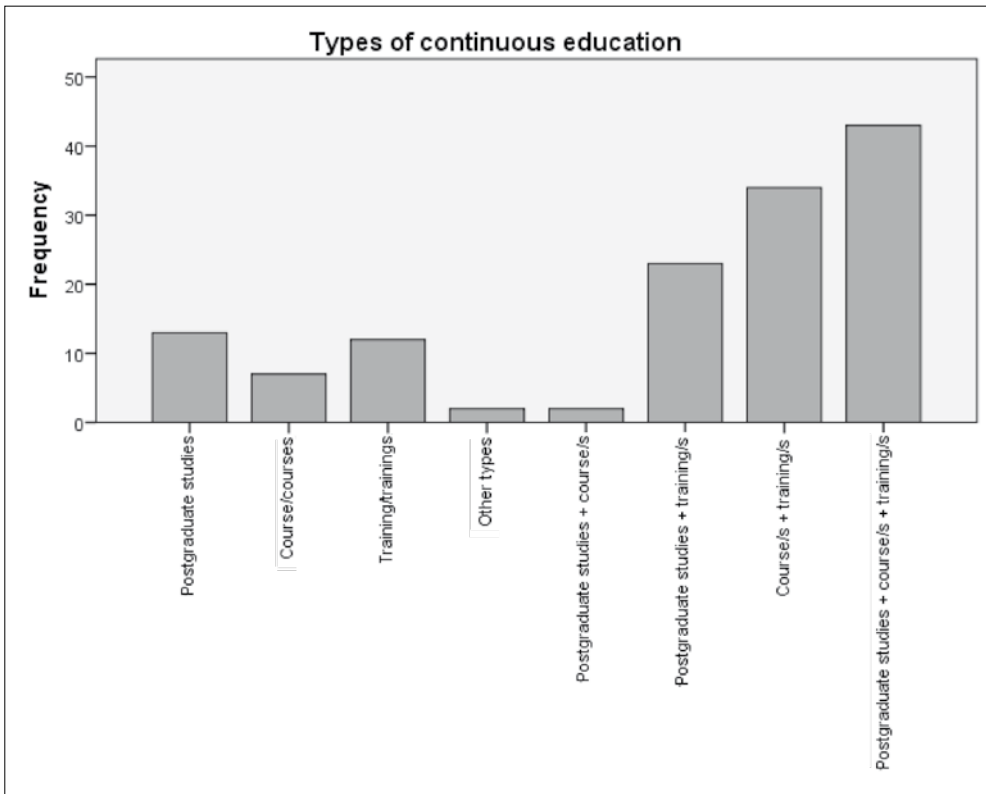


Figure 9. The engagement of examined teachers in the continuous education – frequency distribution.

It is worth to mention that in the group of teachers, who have declared participation in the forms of continuous education distinguished above, up to 133 (97.8%) admitted that it was an action taken on their own initiative, without any pressure from outside. The remaining three people stated that such a solution was suggested to them by their direct superior – the school principal. This is certainly another important argument supporting the fact that the analyzed group consisted mainly of teachers who were characterized mostly by domination of intrinsic motivation (though of course one cannot rule out the simultaneous role of the factors relevant to extrinsic motivation) and, most importantly, the type of locus of control necessary from the point of view of a proper understanding of the role that constant broadening of the scope of knowledge, skills and social competence plays in the process of improving the efficiency of professional activities undertaken in the course of everyday work.

SUMMARY

The results presented in the previous section seem to provide confirmation to the key thesis presented in the theoretical part of the article.

First of all, bearing in mind the fact that the locus of control is, as explicitly stated earlier, a factor shaped primarily in the initial phases of life, prior to the selection of the particular field of study, it may be assumed to a certain degree, that such a clear domination of people whose results on the discussed scale are situated in the lower parts of the moderate score is not coincidental, but, quite the contrary, is a proof that the teacher training studies are chosen by people characterized by explicit beliefs about the strength and the role of their own agency. Thus it may be assumed that this particular intensity of locus of control belongs to a wider group of internal determinants of choosing the teaching profession. On the other hand, in reference to data provided in the review of the literature, another assumption can be made. There is a possibility that at least in some of the cases the locus of control has changed in the course of the examined teachers professional work, to a more internal type, as a result of a specific school environment they have been working in (as already mentioned, it depends for example from their principals' management style).

Of course, drawing such far-reaching conclusions on the basis of the results obtained in a pilot study involving such a small research sample is not legitimate.

It may however be assumed, that in the next planned research on a representative sample of polish teachers, results allowing to make analogous generalizations based on solid support in empirical data will be gathered. And in terms of studying the changes in the scope of internal-external locus of control during the years of school work, a longitudinal research would be highly recommended.

Regardless of the deliberations on general population of teachers, the obtained result is encouraging – it indicates that among the members of the analyzed group the choice of the teaching profession was not a coincidence, but the result of series of logical decision underlied by an in-depth reflection concerning the individual needs and predispositions. In the analyzed case it is also hard to speak about the harmful effects of the so-called negative selection to the teaching profession, because even if it was involved in any of the examined cases, its results could most likely be positive and lead to making the right vocational choice (of course excluding those four people who scored high on the locus of control scale – their actual job performance cannot be assessed on the basis of the collected data).

It may be assumed that it was the high level of self-knowledge and self-awareness that caused, that in the case of the studied group, the teaching profession (and previously – the necessary field of study) has been chosen by people, who, at least from the point of view of the theory and research relating to the locus of control, will be able to meet the demands and expectations posed by their superiors and the society in general. Due to the disposal of moderate intensity of this crucial variable, most of them should cope well with both the tasks that require their own creativity and independence from superiors or external pressure, and with the responsibilities, which implementation may require subordination to extrinsic standards and submission to the superiors. In the work conditions, which generate stress resulting from the role ambiguity, it is an aspect that should not be underestimated – the extreme results (both too low and, what's much more likely, too high) could turn out to be a significant obstacle in meeting the requirements of teacher's professional role duality, requiring constant balancing between submissiveness and independence.

The obtained results indicate that the efficiency of the surveyed teachers should reach a satisfactory level¹.

¹ The presented study had a narrow character (which is usual for pilot research) focused primarily on the actual intensity of the locus of control, therefore it did not take into account the elements that would make it possible to examine the vocational efficacy of the participants (e.g. interview with the principal and co-workers, analysis of students achievements etc.). It was assumed that the acquisition of knowledge in the field of locus of control and its internal covariates, may constitute the basis for the

First of all – moderately low locus of control favors reaching relevant and adequate decisions in indeterminate and unpredicted school situations, requiring swift and independent responses. Secondly, a highly plausible conclusion may be reached, stating that it was the dominance of such intensity of the analyzed psychological constructs – locus of control and its covariates – that caused the teachers, so confident in the role of their own initiative, to participate in such large numbers in various forms of continuous education. As it was explicitly emphasized earlier, we can assume that in case of a different result – the dominance of a more external locus of control in the examined group – the percentage of people engaging in various forms of formal and non-formal continuous education would be significantly lower. It would be a completely natural consequence of the belief inherent to people with the external locus of control, which states that the results of their actions and undertaken enterprises do not depend on their own capabilities, but on the will and actions of other people or on purely random factors.

To sum up, another, more extensive research on the role of locus of control in the effective execution of the teachers' professional role is highly recommended and justified both from the point of view of theory, as well as empirical data gathered so far. An additional element should be taken into account in the coming analyzes – namely, the determination of the degree to which proper workplace conditions may favor the formation of a more adaptive beliefs concerning their ability to shape not only themselves, but also the students entrusted to them and the reality surrounding them.

REFERENCES

- Aichhorn, A. (1925). *Wayward Youth*. New York: The Viking Press.
- Ananiadou, K. & Claro, M. (2009). 21st Century Skills and Competences for New Millennium Learners in OECD Countries. *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 41, OECD Publishing.
- Aronson, E., Wilson, T.D. & Akert, R.M. (2006). *Psychologia społeczna*. Poznań: Wydawnictwo Zysk i S-ka.

preliminary conclusions on this subject. Currently, a further study is planned – it will take into account not only the analysis on a representative teachers sample, but will also be enriched with the data enabling the research on correlation between the locus of control and actual professional accomplishments of the examined teachers.

- Bedel, E.F. (2012). An Examination of Locus of Control, Epistemological Beliefs and Metacognitive Awareness in Preservice Early Childhood Teachers. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, special issue: Autumn, 3051-3060.
- Blau, G. (1993). Testing the relationship of locus of control to different performance dimensions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 66, 125-138.
- Cox, T., Griffiths, A. & Rial-Gonzalez, E. (2006). *Badania nad stresem związanym z pracą*. Bilbao: Europejska Agencja Bezpieczeństwa i Zdrowia w Pracy.
- Day, Ch. (2004). *Rozwój zawodowy nauczyciela. Uczenie się przez całe życie*. Gdańsk: Gdańskie Wydawnictwo Psychologiczne.
- Drwal, R.Ł. (1995). *Adaptacja kwestionariuszy osobowości*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Judge, A. & Bono, J.E. (2001). Relationship of Core Self-Evaluations Traits-Self-Esteem, Generalized Self-Efficacy, Locus of Control and Emotional Stability – With Job Satisfaction and Job Performance: A Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 86, no. 1, 80-92.
- Kowalik, S. (2011). *Psychologia ucznia i nauczyciela*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Kwiatkowska, H. (2008). *Pedeutologia*. Warszawa: WAIp.
- Kwiatkowski, S.M. (2016). Kompetencje społeczne pracowników – kontekst edukacyjny. *Polityka Społeczna*, 9, 33-36.
- Le Blanc, P., de Jonge, J. & Schaufeli, W. (2003). Stres zawodowy a zdrowie pracowników. W: N. Chmiel (ed.), *Psychologia pracy i organizacji* (pp. 169-199). Gdańsk: GWP.
- Łukaszewski, W. (2000). Motywacja w najważniejszych systemach teoretycznych. In J. Strelau (ed.), *Psychologia. Podręcznik akademicki. Tom 2. Psychologia ogólna* (pp. 427-440). Gdańsk: GWP.
- Łukaszewski, W. & Doliński, D. (2000). Mechanizmy leżące u podstaw motywacji. In J. Strelau (ed.), *Psychologia. Podręcznik akademicki. Tom 2. Psychologia ogólna* (pp. 441-468). Gdańsk: GWP.
- Matczak, A., Jaworowska, A., Fecenec, D., Stańczak, J. & Bitner, J. (2009). *Człowiek w Pracy. Podręcznik*. Warszawa: Pracownia Testów Psychologicznych PTP.
- Mietzel, G. (2008). *Wprowadzenie do psychologii*. Gdańsk: GWP.
- Oleś, P. (2011). *Wprowadzenie do psychologii osobowości*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe Scholar.
- Plopa, M. & Makarowski, R. (2010). *Kwestionariusz Poczucia Stresu*. Warszawa: VIZJA PRESS&IT.

- Pyżalski, J. & Merecz, D. (red.) (2010). *Psychospołeczne warunki pracy polskich nauczycieli. Pomiędzy wypaleniem zawodowym a zaangażowaniem*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Rotter, J. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs: General and Applied*, vol. 80, no. 1, 1-28.
- Ryan, R.M. & Deci, E.L. (2000). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 54-67.
- Spector, P.E. (1982). Behavior in organizations as a function of employee's locus of control. *Psychological Bulletin*, 91, 482-497.
- Strelau, J., Jaworowska, A., Wrześniewski, K. & Szczepaniak, P. (2013). *Kwestionariusz Radzenia Sobie w Sytuacjach Stresowych. Podręcznik*. Warszawa: Pracownia Testów Psychologicznych PTP.
- Śliwerski, B. (2013). *Diagnoza uspołecznienia publicznego szkolnictwa III RP w gorce centralizmu*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls”.
- Trilling, B. & Fadel, C. (2009). *21st Century Skills. Learning for life in our times*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Ustawa z dnia 26 stycznia 1982 r. Karta Nauczyciela, Dz. U. z 1982 r. Nr 3, poz. 19.
- Watson, J. (1913). Psychology as the Behaviorist Views it. *Psychological Review*, 20, 158-177.
- Van Harrison, R. (1987). Indywidualno-środowiskowe dopasowanie a stres w pracy. W: C.L. Cooper and R. Pane (red.), *Stres w pracy. Praca zbiorowa* (pp. 260-305). Warszawa: PWN.
- Zimbardo, P., Johnson, R.L., McCann, V. (2013a). *Psychologia. Kluczowe koncepcje. Tom II – Motywacja i uczenie się*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Zimbardo, P., Johnson, R.L. & McCann, V. (2013b). *Psychologia. Kluczowe koncepcje. Tom V – Człowiek i jego środowisko*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.

*Józefa Bałachowicz
Krystyna Nowak-Fabrykowski
Zuzanna Zbróg*

Epilogue

Contemporary problems in teacher education, which are constantly being revisited, are interesting due to the dynamics of changes in social, economic, and political reality. The ambiguity created by these changes requires a multifaceted view of this reality from a new perspective that considers different aspects and areas of educational reality. There is broad international consensus that high-quality teacher education is essential for improving the quality of education systems, the school culture and the conditions for children's learning, and, in the longer term, the quality of life in the society.

For years, the literature on the subject area of this research has emphasized that it is necessary to deviate from teacher as a mere „technician” without reflecting on the assumptions of the usually politically conditioned curricula or national curriculum. The differentiated systematic contexts in which schools and universities function is sometimes a significant obstacle to change, discouraging further attempts to reorient theoretical approaches in teacher education. However, many practitioners and academic teachers are enthusiastic and have creative, innovative attitudes that prove that all kinds of obstacles can be overcome. This confirms the main thesis of ethnomethodologist Harold Garfinkel (1967), who claimed that the social order is a consequence of the ordinary everyday actions of people who, through their activities, trigger the social reality while giving it a sense of purpose. These ordinary people are creators of the social order, which is established by application of the same practices and strategies, especially in everyday communication.

Although the complexity of the sociocultural and economic situations in different countries is enormous, as are the organization and traditions of educational systems, and although it is impossible to hold teachers responsible for most of the problems of modern schools, we believe that educational and social changes can come from teachers. We believe that a starting point for changing schools would be to change how teachers are taught, and that the inadequacies of schools and teacher education systems in the modern world should be linked to concrete activities, independent of the economic situations of states and institutions.

Changing the education system depends, as Garfinkel (1967) said, on modifying everyday social practices, in which people are the most important link. It is therefore imperative, first and foremost, to have a group of dedicated professionals with relevant personality traits, including a sense of professional responsibility, a high level of self-knowledge and self-awareness, and the desire to engage in long-term collaboration with practice teachers, students, and often also with children.

The experience and knowledge of everyone involved in the common learning process can foster analysis, discussion in the learning community, and interpretation of what is going on in the learning process, and it can support learning to ask questions such as “how?” To negotiate the meanings we give to the same pedagogical / educational categories, objects, processes, phenomena, and collective arrangements in the framework of collective dialogue / debate / polemics, it would be beneficial to create a “third space” (Jackson & Burch, 2016) in which learners can critically analyze the tensions between different kinds of knowledge: academic teachers’ knowledge, students’ common sense, and teachers’ practical knowledge. Teaching and learning are often treated as separate processes, and teachers and students are perceived as neutral regarding content that is socially negotiated.

In this monograph, we have looked for methods and models of teacher education that will prove effective in daily work with students and practice teachers. We are left with the basic premise that a change in school thinking and educational philosophy will lead to changes in school itself through the evolution of school practices, a desire to abandon the education of broadcasting, and actively adapting to ever new ideological and cultural contexts.

The authors of the twelve chapters of this book share their knowledge and experiences related to the subject matter of the monograph: early teacher education and opportunities for the professional development of teachers and practitioners in the context of the dynamic sociocultural, political, and economic changes taking place in the modern world. Changing the education system, changing the schools, and changing the teacher education system are deriva-

tive of social change. The rapid pace, even the severity, of social change in many countries around the world has not stimulated changes in the schools that will help children be prepared for the changes. The process (or lack thereof) of the cultural renewal of schools and universities is therefore very visible and widely commented upon in the public sphere. The failure to meet social and individual expectations associated with school (and education) requires us to undertake and encourage further scientific discussion.

We have therefore looked at teacher education from several different perspectives, with the specific choices of subject matter made by the authors themselves, based on their research interests, against the background of a wide variety of approaches and concepts, particularly those that can be considered as monographs. The chapters focus first and foremost on the broadly understood inquiry-based learning, which provides students and teachers with a narrative learning environment for which the academic teacher plays a key role. This monograph may initiate a critical analysis of the educational discourse that manifests itself in the everyday statements and practices of (future) teachers. It can allow for intensive development of an area insufficiently present or altogether absent in the process of learning broadly understood, namely, asking questions in the triad of partners in the learning process: students–teacher, teacher–teacher, and teacher–students which can organize learning situations that encourage common research, inquiry, exploration, exploration, insights into one's own beliefs, and insights into one's own social practices (see Boyd, 2014; Boyd & Szplit, 2016; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009; Grossman, Hammerness, & McDonald, 2009) Asking difficult questions, perhaps inconvenient for those who do not want to go beyond the comfort zone provided by well-known solutions, should be regarded as the basis for the pedagogical emancipation of (future) teachers.

There is a consensus among researchers that future teachers' prevailing common-sense beliefs play a vital role in their education and a significant role in sustaining inadequate social practices in today's world. Students hold a conglomerate of beliefs about teaching that are based on the naive meaning of teaching to which they themselves have been subject in the past (Zbróg, chapter 9). These earlier convictions can be triggered during pedagogical practice. Students therefore need the help of sensitive academic teachers to reflect on or observe educational situations and interpret them using scientific theories. Mutual respect, partnership relationships that build a trusting atmosphere, and learning based on common values are conducive to constructing the professional knowledge of teachers (teacher candidates).

A pursuit on the part of (educated) teachers to learn how to develop their knowledge and skills through inquiry seems to be the strongest current trend in the literature on teacher education. As Boyd (2016) emphasized, “professional inquiry involves critical engagement with learning theory and educational research evidence. Student teachers need to experience coherent sequences of professional inquiry built around enactment” (pp. 13–14). The content of this monograph allows us to say that important elements in the education of (future) teachers include the following:

- It is important to move beyond interpersonal micropipes and to widen the perception of social reality to include political, economic, and cultural contexts (Nowak-Fabrykowski, Chapter 1; Bałachowicz, Chapter 3; Zbróg, Chapter 9). Progress is unlikely if we do not prepare teachers who understand the complex mechanisms of school functioning and who will be able to discredit various influences on the school: its culture, its program, etc. How the (future) teacher perceives the world has to do with what the school looks like and what the teacher sees for him- or herself in the classroom, for the parents, and for the students (Young & Reavey, Chapter 8; Gatt & Zammit, Chapter 10; Lyle, Chapter 11).
- Many teaching colleges have no vision of how to prepare (future) teachers for conscious functioning in an institution that is politically, economically, and culturally different (Skrzetuska & Nowicka, Chapter 4).
- There are no subjects in the curriculum where students can be “exposed” to the numerous entanglements of the school as an institution and the socio-organizational mechanisms that influence the school and its functioning (Bałachowicz, Chapter 3).
- Studying the process of learning during a critical analysis of educational discourse, in both the public and private spheres, involves building the emancipatory potential of (future) teachers. The motives for choosing teaching as a profession and the process of professional development must be further studied (Kwiatkowski, Chapter 12).
- Learning should take place through inquiry, by asking “Why is this happening?”. This may involve both research-oriented approaches (students doing research) and research-informed approaches (Griffiths, 2004; Pereira & Veriera, Chapter 7; Gatt & Zammit, Chapter 10).
- The process of learning through narratives can be understood both as a “style of thinking” and an “expression of a cultural worldview” (Bruner, 1996). Thanks to the narratives, we build our knowledge about ourselves

and the world, including the educational reality (Vindal Halvorsen, Chapter 2; Pereira & Veriera, Chapter 7).

- Narrations (spoken and written) allow building a thorough understanding of one's own and others' experiences and an understanding of what is happening in learning situations in the classroom and in the classroom (Lyle, Chapter 11; Pereira & Veriera, Chapter 7).
- Searching for effective learning methods, learning in the classroom or simulating such situations, and analyzing the actual school situation at university can make it possible to identify stereotypes and mental and behavioral patterns and to analyze beliefs and social representations as a starting point for modifying, transforming, and modeling new social practices in a school (Vindal Halvorsen, Chapter 2; Pereira & Veriera, Chapter 7; Zbróg, Chapter 9; Kwiatkowski, Chapter 12).
- The context of "real life" stimulates students and teachers to become more engaged in their own learning and in solving actual problems (Gatt & Zammit, Chapter 10; Lyle, Chapter 11).
- There is a need to recognize the advantages of collaborative learning with one another (in the form of joint research projects, knowledge and experience of different cultural backgrounds, provision of a learning community for innovative learning, and a diverse learning environment) and local learning (learning from one another among students, teachers and practitioners, academics, parents, and children (Vindal Halvorsen, Chapter 2; Gomez Parra *et al.*, Chapter 6).
- Improvement and evaluation of teachers' programs should be beneficial and stimulating for the teachers' progress and related to the needs of children and parents, also taking into consideration sociopolitical and economic factors (Nowak-Fabrykowski, Chapter 1).

The monograph contains very interesting examples of international projects and subject programs that can improve the quality of students' education in order to meet the requirements of preparing the teaching profession for the 21st century, with an awareness of multiculturalism and the challenges of global citizenship (Gomez Parra *et al.*, Chapter 6; Ilieva, Chapter 5; Young & Reavey, Chapter 8), but this is just an invitation to readers to become involved in further research and investigations.

One of our recommendations for follow-up research is to look at how universities design their programs to prepare future early childhood teachers for working with immigrant children living in multicultural environments. With

the growing trends of immigration and globalization (Banks & McGee Banks, 2004; Barnes, Brynard & DeWet, 2012; Crosnoe, 2006; Igoa, 1995; Nowak-Fabrykowski, 2012; Shandomo, 2009), preparing teachers to survive and enjoy working in multilingual work places with children and parents of different heritages is certainly a must.

There is also a need to analyze how students' dispositions are changing towards the acceptance of working with children of low economic status, including poverty (Dasho, Lewis & Watson, 2001; Izard, 2016). The issue of children living in poverty is not just relevant to the situation of Third World countries, because more than 16 million children in the US, that is, 22% of all children in the country (or 1 in 5), live in families with incomes that fall below the federal poverty level (NCCP 2016 Child Poverty).

Another important challenge is preparing creative teachers regarding how to develop creativity in children, since many programs have eliminated music and art from their curricula (Robinson, 2001) and teachers implementing new findings of brain-based teaching and learning (Jensens, 2005).

Developing a new generation of teachers who will stimulate the development of emotional intelligence in children with a focus on prosocial skills and self-control (Fitzpatrick, 2007) is probably the area most deserving of attention in a world of growing conflicts, international tensions, and threats of attacks. We need children who are strong and resilient to brain-washing dogma and children and teachers who want to create the peaceful world we hope can be achieved.

The monograph we have compiled is our intellectual contribution to the process of changing universal, unconscious, unwittingly repeated educational practices that imperceptibly hinder multifaceted thinking and understandings of the world, a complex reality; we offer it as an intellectual framework for thinking about education and teacher education. We believe, above all, that academic teachers should experience "discursive sensitivity," which simultaneously obliges them to create cracks in the habitual, schematic perception and description of the world and then to detach themselves from the results of socialization in traditional school settings that embody the dominant stereotypical images of the school and the roles of the teacher, pupil, and parents in school, which are inadequate for today's world, based as they are on mechanical, sterile, senseless practices, and we hope that they will promote the new inquiry-based model of teaching and learning.

We thank the authors for contributing to the creation of this monograph. As editors, we want to underline the insights achieved by analyzing and interpreting contemporary problems related to the education of early childhood teachers and

extending the perspectives on the subject. Although the authors' main domains and areas of research interest are specific to their individual paths of scientific development, their contributions also include a shared view of the topic under discussion. There are some recurring proposals, which, in our opinion, testify to current trends in teacher education research.

We hope that the monograph we have prepared will inspire further scientific reflection and subsequent theoretical and empirical research that will lead to successful changes in teacher education and thus improve the learning culture in early childhood education.

REFERENCES

- Banks, J., & McGee Banks, C. (eds.) (2004). *Multicultural education: Issues and perspectives* (5th ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Barnes, K., Brynard, S. & DeWet, C. (2012). The influence of school culture and school climate on violence in schools in the Eastern Cape Province. *South African Journal of Education*, 32(1), 69–82.
- Boyd, P. (2014). Using 'modelling' to improve the coherence of initial teacher education. In P. Boyd, A. Szplit & Z. Zbróg (eds.), *Teacher educators and teachers as learners: International perspectives* (pp. 51–73). Kraków, Poland: Libron. Available at: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/311923034>.
- Boyd, P. (2016). Realistic clinical practice: Proposing an inquiry-based pedagogy for education. In P. Boyd & A. Szplit (eds.), *Student teachers learning through inquiry: International perspectives* (pp. 11–22). Kraków, Poland: Attyka. Available at: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/311902283>.
- Boyd, P. & Szplit, A. (2016). Epilogue: Student teacher inquiry. In P. Boyd & A. Szplit (eds.), *Student teachers learning through inquiry: International perspectives* (pp. 223–225). Kraków, Poland: Attyka. Available at: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/311902283>.
- Bruner, J.S. (1996). *The culture of education*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Cochran-Smith, M. & Lytle, S.L. (2009). *Inquiry as stance: Practitioner research for the next generation*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Crosnoe, R. (2006). *Mexican roots, American schools: Helping Mexican immigrant children succeed*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

- Dasho, S., Lewis, C. & Watson, M. (2001). Fostering emotional intelligence in the classroom and school: Strategies from the child development project. In *Caring Classrooms/Intelligent Schools: The social emotional education of young children* (pp. 87-107). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Fitzpatrick, S. (2007). Developing a culture of respecting differences in early childhood centers in Northern Ireland. *Young Children*, 62(6), 14-18.
- Garfinkel, H. (1967). *Studies in ethnomethodology*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Griffiths, R. (2004) Knowledge production and the research–teaching nexus: The case of the built environment discipline. *Studies in Higher Education*, 29(6), 709-726.
- Grossman, P., Hammerness, K. & McDonald, M. (2009). Redefining teaching, re-imagining teacher education. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 15(2), 273-289. Available at: <https://cset.stanford.edu/sites/default/files/files/documents/publications/Grossman-RedefiningTeacher-Education.pdf>.
- Igoa, C. (1995). *The inner world of the immigrant child*. New York, NY: St.Martin's Press.
- Izard, E. (2016). *Teaching children from poverty and trauma*. Washington, DC: National Endowment for the Arts.
- Jackson, A. & Burch, J. (2016). School Direct, a policy for initial teacher training in England: Plotting a principled path through a changing landscape. *Professional Development in Education*, 42(4), 511-526.
- Jensens, E. (2005). *Teaching with the brain in mind* (2nd ed.). Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- NCCP 2016 Child Poverty. Available at: nccp.org/topics/childpoverty.html.
- Nowak-Fabrykowski, K. (2012). An application of the “Seven Steps in implementing multicultural education in preschool and kindergarten”. *Issues in Early Childhood*, 3(18), 29-36.
- Robinson, K. (2001). *Out of our minds: Learning to be creative*. Oxford, England: Capstone.
- Shandomo, H. (2009). Getting to know you: Cross cultural pen pals expand children's world view. *Childhood Education*, 85(3), 154-159.

Biography of Authors

Józefa BAŁACHOWICZ

Józefa Bałachowicz, dr hab., is an Associate Professor at Maria Grzegorzewska Pedagogical University in Warsaw (Poland) and Head of the Laboratory of Early Education in the Institute of Assisted Human Development and Education. Chief of the Elementary Education Team working within the Pedagogical Sciences Committee of the Polish Academy of Sciences. Editor in Chief of the journal *Problemy Opiekuńczo-Wychowawcze*, member of the academic council of the Yearly Journal of the Commission of Pedagogical Sciences at Polish Academy of Sciences. The manager and participant of several research project including *Edukacja Środowiskowa dla Zrównoważonego Rozwoju w Kształceniu Nauczycieli* (Environmental education for sustainable development in teacher training) realizowanego przez zespół projektowy Maria Grzegorzewska University in Warsaw and the University of Agder in Kristiansand (Norway). Her special interests are: early childhood education, pedeutology and especially: constructivist foundations of child education – models to support the child's learning, understanding the world and gaining competence; theory and practice of teacher training, early childhood teachers' competence; theory and practice of education, transformation trends. Major monographs: *Style działań edukacyjnych nauczycieli klas początkowych. Między uprzedmiotowieniem a podmiotowością* (Styles of educational activities in early elementary teachers: Between objectification and agency), Warszawa 2009; *Edukacja środowiskowa w kształceniu nauczycieli. Perspektywa teore-*

tyczna Environmental education in teacher training. A theoretical perspective), Warszawa 2015 (co-authors K.V. Halvorsen and A. Witkowska-Tomaszewska); *Edukacja wczesnoszkolna w dyskursie podmiotowości. Studium teoretyczno-empiryczne* (Early elementary education in the discourse of agency. A theoretical and empirical study), Warszawa 2015 (co-author A. Witkowska-Tomaszewska).

Suzanne GATT

Suzanne Gatt is an Associate Professor in Department of Early Childhood and Primary Education, Faculty of Education at the University of Malta. Area of research: early childhood and primary science education, science in society, inquiry-based learning. Chosen publications: Gatt S. & Armeni L. (2014), Pri-Sci-Net – A Project Promoting Inquiry-based Learning in Primary Science: Experiences of Young Children Inquiring, *Literacy Information and Computer Education Journal* (LICEJ), Volume 5, Issue 2, June 2014; Gatt S., Byrne J., Rietdijk W., Tunnicliffe S.D., Kalaitzidaki M., Stavrou D., Tsagliotis N., Gaudiello I., Zibetti E., Scheersoi A., Kramer P. & Papadouris N. (2014), *Adapating IBSE Material Across Europe: Experiences from the Pri-Sci-Net FP7 Project*, Proceedings of the ESERA Conference, Nicosia, Cyprus, 5-9 September 2-13; Gatt S. & Armeni L.S., (2013), Science Education in Europe: Pedagogical Challenges, *International Journal for Cross-Disciplinary Subjects in Education* (IJCDSE), Volume 4, Issue 3, 1222-1226, September 2013; Gatt S. & Theuma G., (2012), Inquiry-based Learning in Early years through Story-telling, *Journal of Emergent Science*, JES4, Winter 2012.

M^a Elena GÓMEZ PARRA

M^a Elena Gómez Parra, Ph.D., is an Associate Professor in the Faculty of Education at the University of Córdoba, Spain. Key research areas: interculture, bilingual education, early second language acquisition. Latest publications: Gómez Parra, M^a E. & Pérez Gracia, E. (2016). Educación intercultural a través del contenido en Ciencias Sociales en Educación Primaria. Intercultural education through Social Science content within Primary Education. *Hekademos*, 21(IX), 65-73. Serrano Rodríguez, R., Gómez Parra, M^a E. & Huertas Abril, C.A. (2016). *La educación sí importa en el siglo XXI*. Madrid: Síntesis. Gómez Parra, M^a E. (2016). Educación Bilingüe e Intercultural (EBel): fortalezas, retos y oportunidades de un enfoque integrado. In R. Serrano, M^a E. Gómez & C.A. Huertas (2016), *La educación sí importa en el siglo XXI*. Madrid: Editorial Síntesis. Golubeva, I., Gómez Parra, M^a E. & Espejo Mohedano, R. (2017, forthcoming). What does ‘active citizenship’ mean for Erasmus students? *Intercultural Education*. Gómez Parra, M^a E., Serrano Rodríguez,

R. & Huertas Abril, C.A. (2016). Los Trabajos Fin de Grado (TFG) del área de Educación en el sistema universitario español, pp. 159-170. In R. Serrano, M^a E. Gómez, & C.A. Huertas, *La educación sí importa en el siglo XXI*. Madrid: Síntesis. Almodóvar Antequera, J. M. & Gómez Parra, M^a E. (2017). Methodological proposal to design bilingual teaching resources (CLIL) in Early Childhood Education. *El Guiniguada*, 26, 77-78.

Kirsti VINDAL HALVORSEN

Kirsti Vindal Halvorsen, Ph.D., is an Associate Professor at the University of Agder, Faculty of Engineering and Science, Institute of Natural Sciences, in Kristiansand (Norway). Her research interests are: education for sustainable development, partnership in teacher education, and nature-based early childhood education. The following publications provide an illustration of her interests: *Reorienting teacher education and schools to address sustainability: Multiple perspectives* (2016); *Building teacher identity in a new partnership project: Multiple perspectives* (2014) and *Steps in the Plantain Project, a scheme to safeguard children and their environment* (1995).

Cristina A. HUERTAS ABRIL

Cristina A. Huertas Abril, Ph.D., is an Associate Lecturer at the University of Córdoba (Spain), Faculty of Education, Dpt. English and German Philologies. Key research areas: Early Second Language Acquisition, EFL/ESL. Latest chosen publications: Huertas Abril, C.A., Serrano Rodríguez, R. & Gómez Parra, M^a E. (2015). *Educación y Cooperación al Desarrollo 2015. Año Europeo del Desarrollo*. Sevilla: Arcibel; Serrano Rodríguez, R., Gómez Parra, M^a E. & Huertas Abril, C.A. (2016). *La educación sí importa en el siglo XXI*. Madrid: Síntesis; Gómez Parra, M^a E., Huertas Abril, C.A. & Serrano Rodríguez, R. (2016). *Educación bilingüe: programas y metodología / Bilingual Education: Programmes and Methodology*. Granada: Atrio; Huertas Abril, C.A. (2016). La competencia oral en lengua inglesa de los futuros maestros: propuesta metodológica y estrategias de comunicación. In M.A. Isabel Amor, J.L. Luengo-Almena & M. Martínez (eds.), *Educación intercultural: metodología de aprendizaje en contextos bilingües*. Granada: Atrio.

Zhivka ILIEVA

Zhivka Ilieva, Ph.D., is an Associate Professor at the University of Shumen: Dobrich College, department of Primary and Pre-Primary School Pedagogy. Her research interests are: language acquisition, TEFL to young learners, applied

linguistics, ESP; teaching through storytelling, picture books and other texts for children. The following publications provide an illustration of her interests: *A Handbook with Stories in English for Future Pre-School and Primary School Teachers* (Ilieva, 2013); *Using stories and picture books to improve communicative competence among young EFL learners in Bulgaria: an empirical study*. In C.N. Giannikas, L. McLaughlin, G. Fanning, N.D. Muller (eds.) *Children Learning English: From Research to Practice*. Garnet Education, 97-114 (Ilieva, Templer, 2015); *Variety of Activities (and approaches) in TEYLs*. In Z. Markova, S. Velikova (eds.), *E-Newsletter Bulgarian English Teachers Association, Celebrating Variety: Making the Most of Your Teaching and Learning Context Papers from the 24th BETA-IATEFL Annual International Conference*, pp. 53-67, Issue 18, year IV, July-August, 2015; available in pdf (Ilieva, 2015); *Acquiring Expressions through Texts for Children: Lexical Approach with Young and Very Young Learners*. *Humanizing Language Teaching*, 17:6, Dec 2015; available in pdf (Ilieva, 2015).

Stefan T. KWIATKOWSKI

Stefan T. Kwiatkowski, PhD, is an Assistant Professor at Christian Theological Academy in Warsaw (Poland), Faculty of Education, Department of Didactics and School Pedagogy. His academic interests focus on research relating to the teaching profession, most of all – the determinants of the teacher vocational effectiveness from both psychological and pedagogical perspective. Major publications: *Choosing the Teaching Profession – Research Results* (2012); *Stopień dopasowania zawodowego studentów pedagogiki w kontekście psychopedagogicznego paradygmatu przystosowania człowieka do pracy* (The degree of vocational fit of pedagogy students in the context of psychopedagogical paradigm of human adaptation to work) (2013); *Sukces w zawodzie nauczyciela w świetle wiedzy o różnicach indywidualnych* (Success in the teaching profession in the light of knowledge of individual differences) (2015); *Diagnoza wybranych różnic indywidualnych studentów pedagogiki w kontekście przyszłych sukcesów w zawodzie nauczyciela* (Diagnosis of selected individual differences of pedagogy students in the context of future success in the teaching profession) (2015); *Innowacje we współczesnym systemie kształcenia nauczycieli w kontekście kształtowania inteligencji emocjonalnej i kompetencji społecznych* (Innovations in the modern teacher education system in the context of shaping emotional intelligence and social competences) (2015); *Idea edukacji społeczno-emocjonalnej jako narzędzie optymalizujące efektywność procesu kształcenia uczniów i nauczycieli* (The idea of social-emotional learning as an instrument optimizing the efficiency of students and teachers education process) (2016).

Dalila LINO

Dalila Lino, PhD, is an Associate Professor at the Polytechnic Institute of Lisbon; Higher School of Education, she is Vice President of the Interdisciplinary Centre for Educational Studies (CIED) and she is a researcher at the Research Centre in Education (CIEC). Key research areas: early childhood education; teacher education; childhood pedagogy; supervision; play and learning; evaluation of early childhood programmes. Coordinator of research projects: The practicum at preschool, primary and secondary education masters. ESEXL/IPL-CIED/2016/A10. Latest chosen publications: Lino, D. (2016). Early childhood education: Key competences in teacher education. *Educatia Plus*, 15, 7-15; Lino, D. (2016). Does childhood pedagogy matters? The role of pedagogical approaches on the development of teacher interaction quality and children's learning. In L. Gómez, A. López & I. Candel (Eds.), *ICERI 2016 Proceedings 9th International Conference of Education, Research and Innovation*, 4469-4478. November 14th-16th, 2016 — Seville, Spain, Valencia: IATED Academy; Lino, D. (2014). Early childhood teacher education: How to enhance professional development. *Educatia Plus*, 11(2), 200-209; Lino, D. (2014). A qualidade do contexto na educação de infância perspectiva da através da escolha e do envolvimento. *Nuances: Estudos sobre Educação*, 25(3), 137-154.

Susan LYLE

Susan LYLE, Ph.D., is Former Head of Continuing Professional Development, Part-time PhD supervisor in the Faculty of Education and Communities, University of Wales, Trinity St David's. Director of Dialogue Exchange Ltd. Her research focus is children as active meaning makers and how this is expressed through language. More recently she leads the Philosophy for Children in School's Project which links the use of story to the development of children's critical, creative, collaborative and caring thinking. This has included research into children's dialogue and the role of school, head teacher and classroom teacher in facilitating children's enquiry. Her current research focuses on work with young children, aged 2-7 years to investigate the impact of oral storytelling and philosophical play on children's speaking and listening and capacity to engage with abstract concepts and its links to the development of early literacy skills. This work is informed by the UNCRC Rights of the Child. Chosen publications: Egan, K. (2014) *Primary Understanding: Education in Early Childhood*. London: Routledge. Reprint edition; Egan, K. (2004) *Getting it wrong from the beginning: our progressive inheritance from Herbert Spencer, John Dewey and Jean Piaget*. London: Yale University

Press; Gopnik, A. (2016), *The Carpenter and the Gardener*. London: Bodley Head
 Murriss, K. (2016), *The Posthuman Child: Educational transformation through philosophy with picturebooks*. Routledge, London; Paley, V-G. (2005) (New Ed.) *A Child's Work: The Importance of Fantasy Play*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press; Stanley, S. & Lyle, S. (2016) Tuning in to Philosophical Play by Children in the Early Years classroom. In: Maughan Rollins Gregory, Joanna Haynes, Karin Murriss (Eds) *The Routledge International Handbook of Philosophy for Children*. London: Routledge.

Esra F. MOLU

Esra F. Molu, LL.M, is a Lecturer at the Marmara University (Turkey), Faculty of Arts and Sciences, Department of Sociology. Key Research Areas: Labelling in education, gender socialization and gender stereotyping, children's rights and intercultural education. Latest chosen publications: Molu, F.E., Basman, M., Eryigit, D., Tunc, B. & Yaman, G. (2014). Erasmus Student Study Exchange Programme: The Incoming – Outcoming of Erasmus Student Study Exchange, Marmara University Students. *International Journal for 21st Century Education*, 1, 21-35; Molu, F.E. (2014). Play, Toys and Gender Socialization. *Revista Educatia Plus*, 11(2), 22-30; Molu, F.E. (2016). Bilingualism and Intercultural Education: A Sociological Perspective. *IJLAL International Journal of Language and Applied Linguistics*, 2, 1-14; Molu, F.E. (2017). Toy Preferences in Children; Impact of Gender and Culture, an Observational Study. *IASSR Publications* (accepted in October 2016) in press.

Krystyna NOWAK-FABRYKOWSKI

Krystyna Nowak-Fabrykowski is a full Professor of Early Childhood at Central Michigan University (USA). She studied in Poland at the University of Lodz (Master in Early Childhood) and at the University of Warsaw (Ph.D.), in France at Sorbonne University (Diploma for Teaching French as a Second Language), in Canada at Laval University (Post-doctoral studies). For her master degree, she conducted research in France investigating Freinet's *Methods of Teaching and his Theory of Teachers* and for her Ph.D. thesis she concentrated on *The Role of Symbols in the Process of Schooling Children*. After leaving Poland in 1981 she lived and studied in France and then moved to Canada where she continued her study. She also taught children French in French Immersion schools. She has been teaching at universities in Canada and the United States for over twenty-five years. Her research is related to the development of moral dispositionse specially caring,

the role of play and symbolic representation and early childhood teachers' preparation. She is publishing in USA, Canada, England, and Poland. She published 2 books: *Different Perspectives on Caring: Making Caring a Metacognitive Activity* and *Education in Transition: Changes in Eastern and Central Europe* (Editor) and also authored or co-authored over 40 articles.

Marzenna NOWICKA

Marzenna Nowicka, dr hab., is an Associate Professor and Head of the Laboratory of Early Education on University of the Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn (Poland). She is a member of the Board of the Editors of the scientific journal *Problems in Early Education*. Her special interests are socialization of the child in the school, children peer culture, teacher's theories of the child and the childhood. Marzenna Nowicka is the author of the book *The Efficiency of Pupils' Communication in School Interaction* (2000) and the co-author of *The Senses and the Nonsenses of Early Education* (3rd, 2013) with Dorota Klus-Stańska. She is also the editor of titles *In dialogue with Korczak* (2014), *The Reformed Early Education – from Reflection to Teacher's Actions* (2005) and *The Teacher and The Pupil in the School Space. Sketches in the Theory and Practice of Education* (2002). Furthermore, she has published many peer reviewed articles in scientific journals.

Íris Susana PIRES PEREIRA

Íris Pereira, Ph.D., is an Associate Professor at the University of Minho (Braga, Portugal). She is a researcher at the Research Centre in Education (CIEd), where she studies language and (digital) literacy education in the early years of schooling education as well as teachers' professional development (with a special focus on literacy practices in teachers' learning). She has published in *Language and Education, Language, Pedagogy and Culture, L1, Changing English* and *Teacher Development*.

Duncan REAVEY

Duncan Reavey, DPhil, is Principal Lecturer Learning & Teaching in the Institute of Education, University of Chichester (UK). Interests include innovations in undergraduate learning and teaching, science education, and learning benefits of Forest Schools. He received the Thomas Henry Huxley Medal for his research in ecology. He has published on ecology, ecological education and innovations in university teaching, and co-authored the textbook *Global Environmental Change: Plants, Animals and Communities*. He was awarded a pres-

tigious National Teaching Fellowship in recognition of excellence in innovative university teaching.

Ewa SKRZETUSKA

Ewa Skrzetuska, dr hab., is an Associate Professor at the Warsaw University of Life Sciences (Poland), Head of Department of Education and Culture and Head of Division of General Pedagogy. Key research areas: early childhood education, difficulties in learning, tyflopædagogics, special pedagogics. Latest chosen publications: E. Skrzetuska, M. Jurewicz (eds.), *Edukacja wczesnoszkolna w warunkach zmiany społecznej i kulturowej* (2016); M. Nowicka E. Skrzetuska (eds.), *Problemy kształcenia nauczycieli edukacji wczesnoszkolnej w uczelniach wyższych* (2016); E. Skrzetuska: *Rozwijanie kompetencji społecznych i komunikacyjnych poprzez zastosowanie pracy w małych grupach w edukacji wczesnoszkolnej*, W: J. Uszyńska Jarmoc, K. Nachniewicz (eds.), *Kompetencje kluczowe dzieci i młodzieży*, Warszawa 2015, p. 217–233; E. Skrzetuska, *Therapeutic education of children with learning difficulties in early – school education*, In L. Neubauerova, K.B. Kochan, E.M. Skorek (eds.), *Special educational needs in the perspective of speech therapy*, Zielona Góra, 2014, p.171-192.

Flávia VIEIRA

Flávia Vieira is a full professor at the University of Minho (Braga, Portugal) and she is a researcher at the Research Centre in Education (CIEEd). She works in the fields of reflective teacher education, pedagogy for autonomy, and the scholarship of teaching and learning in higher education. She is co-author of the books *Pedagogy for autonomy in language education in Europe – Towards a framework for learner and teacher development* (2007), *Struggling for autonomy in language education: Reflecting, acting, and being* (2009), and *Enhancing autonomy in language education: a case-based approach to teacher and learner development* (2015).

Mary YOUNG

Mary Young, MA, is a Senior Lecturer at the Institute of Education, University of Chichester (UK). Subject interests include Global Citizenship, citizenship education, education for sustainability, equality and diversity and art. She is keen to promote social and environmental justice through active learning, critical thinking and discussion – based learning. She has contributed to a number of publications and journals and received a Highly Commended Award from the Geographical Association for her co-authored book, *Global Citizenship: The*

Handbook for Primary Teaching (2002) Chris Kington Publications and Oxfam, having worked on Oxfam's concept of Global Citizenship since 1995.

Charlotte ZAMMIT

Charlotte Zammit is a Primary Teacher in St. Fancis School, Cospicua, Catholic Diocese (Malta). She graduated as a primary school teacher with her Bachelor in Education (primary education) in November 2016. The chapter presented in this monograph forms part of the research she has carried out as her dissertation under the supervision of Prof. Suzanne Gatt. Through her dissertation focusing on the implementation of inquiry-based learning in science Ms. Zammit has continued to pursue her love for science. She is very enthusiastic about her career and is currently working in a Catholic school teaching 10-11 year old children.

Zuzanna ZBRÓG

Zuzanna Zbróg, PhD, is an Assistant Professor at Jan Kochanowski University in Kielce (Poland), Faculty of Pedagogy and Art, Institute of School Education. She is an editor in chief of the journal „Nauczanie Początkowe” (“Primary Education”). She is a member of the Elementary Education Team working within the Pedagogical Sciences Committee of the Polish Academy of Sciences and an expert of the Ministry of Education on course books for the first level of education (classes 1–3 of primary education). Her special interests are: early childhood education, pedeutology, sociology of education and esepcially: social representations theory, collective biography writting. She has published over a dozen children's books for reading learning and spelling, which are used in Polish schools in several countries in Europe (e.g. in France, Finland, Romania), and many peer reviewed articles in scientific journals. She is also an author of 2 monographs and a co-editor of 9 books (e.g. P. Boyd, A. Szplit, Z. Zbróg (eds.), *Teacher Educators and Teachers as Learners – International Perspectives*, Kraków 2014).

Wydawnictwo Akademii Pedagogiki Specjalnej

Wydanie pierwsze

Arkuszy drukarskich 19,0

Skład i łamanie: AnnGraf Anna Szelağ

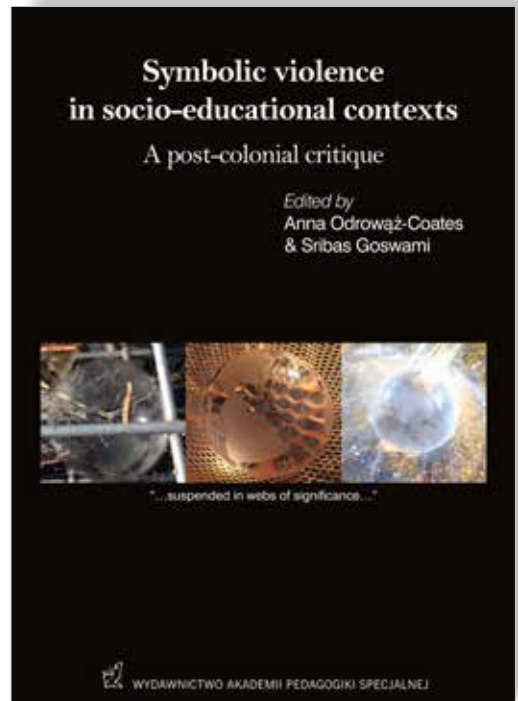
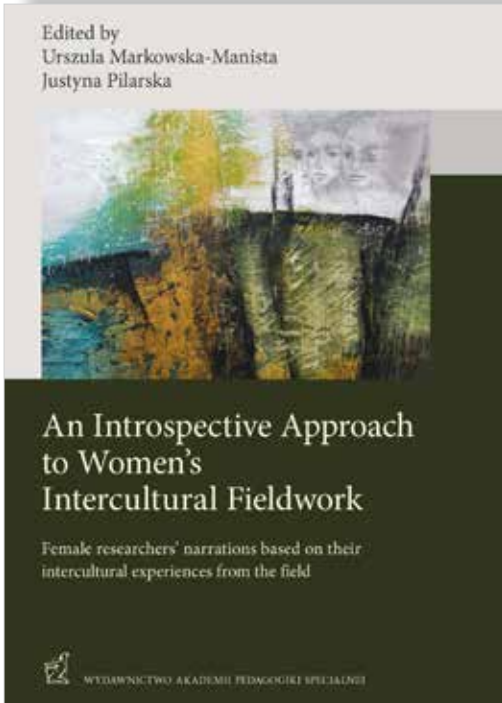
Druk ukończono w listopadzie 2017

Druk i oprawa: Fabryka Druku



**Wydawnictwo Akademii Pedagogiki Specjalnej
im. Marii Grzegorzewskiej w Warszawie**
wydawnictwo@aps.edu.pl

Poleca:



Księgarnia Akademicka APS

ul. Szczęśliwicka 40, 02-353 Warszawa

www.akademicka.com e-mail: księgarnia@akademicka.com

For years we have struggled to respond to a challenge of teacher education in its various contexts, being aware of the deficiencies of teacher training and development, but, at the same time, not reaching community-negotiated solutions. [...] The book reveals international trends in early childhood teacher training and takes into consideration various aspects that can have a significant influence on teachers' work in a fast changing world in the 21st century. [...] The authors of the book chapters come from different continents, which gives a very positive final effect: in fact, they explore the chosen aspects of teacher education in a global dimension. [...] The book comprises not only papers that discuss selected issues based on literature, but it also includes papers reporting on original research and its findings. In my opinion, such diversity makes the book more attractive for Readers as they can be closer to the recent development in knowledge and research. [...] The monograph certainly reveals a broad spectrum of detailed issues of teacher education and promotes a careful study of this field, the study that is sensitive to numerous contexts. It also heightens public attention to the issue of teaching as a profession, especially the issue of early childhood teachers.

Prof. Joanna Madalińska-Michalak
University of Warsaw
Chair of Teacher Education Policy in Europe – TEPE Network

www.aps.edu.pl

ISBN 978-83-64953-84-2



9 788364 953842