



JISTE
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JISTE is an official, refereed publication of ISTE. The goal of ISTE is to publish six to eight articles in each issue. Using the Seminar theme, articles in the first issue of each volume are based on papers presented at the previous seminar. Articles in the second issue are non-thematic. Points of view and opinions are those of the individual authors and are not necessarily those of ISTE. Published manuscripts are the property of JISTE. Permission to reproduce must be requested from the editor.

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JOURNAL OF THE INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

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From the Editor

This issue of JISTE (Journal of the International Society for Teacher Education) introduces the Secretary General of ISTE, Lotte Schou. She has set for herself some very ambitious goals for ISTE during her tenure. I invite you to read them in the interview in the opening pages and consider how we can all work with her towards those goals. Welcome, Lotte!

What will you find in this issue? In an email interview five graduate students from five different countries, all of whom share the doctoral dissertation experience, tell us of why they embarked on that adventure, what it means for their personal and professional growth and how they anticipate their research changing their thinking about and practice of education as well as impacting others. When asked, they had many affirming things to say about their growth in the program; they found some positive working relationships within the Academy. In fact, Srikantiah (DS) talks warmly about conversations with colleagues and of the classroom as a wonderful environment to engage in learning conversations. Although their experience of the supervisory/advisory relationship in their doctoral program was not a focus of the interview, their seemingly ordered progress suggests that this was not a problem for them, contrary to the observations made by Alquaitani and Aldaihani. They indicate, from their research, that supervision/advisement, or lack thereof, is a serious problem for many doctoral candidates and is an obstacle to timely degree completion. So many are disillusioned because they do not have the learning conversations that they expected to have with their supervisors.

Learning conversations fit well into James Heap's conception of a "Learning Faculty". It certainly sounds as though all of these five graduate students (some have positions in the Academy) are already part of the shifting landscape in teaching, scholarship and service that Heap presents – learning being at the centre of the scholarly mission of the comprehensive university. While all of the graduate students' articles draw our attention to many dimensions of learning, unlearning and relearning (Hoveid's reconfiguration, Goncalves' reconstructing, Hunter's and Srikantiah's revitalization), perhaps the most touching is Dragovic's poignant narrative of how she learned to lose (safely) and later regain (cautiously) her professional identity. We read her story with admiration for her courage to disclose. We thank her for sharing it with us. It was intentional to show case the work of graduate students in this issue of JISTE, and I am very pleased that 50% of the articles are authored by them.

The two articles by Al Olothman and Osokoya, both of which deal with strategies for improving learners' achievement may very well be a call to teacher educators to be intentional and diligent in using "professional teaching standards" to guide curriculum development and evaluation. In their article, Power and her associates demonstrate how they are doing this with great success, as communicated in their student teachers' narratives, in the secondary teacher education program in their institution.

Let me hear from you about the features introduced in this issue: the interview format, engaging with graduate students and articles authored by academics who are not members of ISTE.

Sybil Wilson (Canada)

Interview with Lotte Schou, Secretary General of ISTE

At the annual meeting of the International Society for Teacher Education held in Stellensbosch, South Africa in April 2005, Lotte Rahbek Schou, researcher at The School of Education, Aarhus University in Copenhagen, Denmark became Secretary General Elect of the organization. A year later, when we met at Stirling University in Stirling, Scotland she assumed office.



Q. *Lotte, you have been a researcher in your institution for almost 20 years. Tell us about Aarhus.*

A. Since 1988 I have worked as an active researcher at Aarhus. The name of the university has changed several times, from The Royal Danish School of Education, to the Danish University of Education, a graduate institution, to the present School of Education, Aarhus University. Research at the School of Education takes place in six departments and in a number of cross-disciplinary research programs.

Q. *What are some specific ways in which your institution is impacting teacher education in your country through its research programs?*

A. The School of Education offers some twenty research-based postgraduate programs in the fields of education and learning. These programs are designed for students who already have an academic Bachelor's degree, a professional bachelor's degree or a college qualification and who wish to have professional input to help them tackle complex tasks in firms and organizations.

Unlike what happens in many other countries, Danish primary and lower secondary school teachers are trained at University Colleges. The Bachelor of Education degree program is of four years duration and integrates subjects and theoretical, professional and practical teacher preparation. My university has proposed a five-year academic teacher education program consisting of an undergraduate degree of three years and a graduate degree of two years. The program differs from the existing teacher education one partly through stressing the subject part of the program and partly by making it research-based.

Q. *The teacher as researcher; how does this view compare with or differs from a global image of the classroom teacher?*

A. Many countries are exploring how their school systems need to be redesigned in order to meet the changing societal demands of the 21st century. In a globalized world some of these demands are almost universal. Other demands, by contrast, are context-specific, reflecting the unique circumstances, history and culture of a particular country.

Academic knowledge gives the best student achievements when it is combined with knowledge and competencies within foundational education and curriculum theory. Students obtain better results when teachers are able to combine the specific academic teaching with relevant methodology of the specific field and the abilities of the students. Therefore, content should be based on national and international research so that the students improve their academic achievements as much as possible. Additionally, OECD¹ identifies teaching as a

¹ Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development

research-based profession, and the EU¹ advocates for an academic and scientific grounding of teacher education. Although educational research can produce useful knowledge and good ideas that can lay the ground for the development of teaching practice, research results are rarely determinative for the practice of the teacher or for changing practice. Undoubtedly the main reason is that educational research takes place in another context and is based on other success criteria than teaching practice. Teaching practice is based on reflection in supporting and stimulating student learning.

Whether ideas and proposals for better teaching practice have research-based support or not it is up to the teacher to decide. The teacher has to translate educational research into practice, internal action and communication. Not everything introduced finds resonance. The current accountability policy that holds the individual teacher accountable for students' achievement scores as the outcomes of the teaching process is expected to direct teachers towards evidence-based teaching methods.

Good teaching is characterized by teachers having an educational background that enables them to make judgements and take independent decisions about teaching and not only follow rules indicated in an ever so research based curriculum. Good teaching depends on the teacher's experience, context-knowledge, and judgements; but of course it does not exclude that the good teacher keeps himself up to date with the knowledge that is produced by educational research. However, it demands that some conditions are met.

First of all, teacher education should be research based education, i.e., an education that not only introduces students to research based knowledge but also enables students to reflect critically on the research results with a view to their own future practice. An ideal teacher educator is able to link educational research with professional knowledge and teaching practice. It is my hope that sharing through ISTE the varied ways in which different countries approach the redesign of our education systems will provide opportunities for learning from, and with one another, and for improving our understanding of, and respect for differences in redesign.

Q. You are a researcher. Is there one piece of research that you have done which has made a particular contribution to teacher education or to education in general in your country and it excited you?

A. As a member of the research program, "Ethics and Political Education" in the Department of Philosophy, my writings have mainly been themes related to ethics, justification of education, democracy and education, and Bildung theory. Fifty percent of the time I teach in the Master's and Ph.D. programs in the fields of philosophy of education and curriculum theory.

I see the challenge of my work in linking the concept of democratic learning with the ambitions of academic achievement and evaluation in Danish schools. Not only are my students and my colleagues very supportive, but The Danish Ministry of Science, Technology and Innovation has also shown its generosity. In 2005 the Ministry sponsored five months research activities at Arizona State University in order to collect data on the American educational debate. Research funds have made it possible for me to continue my foundational studies in developing a democratic curriculum for the schools.

¹ European Union

Q. *What first attracted you to ISTE? How long have you been a member of ISTE?*

I have been an ISTE¹ member since 1995. What has always struck me is its uniqueness. ISTE seminars make an active contribution both through presentation of ideas and in constructive criticism of colleagues' work. It has a format that is worth continuing. The very fact that for many of us the ISTE seminars have become a springboard for partnerships, collaborations, consultations and student/staff exchanges gives ground for promoting ISTE to become a key factor within international teacher education in all settings and within comparative educational research activities.

Q. *Why have you taken on the role of Secretary General of ISTE? What do you hope to accomplish in this role? Do you have one specific goal for ISTE? What is it?*

Education faces major future challenges. The current situation is characterized by supranational organizations like UNESCO², OECD, the World Bank and the EU having increasing influence on the development of the national policy of education in most European countries. This development has been established through formalized international collaboration between the national governments and the supranational organizations. The collaboration has been forced by the development of technology, the increasing competition between the countries and globalisation, an ongoing development beyond the nation states. In the global and international context comparative education will be of vital importance. Within this field political, cultural, social and especially scientific boundaries are exceeded. It is my hope and ambition that ISTE, with its focus on comparative and international content, might contribute considerably in understanding the educational environment and the rapidly changing global context of the 21st century, by encouraging constructive dialogue and critical analysis and by becoming knowledge producing and practice creating on these contemporary issues. As the Secretary General for our organization I have committed myself to consolidating the previous hard work of all the members of the society and that implies that I will:

- Continue the special format of our annual seminars to encourage constructive dialogue and critical analysis on contemporary and future issues in teacher education and comparative education;
- Develop clear and well-founded explanations for creative solutions taken in collaboration with the Secretary General Elect, the Treasurer, officers and members of the Steering Committee following traditional democratic rules for decision-making to improve our international forum and the dialogue among teacher educators and their institutions on important policy matters related to education;
- Ensure that our society becomes a membership organization with a professional infrastructure necessary for a society that strives to improve the educational process;
- Draw the attention of funding authorities and research councils to areas in which ISTE members' educational research is needed;
- Continue collaborating with other educational associations within all continents;
- Support communication between educational researchers by creating an international network structure where researchers can meet around common special interests.

¹ International Society for Teacher Education

² United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization

The Learning Faculty at a Comprehensive University

James L. Heap

A description of a Faculty of Education as a “Learning Faculty” and how that characterises a 21st century comprehensive university as a place where learning is central to its tripartite mission of instruction, scholarship and service.

As the new dean of education at a mid- sized university, I want to share ideas about learning, what it means to be a “Learning Faculty” and how such a faculty may change the traditional notion of a comprehensive university. At Brock University the Faculty of Education has committed to putting learning at the centre of all we do. Our aim is to become a thorough-going “Learning Faculty.” We are pursuing this aim at an important juncture in the history of the university. Since the beginning of this new century (21st) Brock has been on the path to becoming what has been called a “comprehensive university.” Typically, this is a path which privileges funded research activities and one which requires an increased emphasis on graduate education. When we put learning at the centre of our scholarly enterprise a different conception emerges of what it means to be a truly comprehensive university. In what follows I sketch the conception towards which our Faculty is working.

Shift One: Instruction

There has been a shift in educational theory and practice in the last half century, from behaviourism to constructionism. Educational theorists, researchers and practitioners since Piaget and Vygotsky, have focused on learning as a constructivist process, rather than as a responsive or adaptive process. The tenets of constructionism expounded by psychologists converge at many points with the assumptions of social constructivism that have found expression since the 1960s in the theoretical and empirical work of social scientists, including educational researchers.

The irony is that while the Academy has been the source of knowledge about constructivism, the actual practice in the Academy, i.e., instruction, has been slow to reflect the principles of constructivism. We have depended across the university on the lecture method, as if our job is to pour knowledge into empty vessels. Over the past ten years, though, there has been an increasing dialogue in post-secondary education around what it means to take seriously the idea that people construct knowledge. This is leading to a shift of focus in instruction in post-secondary education, from teaching to learning.

The shift in focus, and what it means, was articulated most strikingly by Robert B. Barr and John Tagg (1995) in an influential article in *Change* magazine. They wrote about a shift from a focus on teaching to a focus on learning where faculty are designers of powerful learning environments; where curriculum design is based on an analysis of what a student needs to know to function in a complex world rather than on what the teacher knows how to teach; where an institution is judged, not on the quality of the entering class, but on the quality of aggregate learning growth possessed by its graduates; where compartmentalized departments are complemented by cross-disciplinary cooperatives; where every employee has a role to play and a contribution to make in maintaining a learner-centred environment; and where the institution itself is a learner—a learning organization.

This shift is well underway in faculties of education, particularly in the way that instruction is delivered. Faculties of education lead the way within universities in focusing on learning, but

there is still much to do, to explore, and to learn. We need to redefine excellence in instruction, focusing on learning (Heap, 2005).

Shift Two: Scholarship

In a Learning Faculty, scholarship is understood as learning. Whether carried out by senior professors, newly hired assistant professors, graduate or undergraduate students, or by staff, scholarship is learning. We are familiar with purely cognitive conceptions of scholarship/learning wherein the individual learns something as a result of inquiry. This conception is too narrow, especially in an institution where taxpayers, funding agencies, foundations and other donors support scholarship. It is not enough for a scholar simply to learn.

From a social constructivist framework of accountable learning, scholarship-as-learning requires the demonstration of learning, through dissemination. Typically, it involves presentation and publication. Since scholarship here is accountable learning, what counts as knowledge, as learning, depends on judgments by others, by experts (who may be peers). The quality of scholarship, as a matter of accountability, is indicated by the stringency of the evaluation to which the work has been subjected. This is why expert-reviewed national publications and presentations have the highest value in the fields and disciplines in which a Learning Faculty is situated.

With the emphasis on scholarship as accountable learning through dissemination we come to a deeper understanding of scholarship: *Scholarship means taking responsibility for others' learning*. It means writing to be read to have the greatest impact. It means writing and speaking to contribute to a discipline, a field, a domain of practice. In a professional school, like the Faculty of Education, this means responding to the views and commentary of teachers, administrators, parents and policy makers.

Following from the outcomes emphasis of learning-centred instruction, interest should increase in the outcomes from scholarship, understood as the impact of scholarship, the value of what the reader learns. Paralleling the shift from a focus on acts of teaching to the impact of teaching on learning, we should find a shift of focus from acts of scholarship to the impact of scholarship on disciplines, fields and/or domains of practice. Such a shift will transform what we mean by excellence in scholarship.

Shift Three: Service

In a Learning Faculty, how might the vision of excellence in service be changed? In a university two types of service are valued: institutional and professional. Institutional service consists typically, of committee and other administrative work at the departmental, faculty, or university level. Professional service can be to a professional association, school, agency, group, community, or society.

In a faculty that learns, and supports learning, service requires reflection on performance, a concern with improvement, and attention to impact in relation to institutional, professional, or community values. Service is concerned to achieve accountable, intentional transformation, i.e., learning. Service in a Learning Faculty means a shift from a passive "contribution" model to a reflective, interactive model, where service is seen at the individual level as an opportunity for growth, meaning personal transformation; and at the institutional or community level as an opportunity for improvement.

Again, following from the outcomes emphasis of learning-centred instruction, interest should increase in the outcomes from service, understood as the impact of service. Paralleling the shift of focus from acts of teaching to the impact of teaching on learning, we should find a shift of focus from acts of service to the impact of service on institutions, associations, and communities of practice. Such a shift will transform what we mean by excellence in service.

What it means to be comprehensive. The shift to a learning-centric view of education has the potential to transform our vision of excellence in instruction, scholarship, and service. Viewed from a constructivist framework, this accountable, intentional transformation is itself an instance of learning, organizational learning. An organization that learns in this way and that has a vision of excellence built around learning would be a compelling example of a Learning Faculty.

Our task in the Faculty of Education is to work out what it could mean to be a Learning Faculty, and then to decide how to realize our vision in a university that intends to become “comprehensive.” In our view, a comprehensive university of distinction is one that internalizes a thorough-going understanding of the centrality of learning across all three domains of its mission: instruction, scholarship and service. Such a comprehensive university achieves excellence by being consistently and passionately learning-centred and learning-intensive.

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Dr. James L. Heap. Before taking up the position of Dean of the Faculty of Education at Brock University, Canada in August, 2005, James Heap served as Dean of the College of Education at Ohio University from August, 1998 to July, 2005. He holds a bachelor’s degree in the social sciences from the University of California-Santa Barbara, where he also received preparation to be a secondary school teacher. He taught social studies in California, and then took master’s and doctoral degrees in sociology from the University of British Columbia. Correspondence: Faculty of Education, Brock University, St. Catharines, ON L2S 3A1, Canada. E-mail: jheap@brocku.ca

Embedding the NSW Institute of Teachers Framework of Professional Teaching Standards into a Master of Teaching Secondary Program

Anne Power, Maggie Clarke and Janice Hall

The Framework for Professional Teaching Standards as articulated by the New South Wales Institute of Teachers describes clear benchmarks for identifying and describing effective teaching. The Standards provide a language that can be used by teachers to communicate within their community about their profession and in so doing advance the status and standing of the profession. This paper reports how this Framework is being used as a common frame of reference in the professional experience units of the Master of Teaching secondary program at the University of Western Sydney where pre-service teachers are required to apply their knowledge and demonstrate attainment of the Standards in varied contexts, both in and outside of classroom settings. It is a significant benefit for pre-service teachers to know and have practical understanding of the Standards as they prepare for their first year of teaching and throughout their teaching career.

Introduction

In writing this article, we first acknowledge the capacity of every young person to learn and they do that intellectually, spiritually, morally, physically, socially and aesthetically. It would be so much neater if all this development was ordered and uniform but that conformist expectation does not allow any learner to 'walk to a different drum' or realize their own unique potential. We also acknowledge the critical role of teachers and parents in this learning process. Supportive, nurturing but challenging environments contribute to the development of learners' "self-worth, enthusiasm for learning and optimism for the future" (Adelaide Declaration, 1999, p. 2). The Adelaide Declaration on National Goals for Schooling in the Twenty-first Century (1999) mandates this in terms of the need for young Australians "to contribute to social cultural and economic development in local and global contexts" (p. 2) and avoid following the "school-to-prison pipeline" (Darling-Hammond, 2006) in which young people, ill-equipped to enter the labour market, are becoming part of a growing underclass cut off from productive engagement in society" (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p.15). National initiatives in place to address this phenomenon are the federal government's commitment to introduce core curriculum as a way of improving standards and avoid syllabuses being hijacked by educational fads (Ferrari, 2007) plus the national accreditation of teacher education courses. But national mandates and policies of education have to be translated into practices at every level of the educational system.

A recent development in education in New South Wales (NSW) has been the introduction of the NSW Institute of Teachers. Its purpose is to improve standards by advancing the status of the teaching profession. As part of its responsibilities, The Institute has developed a system of accreditation for teachers based on a framework of professional teaching standards. "The Framework of Professional Teaching Standards provides a common reference point to describe, celebrate and support the complex and varied nature of teachers' work. The Professional Teaching Standards describes what teachers need to know, understand and be able to do as well as providing direction and structure to support the preparation and development of teachers" (NSW Institute of Teachers, 2007, p. 2). *New scheme* teachers, that is, teachers who were first employed during or after term four in 2004, or who are returning to teaching during or after term four in 2004 after a break of five years or more, need to be provisionally or conditionally accredited in order to be employed in NSW schools. Teachers

entering the profession must achieve and demonstrate the minimum standard of Professional Competence. As part of the NSW Institute of Teachers Accreditation process *new scheme* teachers are required to provide evidence for accreditation in the form of a portfolio.

The above policies and requirements have good credence and many educators have dialogued about embedding these as priorities into teacher education programs. At the University of Western Sydney (UWS) these priorities are addressed in the Master of Teaching program. This article explains the nature of the Standards framework and ways in which it has been embedded in the UWS pre-service program. Three subsections focus on units of study (subjects) in the program: (a) Pedagogies for Learning, (b) Professional Experience 1 and 2 and (c) Professional Experience 3.

Embedding the Standards Framework in the Master of Teaching Secondary Course at the University of Western Sydney

In 2006, Teaching Australia produced the Consultation Paper on National Accreditation proposing that National Accreditation Standards comprise program standards and graduate standards for teachers. It is especially the graduate standards that this article addresses. As with all the Standards, the Graduate Standard is described in three domains of: professional knowledge, professional practice and professional commitment (Teaching Australia Forum, 2007). Currently the three Eastern states of Australia demonstrate similarity of content in these graduate standards, although they call the domains by slightly different names (Teaching Australia Synthesis, 2007). Embedding the NSW Institute of Teachers Framework in teacher education programs means that the UWS graduates will be prepared for likely continuing developments towards a national framework.

The NSW Institute of Teachers Framework of Professional Teaching Standards comprises four key stages, three teaching domains and seven elements. The three domains are: Professional Knowledge, Professional Practice and Professional Commitment. Across these domains there are seven elements. The first two elements are in the domain of Professional Knowledge and are:

1. Teachers know their subject content and how to teach that content to their students;
2. Teachers know their students and how students learn.

The next three elements are in the domain of Professional Practice. They are:

1. Teachers plan, assess and report for effective learning;
2. Teachers communicate effectively with their students;
3. Teachers create and maintain safe and challenging learning environments through the use of classroom management skills.

The final two elements are in the domain of Professional Commitment. They are:

1. Teachers continuously improve their professional knowledge and practice;
2. Teachers are actively engaged members of their profession and the wider community.

The four key stages of the framework are: Graduate Teacher¹, Professional Competence, Professional Accomplishment and Professional Leadership. These stages are hierarchical, starting with the Graduate Teacher, and teachers are to be assessed against the Standards on

¹ In the language of the NSW Institute of teachers, this teacher has graduated from a pre-service teacher education program with a University qualification, has joined the profession and is yet to proceed to acknowledgement of the Standard of Professional Competence. In NSW and in Australia generally, a first degree without teacher qualification does not meet the minimum requirement to teach.

an ongoing basis, moving through the stages throughout their career. Table 1 below shows some examples of the progression from the first key stage of Graduate Teacher to the next stage of Professional Competence.

Table 1. Examples of the progression from key stage of Graduate Teacher to Professional Competence

| Graduate Teacher | Professional Competence |
|---|---|
| Demonstrate relevant knowledge of central components | Apply and use relevant knowledge of central components |
| Demonstrate knowledge of specific teaching strategies and of students' different approaches to learning | Apply effective strategies for teaching and accommodate students' different approaches to learning |
| Demonstrate knowledge of keeping accurate records of students progress to reflect on lesson sequences | Report effectively on student progress and evaluate teaching and learning programs |
| Demonstrate knowledge of principles and practices that -create positive classroom environment -engage students -manage student behaviour | Ensure a positive environment and establish orderly and workable learning routines that -manage purposeful student behaviour |
| Demonstrate capacity to reflect critically on practice to improve teaching | Reflect critically to improve teaching practices |
| Demonstrate understanding of importance of home-school links and interact Effectively with the community | Communicate with understanding to parents and caregivers and interact effectively with the community |

The University of Western Sydney offers its Master of Teaching students the opportunity to do cutting edge teaching and learning in its Pedagogies for Learning and Professional Experience units. A purposeful approach has been implemented in the course to embed the Standards framework into the secondary program in these units. The Pedagogies for learning unit is a foundation unit that all students in the course study. It forms the scaffold for understandings for other units such as Professional Experiences (PE). There are three PE units each with a specific skill set and knowledge requirement.

Pedagogies for Learning Unit

Pedagogies for Learning, directly related to professional experience, form the basis for student teachers to develop the language and understanding of the Standards framework. This unit of study emphasises teaching as a profession and particularly articulates the meanings of quality teaching and learning. Arriving at an understanding of the NSW Institute of Teachers Teaching and Learning Framework is a process that is scaffolded through discussions of the professional dimension of teaching and the nature of quality teaching and learning. The teaching and learning framework is examined and reflected upon through lecture presentations and tutorial activities over a five week period. Throughout the thirteen-week unit the student teachers are encouraged to critically reflect on their professional experiences in schools. This reflection is grounded in identifying standards achieved in relation to the Framework.

Progress towards accreditation in schools by *new scheme* teachers includes supervision by an experienced teacher and targeted professional development where needed. *New scheme*

teachers are supported by their supervisors through classroom observations and through meetings to review and analyse relevant documentation such as teaching programs and student learning outcomes. The Pedagogies unit at UWS is designed to model the accreditation process used in NSW schools. One assignment for the unit is directly related to the Standards framework. For this assignment student teachers are required to submit a teacher learning portfolio based on evidence that shows their achievements towards the benchmark of The NSW Institute of Teachers Standards for Graduate Teachers. The assignment involves developing skills in collecting evidence to support the student teacher's progress towards accreditation. The student teachers are required to provide appropriate evidence from their professional experience that explicitly demonstrates the Standards that they nominate. They are asked to annotate the evidence that they include in the portfolio. The annotations should make specific links between the student teacher's teaching practice and the Standards. As part of the portfolio process, peers in tutorial groups act as mentors during a tutorial to assist student teachers to further develop their portfolio. The feedback provided by the student teacher's peers utilises a similar mentoring process as that used by the *new scheme* teachers and their supervisors.

The student teachers are required to submit three well annotated documents: two lesson plans that they have developed and one student work sample (with no evidence of the school student's name). For the two lesson plans the student teachers are asked to provide annotations in which they describe how they used their knowledge of content and syllabus requirements, student learning and pedagogy when planning for effective learning. They are required to include evidence describing why they selected the activities and resources that they used and how this catered for their students' learning needs. For the student work sample student teachers are required to provide annotations in which they reflect on:

- The student's progress towards the learning goals that were established;
- The effectiveness of the teaching and learning that were planned and delivered;
- The extent to which different learning needs were catered for; and
- The feedback communicated to the student and/or parent/caregiver.

In Pedagogies for learning tutorial the student teachers present an interim draft of their portfolio to a group of four or five peers. They act as mentors and provide written feedback to the student teacher which is then incorporated into a final assessable report. The development of a portfolio is seen as providing the groundwork necessary for student teachers to gain an understanding of the portfolio process and its relationship to the accreditation process of new teachers.

Professional Experience

The three Professional Experience Units (PE 1, 2 and 3) are core units in both the Bachelor and the Master of Teaching Secondary programs. They are designed to introduce teacher education students at UWS to the philosophical, ethical, practical and pedagogical perspectives of becoming a teacher in contemporary, secondary educational settings and sustain their engagement with the issues. It is expected that they hold the core values of fostering a deeply held commitment to excellence in teaching, cultivating critical self-awareness and expanding capacities to respond to individual needs of learners in schools. The competencies and expectations for learning and teaching experiences are clearly outlined in the UWS Secondary Professional Experience Handbook and the UWS Professional Experience Policies and Procedures Guidelines distributed to every student and field based teacher educator.

Professional Experiences 1 and 2 are both distinguished by the focus week tasks as well as teaching everyday in three and four week blocks. For guidance during these times, the NSW Institute of Teaching Elements (see above) was reshaped into three major assessment items: the Questions and Reflections for Focus Week, the Learning Feedback Sheet and the Final Report. When pre-service teachers first enter a school setting as part of their program, it is critical that they are not in an observational vacuum or become enmeshed in a personal discourse. Focus Week is an unsupervised professional experience where teacher education students are introduced to the complexity of teachers' work with clarity and explicitness. It is therefore designed as an orientation to a secondary school, to focus students' attention on educational matters, to probe their own developing reflective skills and to support them in becoming intellectually perceptive. The week is completed before the Higher Education Contribution Scheme (HECS) census date, in consideration of students who may have economic or other difficulties. This is the date by which UWS students may withdraw from their program with no financial penalty.

Selected aspects of the NSW Institute Standards were condensed into a succinct and manageable three-page document which detailed what we (the UWS faculty) considered to be those most pertinent to UWS students. They were directed to make observations and critical reflections and write a short response recounting a conversation or an experience for each aspect of the Standards that they determined assisted in their development as a teacher. These data were to be collected by observation, by interview, by collegial discussion and dated. The student teachers were expected to act in a professional manner at all times throughout these processes. The task set was completed with a 500 word personal reflection and was used as key tutorial material after they returned from Professional Experience. Sample items from the Standards are:

- Teachers apply and use knowledge of their discipline in content-rich teaching and learning activities;
- Teachers apply and use practical and theoretical knowledge of pedagogy in meeting the needs of their students;
- Teachers use a broad range of assessment strategies to assess student achievement of learning outcomes;
- Teachers manage learners' behaviour and promote student responsibility for learning.

Two samples of student feedback follow:

"I have found the emphasis on reflection particularly in the Pedagogies assignment invaluable. I hope it is a skill I can carry throughout my career." (Student 1, April 4, 2007)

"Initially I felt confusion. But by the third day I felt much more confident and taught my lessons on day 4 and [day] 5." (Student 2, April 4, 2007)

According to Giroux (2006):

Education and teaching involve the crucial act of intervening in the world and the recognition that human life is conditioned not determined...it is also invested with a critical self-consciousness regarding what it means to equip students with analytical skills to be self-reflective about the knowledge and values they might meet in their classrooms. (p. 20)

Mindful of this we (faculty) deliberately structured both the feedback form and the final report with the same aspects to facilitate the development of the process for both teacher and student. They are to be implemented for the first time in semester one, 2007.

Field-based teacher educators use the *Secondary Program Observation and Feedback Form* to provide feedback to their student teachers, optimally at least once each day. Research has shown that feedback is a critical aspect of professional growth (Darling-Hammond, 2006) and where there is consistent feedback effective pre-service education is linked to slower attrition rate of beginning teachers (Henke, Chen, Geis & Knepper, 2000); so frequent and consistent feedback is important for the student teacher. With little knowledge of teaching or experience of self-reflection, student teachers are likely to rely more on rote methods, for they are less skilled in dealing with the complexity of learning and teaching. Thoughtful feedback is one way to move student teachers beyond rote teaching behaviours to trying new methods and to being reflective about their work.

Structuring frequent and effective feedback from the school-based professionals is a joint professional responsibility of the field based teacher educators, the UWS academics and the student teachers. This provides an opportunity for the UWS academics to share professional knowledge with the teaching profession around the new Institute Standards and adopt a mutual language of reflection on this new approach.

There are five main criteria on the feedback form:

- Demonstrating knowledge of content and pedagogy;
- Planning, assessing and reporting for effective learning;
- Communicating effectively;
- Creating and maintaining safe and challenging environments through classroom management skills;
- Demonstrating professional knowledge.

Each criterion is expanded further by more specific items. The performance level indicators for the above criteria are three: well developed for stage of development¹, competent for stage of development and experiencing difficulties for stage of development.

The UWS faculty is of the mind that the structured reflections that student teachers compose will illuminate the critical pedagogical and theoretical principles that we desire for our students. Therefore, towards a similar end, the self evaluation from Professional Experience 3 is a structured reflection. Professional Experience 3 provides teacher education students with opportunities for innovative teaching and learning in programs located in alternative teaching and learning settings. The flagship of the Professional Experience 3 unit is *Learning Choices > Next Generation* with connections to *Take Five* and *Links to Learning* programs for students at risk. Other offerings include *Plan-It Youth*, *Maximising Potential* (a leadership program) and *Beyond the Line* which offers the opportunity for student teachers to teach in a rural setting.

¹ Stage of development for this feedback on Professional Experience refers to the incomplete pre-service program, leading to the key stage of Graduate Teacher.

Students' Reflections on Professional Experience 3

It is the students' voices that are especially revealing here as they reflect on their completed experience in relation to elements now established in the Institute's Standards. In terms of Element 1, the aspect that is uppermost in PE3 is knowledge of pedagogy. In one-to-one and small group situations involving students with gaps in their education and challenging home lives, they apply their practical and theoretical knowledge to meet students' specific needs. Research confirms that project based learning that engages students in authentic experiences can "turn students" who are disaffected and disengaged in the school environment (Stewart, Sun, Patterson, Lemerle, & Hardie, 2004; Vickers, Harris & McCarthy, 2004). One such learning experience, planned by two UWS students, was the design of a school magazine as part of a Take Five program. The project included the design of the magazine cover and a cover story using advanced graphic and multimedia tools. The adolescents involved in the project had to give a power point presentation to the school's editorial board demonstrating their work. These learners were at risk of leaving their school.

In their reflections, the two UWS students on this project said:

Initially we were a little nervous because these students were at risk of leaving school. We quickly realized, with added information from the project coordinators, that these students do not like being reminded of the school environment and prefer an alternative setting. This was important because it was up to us to take into consideration the needs of these students... We had to adjust the lesson plans so that we varied between writing and working on the computers. We tried to work with the students at different levels. For example, sitting on the floor with the students and chatting; using the one -on -one approach or giving them free time when they felt frustrated or felt they were not succeeding in their task...

Sometimes a student was aggressive because they probably had a difficult day or other personal problems. In such situations, the project coordinators told us to give them space. Later in the day these students joined our lessons! A very important lesson for us as beginning teachers!

These students gave us insights into their way of thinking. As adults we assume a lot, forgetting that these are adolescents who are still learning and have many misconceptions about life.... Talking about their likes and dislikes created a good rapport with them and humour was also a great ice-breaker. Some students lack self-confidence. When the magazine was completed, these students were so proud and the completion of the magazine lifted their sense of self-worth and belief in themselves.

The same two UWS students also reflected that their final professional experience block in schools was enriched by their confidence in teaching students with difficult patterns of behaviour. They used positive reinforcement, more patience and humour; and they described the reactions of students in the classroom as 'phenomenal'. They realized that students saw them as approachable; and they felt that they 'had grown as teachers and saw things from a different perspective.'

In terms of Element 2 (knowing your students) the UWS pre-service teachers reflected powerfully on Professional Experience 3 as an opportunity to know and respect the students with whom they worked in this unit and know and appreciate their various backgrounds - social, ethnic, cultural and religious. This was evident in many of the programs from which

students chose their experience. One student, who participated in a Beyond the Line experience to Moree, wrote:

Approximately 36% of the student population is of Aboriginal descent; and Aboriginal Education Assistants help students negotiate their learning outcomes. There are issues of low self-esteem and low socio-economic background. However, having come from a rural environment in another country and with a passion for agriculture, I want to teach in the country. The experience provided me with the incentive to develop proactive partnerships with parents and the local community to develop pedagogy that will be culturally balanced.

Additionally, because this unit encourages small group and one-to-one teaching, UWS students have the opportunity to develop understandings about how students learn and what their skills and interests are. They particularly benefit from working alongside those who regularly engage students with challenging learning behaviours and they learn to apply effective strategies for teaching such students. They use such knowledge to enhance learning outcomes as is shown by one of the students in the Maximising Potential program who reflected on this at length:

Through this experience I was trained as a personal leadership coach, learning and improving skills such as questioning techniques which will help my teaching practice be more effective. Not only did I become a coach but I also received coaching which helped make me more focused on achieving goals I'd set for the future. Through working with two Year 11 students who were identified as significant cultural leaders within their school community, I have gained an insight into issues being faced by youth of Pacific Islander origin and have helped to establish an after school homework centre offering extra assistance with school work. This education setting enabled me to experience a more individualistic approach to teaching.

Within the Professional Experience 3 unit, several programs require the pre-service teacher to plan with a budget. Consequently, they learn not only the identification of learning goals (a focus of Element 3) but also the design of achievable projects and the selection of resources to support students' learning. For the pre-service teachers, the assessment tends to be visible in a completed project that in turn informs their further planning. Their observations demonstrate that the experience has been significant for them as well as for their students:

My project was focused on animal anatomy. The students would make prototypes of animals with heavy cardboard pieces and a wooden jigsaw frame in which the pieces would be nested. The initial planning glossed over the practical reality of how to obtain specific resources such as the scroll saw. After two lessons dealing with a combination of task avoidance tactics I found the best approach was to provide a quick demonstration that sparked genuine interest in reaching a very obtainable goal for the day, then providing individual set-up and guidance. Each goal needed to be related to relevant experiences such as jobs sought. Only in a one-on-one nature did students respond to the task. The resource challenges for me arose because the carbon paper method I had trialled (to transfer the design to the wood) proved a difficult budgetary item, and a substitute method was more time consuming. I learnt there is no such thing as over planning and that the best planning is by trialling the project in the actual setting with the actual resources.

In project-based learning, the explanation of goals (an aspect of Element 4 dealing with Communication) is very important, as is the ownership of those goals. In the projects, the adolescents' interests are given priority. The role of the teacher is one of facilitator, probing, understanding, re-interpreting, synthesizing and incorporating suggestions. UWS students demonstrated flexibility in adapting their plans:

I worked in a Take Five program with students aged 12-15 whose school attendance and behaviour had identified them as at risk of leaving school. It was definitely challenging for me but I have learned so much. These students struggle with behaviour, treatment towards others, completing work, reading, anger management and family issues. The program really gives an opportunity for students to think about their actions and choices, where their behaviour has led them and what they want for their future. I had arranged to run a few different projects over the weeks. The first was creating a vegetable garden with students involved in planting vegetable seedlings and caring for them till they were ready to harvest. To see students excited in the second week to check on their plants and scream when they could see a shoot in the soil was fantastic. I'd planned wooden toy-making as the second activity; but one of the students added to that with the idea of wooden key hangers. This project gave me the opportunity to learn teaching and managing skills with some of the toughest students in a classroom. It also taught me compassion, understanding and insight into their backgrounds. I know it will stay with me as I head into the classroom.

Probably the core of the reflections that are completed in Professional Experience 3 are to do with the creation of a learning environment (Element 5) in which adolescents can experience respect and rapport. The disaffected students have often missed this. For the UWS students, the first priority is this element – the creation of an environment in which students can collaborate and enjoy feelings of successful learning. One UWS student wrote about her experience in an Intensive English Centre (IEC) located in a high school:

I team taught with one of the teachers there and also advised some students how to seek employment or apply for a traineeship. It was rewarding to see students' eagerness to learn and I was so impressed with the teacher's ability to meet each student's needs without compromising other students' learning. I also felt very emotional because the experience reminded me of the difficult times when I was in an IEC. However, I think this assisted my understanding of the students' needs. The majority of students at the time of my PE3 were from Arabic speaking backgrounds or African immigrants. As a result many students displayed writing difficulties and were not used to school routines. This was frustrating for teachers and they had to employ a variety of techniques to motivate the students. Specialist migrant counsellors provide welfare and settlement support to students, including those from refugee backgrounds. Many students from Sudanese background needed counselling because of the traumatic events in their past. It was good to see how counsellors and school teachers conversed about the best way to satisfy the students' needs.

Another student reflected on her experience with at-risk students:

I found that building these students' trust was essential. And I was willing to spend time in this area. I often found myself asking the question 'Was I or anyone I knew like this when we were at school?' I am glad that I experienced this teaching. Often in school, teachers may not see these students as anything but 'bad kids'. I probably would have

been like that too without this experience. It has certainly changed the way I will approach teaching.

Conclusion

It is the conscious decision of UWS educators to prepare pre-service teachers not only for school-based teaching but also for experience with students who are at risk of disengaging with learning. The underpinning philosophy is that varied pre-service experiences allow students to experience placements in which field-based colleagues assist in the achievement of quality teaching goals. These innovations are being initiated so that UWS avoids the path by which “50,000 individuals enter teaching each year without adequate preparation, most of them assigned to teach the nation’s most vulnerable in the highest needs schools...because states have lowered standards to fill vacancies rather than increased incentives for quality teachers” (Darling Hammond, 2006, p. 21).

In utilizing The Standards in the pre-service program at UWS we, as a teaching team, believe it will optimally assist in the development of the skills, knowledge, understandings and values that enable students (both university and school) to expand the possibilities of what it means to be a lifelong learner and an authentic pedagogue. It has assisted in ‘providing the language’ within the academic team but more importantly it has given the teacher education students and the teachers in schools a common language to map progress and chart development in a professional way. It augers well to continue to be of significant benefit to our current and future students. The example of this experience at UWS, embedding external standards in the teacher education program, might be of use to institutions worldwide as there seems to be a trend towards increasing the requirements for teacher licensing and intensifying the rigour of standards that are the criteria for such licensing.

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Doctoral Students' Perceptions of the Academic Advisor's Role and Progress Towards Degree Completion

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This study explored doctoral students' perceptions of the student-advisor relationship and the effect of this relationship on progress toward degree completion. The participants were seven students from three American higher education institutions. An interview protocol was used to collect the data, and all measures were taken to maximize the credibility and dependability of the results obtained. Each interview was coded for recurring themes, using phenomenological across-case data analysis for data reduction and the identification of final essential themes. Based on their voices, that are presented as narratives in the text, the findings showed the importance of the advisor and student each communicating expectations of the other. The study concludes with a recommendation for research with graduate students' advisors to better understand the nature and dynamics of that relationship.

Introduction

Graduate education has garnered increasing attention at the national level. Continued declines in degree completion rates have prompted concern from educational and scientific organizations and led to the establishment of initiatives to re-examine doctoral education, particularly as it pertains to the faculty pipeline (e.g., Association of American Universities Committee on Graduate Education, 1998; Canadian Association for Graduate Studies, 2001; National Research Council's Committee on Science, Engineering, and Public Policy, 1995).

To understand this concern and appropriately meet the needs of a changing student demographic, it is prudent to examine the literature on graduate students. This body of work is rife with descriptive studies that focus on access to graduate education, degree completion rates, and time to degree (Austin, 2002; De Valero, 2001; Golde, 2000). Data from such studies address graduate education at admission and graduation points, but not the student experience. Therefore, the current researchers (henceforth 'we') add our findings to the understanding of the value of the academic advisor in students' progress toward degree completion in the university or college.

Studies have consistently shown that 40-50% of individuals who begin a PhD. program never receive their doctorate degree (Bowen & Rudenstein, 1992; Lovitts, 2001; Tinto, 1993). Tinto (1993, p.50) posits that attrition is predicted by the extent to which students' experiences serve "to integrate [them] into the social and intellectual life of the institution." Undergraduate attrition is attributable to the lack of campus integration and missing connections to social subgroups (Golde, 2000). Doctoral students devote more of their time and energy to working within their academic departments, so the causes of attrition shift focus from the larger campus culture to that of the academic department and the universal culture of the discipline (Bowen & Rudenstine, 1992; Geiger, 1997; Schlosser & Gelso, 2001; Tinto, 1993).

Golde (2000) divides the integration process into two pieces—academic integration and social integration. She says that academic integration for doctoral students "refers to becoming part of the work world of the discipline and the department: taking classes, developing facility with fundamental theory and research skills, participating in colloquia, [and] writing papers for presentation and publication" (p. 201). Social integration refers to

developing informal relationships with students and faculty. Tinto (1993) believes that these two integration processes are more closely coupled for doctoral students, particularly late in the program when the student's life is dominated by dissertation completion. It has been also found that academic integration is the primary predictor of persistence (Lovitts, 2001). Furthermore, the evidence suggests that the faculty advisor is a more important source of academic integration than peers (Austin, 2002). In a meta-synthesis of 118 research studies related to doctoral student persistence, the single most recurring finding was that degree completion was correlated with the amount and quality of contact between the student and his/her faculty advisor (Bair & Haworth, 1999). Other factors that the authors of this meta-synthesis found to be important were (a) financial support provided, (b) field of study, (c) student satisfaction with program, (d) difficulties with the dissertation, and (e) time to degree.

An emerging theme from previous research is exploration of persistence rates among women and under-represented minorities. Smith (1996) points to the difference in treatment between male and female doctoral students. A recent work by Maher, Ford and Thompson (2004) found an increasing difference between "time to completion" for males versus females. One of the themes found behind this differential is based on the success of the student-advisor relationships. Bair and Haworth (1999) predict that increase in completion time will lead to higher attrition rates for females.

It is reasonable to suggest that retention rates are driven by what happens to students during their years of graduate study between admission and graduation. Under the new umbrella of Tinto's (1993) social and intellectual integration, important relationships exist between graduate students and their advisors. Published literature has consistently found a link between the nature of the student-advisor relationship and successful completion of the doctorate (Austin, 2002; Faghihi & Ethington, 1996; Ferreira, 2000; Fox, 2001; Golde, 2000). Others point to the complex nature of persistence, which can be attributed to a host of factors including department characteristics, student characteristics, grades, involvement, and financial support (Girves & Wemmerus, 1998; Maher, Ford, & Thompson, 2004). Given these complexities, Girves and Wemmerus (1998) state "The set of student/faculty relationship variables is powerful enough to indirectly predict doctoral degree progress through involvement [in the program] as well as to directly predict progress" (p. 185). Thus, relationships with faculty are critical to doctoral student persistence.

Absent from the literature is an adequate depiction of what faculty consider as their advising role. However, several authors argue for a developmental approach to advising doctoral students (Bargar & Mayo-Chamberlain, 1983; Belcher, 1994; Green & Bauer, 1995; Schlosser, Knox, Moskovitz, & Hill, 2003). This approach considers the varying academic, personal, and professional needs of each student. Vilkinas (1998) succinctly describes the faculty advisor as:

A person with vision, who is creative in the supervisory process, can acquire the necessary resources, can get the work done, can direct the work of students, can check on and coordinate the various activities that need to be undertaken in the research journey, can nurture, create actualities and can foster growth of individuals; perhaps most importantly a good supervisor knows when to do these things and can move comfortably between these functions and has the skills, knowledge and abilities to perform them as an integrator. (p. 171)

Clearly the expectation is for faculty to serve as social and intellectual guides for students throughout their graduate school experiences. The role of faculty advisor can become lost between the expectations and perceptions of students, particularly when students and faculty do not communicate. The purpose of the present study is to describe how a small group of doctoral students perceive the advisor-student relationship in contributing toward degree completion. Specifically, we answer the question, "How do doctoral students describe the quality of their advisor-student experience as it relates to progress in their program?"

Method

The participants in this study were seven graduate students pursuing doctoral degrees in three American higher education institutions on the East coast of the United States of America (U.S.A). Participation in this study was voluntary, and participants had input in drafting the informed consent, which each read and freely signed. None of the participants was offered reward or compensation for participation in this study. The main selection criterion was that they were pursuing the doctoral degree in the Spring term of 2007.

Four participants were females between the ages of 41 and 49, three of whom were Asian and one Caucasian; of the three males, aged 34-41 years, two were Caucasian and one Kuwaiti Arab. All seven participants were married and had at least one child. At the time of the study; two individuals were full-time students. Five participants worked full-time with careers in education. All five part-time students had experienced particularly interesting situations with the student-advisor relationship.

Based on the relevant literature and our own experience, we developed the interview protocol (Appendix A) that consisted of six research interview questions and seven demographic questions that supported the purpose of the research study. We wrote questions that would explore the meaning of the phenomenon under investigation for each individual participant (Cresswell, 1998). Each participant was interviewed individually, using a combined standardized interview and open-ended interview guide approach. Utilizing a combined strategy provided interviewers the flexibility to individualize the interview and explore related topics that were relevant to the research question while maintaining standardization of interview questions across interviewees (Patton, 2002).

Interview partnerships were arranged between the participants and the researchers (henceforth us) with a priority placed on convenience. Interviews were conducted in settings that accommodated schedules and were mutually convenient. Interview sessions were approximately twenty minutes in duration and tape-recorded. The tapes were transcribed within 48 hours to aid in accuracy of transcription (Sibley, 2004). We completed informative and descriptive field notes following interviews to record impressions of the process (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995); however, field notes are not incorporated into the results section below.

Each interview was coded at least eight times. Participant validation enhanced credibility; interviewees reviewed transcripts for accuracy and provided corrections and clarification as needed (Rossman & Rallis, 2003). They confirmed and extended themes derived from within case analysis of the interviews. We used analytic memos to enhance meaningful, reflective analysis (Rossman & Rallis, 2003). Additionally, anonymous group examination of data and the code-recode strategy for interview transcripts increased dependability of the research process (Anfara, Brown, & Mangione, 2002). Communicating via e-mail and face-to-face, we (the two researchers) initially analysed data within case to identify and describe emerging

coded themes. Next, we conducted phenomenological across-case data analysis resulting in data reduction and the identification of final essential themes (Cresswell, 1998) as presented in the table below:

Table 1. Three Iterations of Data Analysis (to be read from bottom to top) of the Doctoral Students' Perceptions Regarding the Role of the Academic Advisor

| Third Iteration | Coach | Mentor | Guide | Support |
|-------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Second Iteration | Coach | Mentor | Co-researcher Colleague | Communicator Instructor |
| | Coach | Teach Systems | Quality Time | Support |
| | Motivation | Navigate Politics | Recommend | Monitor Progress |
| | Understand Unique Needs | Find Financial Resources | Guidance | Open Doors |
| First Iteration | Provide Feedback | Act as Role Model | | Provide Correct Information |
| | | Be a mentor | | Certify Classes |
| Data | | | | |

We, as researchers, together with the participants, helped in providing a cohesive community of practice that collectively identified accurate themes that emerged from the research data illuminating the experience of the participants (Rossman & Rallis, 2003). This structure and our personal insight facilitated a deeper understanding of how graduate students perceive advisors' roles in contributing toward degree completion (Becker, 1996). We invite readers to learn from the participants' voices and to draw conclusions regarding the credibility of the findings (Anfara, Brown, & Mangione, 2002; Katz, 2004). The names below are not the real names of the participants.

Findings

Marie, a 47-year old female, took five years away from her doctoral program after receiving very little advice from an advisor that she describes as having a constructivist viewpoint of education; that is, the advisor thought that much of the value of the doctoral experience was gained through lived experiences outside the classroom. He expected her to put together her own program of study from the available classes. Marie felt frustrated at paying full tuition for a program that didn't seem to be leading to her professional expectations. When she did return to the program, she was enticed by an advisor who made promises of funding opportunities that never materialized and misled her about residency requirements.

Jane, 48 years old, is ABD (all-but-dissertation) and has been so for approximately five years. She experienced a difficult situation with her prospectus when she felt that her advisor did not defend her well with another committee member. However, she passed the prospectus and only had two chapters of her dissertation to write. She subsequently changed jobs and

was distracted from completion. She received no encouragement to make progress. It was a colleague, and not her advisor, who persuaded her to re-enrol in graduate school.

Jo, a 48-year old female, started a doctoral program two years ago and has been without an advisor for much of that time. Many of the roles she feels an advisor should play were instead taken on by members of her cohort. She says that her cohort members, all without an advisor, “have really negative feelings.” She goes on to say that the situation:

has caused a lot of stress on all of us because we want to be doing what we need to be doing and we just haven't gotten any answers...it's just not a good situation and one that I would not wish on anyone else.

Important to this study, Jo noted that the level of frustration has not caused many to drop out. She remarked, “None of us are intending to withdraw from the program or anything like that.” She has been able to overcome frustration and found needed support from alternative sources.

All three of these individuals are remarkable for their dedication to the pursuit of a doctoral degree. Each lives at least two hours from the campus, meaning that they spend more time commuting than they spend in a three-hour class. This dedication is perhaps the reason that all three are still students despite the negative advisor-student experiences. Two other participants, Susan and Jake, both in their early 40s, were at opposite ends of the spectrum in their views on how their advisors had impacted their ability to complete the program. Susan had a friendship with her advisor prior to entering the doctoral program and has maintained that friendship. Susan had unique needs in wanting to study in an area in which a defined program did not exist. Her advisor worked with her to set up that program.

Jake had a particular situation that he openly says could have led to his withdrawal from doctoral study. Many of his classes taken for his Master's degree were completed more than ten years earlier. University rules dictate that individuals must certify that they have the core knowledge gained in classes completed more than six years previously. Facing the prospect of taking individual tests for each of about a half dozen classes, he had decided to drop out of the program, but had not told anyone of this decision. However, his advisor opted to have Jake certify all the classes *en masse* in a very simple process. Jake remained enrolled.

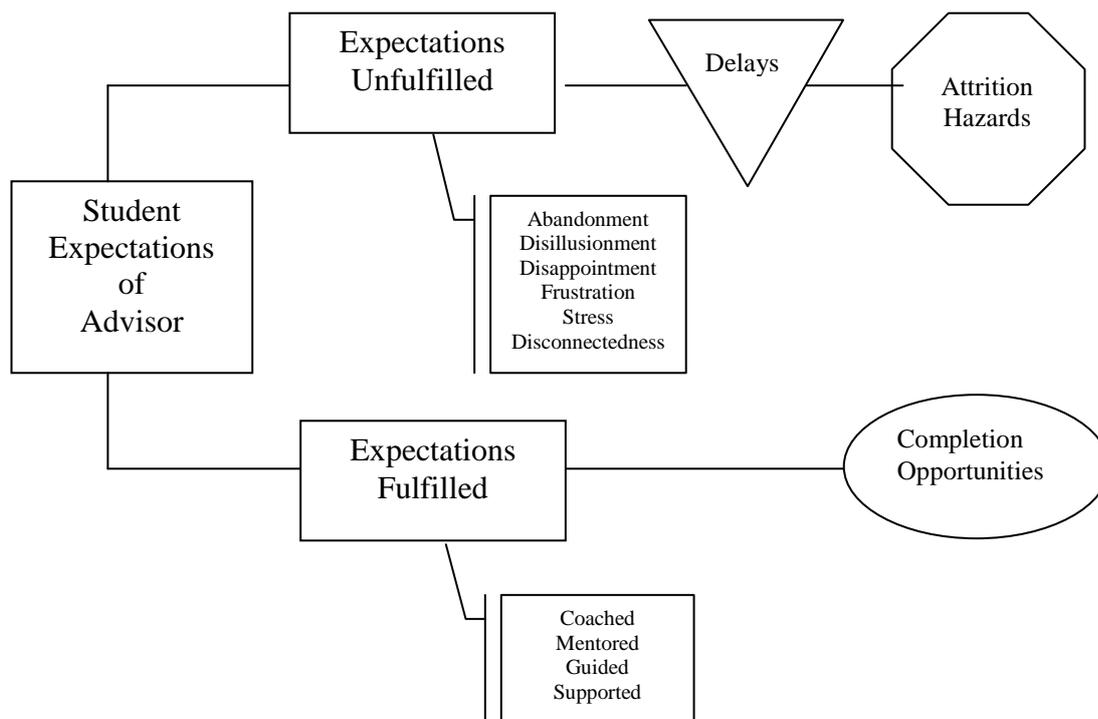
Collectively, the participants in this study had four primary expectations of a relationship with their advisor. Two of these expectations were that the advisor be a mentor and a coach. The role of coach involves providing quality time and motivation to the advisee. One of the two full-time students provided a poignant metaphor regarding the relationship he has with his advisor: “(He was) coaching me. And he thinks that way I can go through the jungle using his torch, but I am coaching myself using his torch.”

A mentor is expected to be a partner in learning and one who develops a quality relationship with a humanistic or personal connection. The participants also held expectations that the advisor provides guidance and support. This includes helping students navigate the politics of the department and university, making recommendations and providing feedback. Largely, students seek a colleague and professional mentor (Golde, 2000) in their advisor. If these expectations of the advisor are met, progress is made in the program. For example, when Jake was asked about his advisor's role in helping with his progress, he responded as follows:

He has been very amenable to being flexible with me. He had a similar situation as I do when he was an employee at this institution some years ago... where he was in a responsible position and had situations when there were times when things came up when classes were not as important as the work place.

As illustrated in Figure 1 below, if expectations are not met, progress in the program is hindered or delayed and may result in feelings of frustration, stress, abandonment, and dissatisfaction. Marie remarked that “it might be helpful if during the process of starting out with an advisor there were a few more guidelines.” With realistic expectations formed from tangible guidelines, she believes she would have made more informed choices.

Figure 1: Doctoral Students’ Expectations of an Advisor



Discussion and Conclusions

In examining doctoral students’ perceptions of the role of the advisor-student relationship as it contributes to degree completion, this study showed that students entered a doctoral program with expectations of their prospective advisors that may significantly change over time. These expectations cluster around four areas: mentoring, coaching, supporting, and guiding (Figure1). Student expectations primarily focused on academic integration. They expected social guidance from their advisor in the form of navigating the politics of the department and university (Girves & Wemmerus, 1998; Maher, Ford, & Thompson, 2004).

These findings are somewhat in line with previous research, which emphasize the importance of both integration processes (Golde, 2000; Tinto, 1993). Social membership within one's program becomes part and parcel of the academic membership, and social interaction with one's peers and faculty becomes closely linked not only to one's intellectual development, but also to the development of important skills required for completing the doctoral degree. Although students in this study came to graduate school with similar expectations of their

advisors, primarily seeking a colleague and a professional mentor, their perception of quality in the student-advisor relationship varied dramatically based on individual experiences and circumstances. We might glean insights from students' experiences and speculate on the faculty's advisory role. For some students, it is a fruitful endeavour when advisors take a personal interest. However, based on the information from most of the students in this study, this role may also be one of ambivalence in the "sink or swim" culture of the academy.

As the literature emphasizes, an important relationship exists between advisors and students. This relationship impacts progress toward degree in two important ways. On the one hand, students' unfulfilled expectations of their advisors may create negative feelings of abandonment, stress, disillusionment, frustration, and disconnectedness. Each is a possible indicator of a lack of academic and social integration and may lead to opportunities for attrition. Conversely, if expectations are fulfilled, then there are likely opportunities for degree completion.

This study further points to the importance of the advisor and student each communicating expectations of the other, including the different roles in which the advisor should or is willing to function. Therefore, future research is needed to explore how advisors perceive their relationship with doctoral students in order to better understand the gestalt of the advisor-student relationship.

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Appendix

Interview Questions

Research Question

How do doctoral students describe the quality of their advisor-student experience as it relates to progress in their program?

Research Interview Questions

1. Presuming you have an advisor, how did you get your advisor?
2. Have you changed advisors and if so, why?
3. How would you describe the role of your advisor?
4. How has your advisor contributed to the progress in your program?
5. What things have you learned from your advisor that helped you navigate the social and intellectual life of the institution?
6. What else should I have asked you about your relationship with your advisor?

Demographic Questions

1. What is your current program of study?
2. What stage are you in your doctoral program?
3. Are you a full or part-time student?
4. Are you currently employed, and if so do you work full or part-time?
5. Please briefly describe your family situation (e.g., single, married, children at home)
6. How long have you been a student at this institution?
7. What are your age, gender, and ethnicity?

On Doing Graduate Studies – An Interview

Five students, who are pursuing graduate studies at different institutions, met at the ISTE seminar of 2007 and found some common ground. Here they share their reasons for doing a doctoral degree, their expectations of transformation through the learning experience and how they hope their research will change their perspectives on teaching and learning and teacher education and impact their practice of education and the practice of others. The five graduate students come from five different countries: Canada, Norway, Scotland, Slovenia, and the U.S.A. All five candidates are doing their studies in the fields of teacher education and/or pedagogy and are well on their way to degree completion so here they speak about their research. Four of them have articles in this issue of the journal that are from their doctoral research.

Q: *Why are you doing a graduate degree in education?*

CW: In part I am undertaking an EdD. because of the role that I now hold in an HE (Higher Education) environment. It has helped me to understand the processes that can drive academic work and the role that this can play in teacher education. However I am also undertaking an EdD. because of my interest in undertaking further study and I knew that a program such as this (with defined time scales and structures) would support my personal and professional development.

DS: My parents are of Indian origin and I was born and brought up in the U.S. Like other second generation children growing up in the U.S., not only did I face disconnects between home and school life, but I also felt disconnected from my family in India. For example, from a young age I felt that my economic, social, and educational opportunities were better in the U.S. than for my family and other students in India (students who come from middle or lower class families). These experiences were significant to me because if my parents had not immigrated to the U.S., I would have also grown up with my family in India. Therefore, one of my main reasons for pursuing graduate studies in education was to analyse discrepancies students face in education.

KM: I've always loved learning, been inquisitive about its dynamics and liked to experiment with ways in which to increase learning effectiveness. My doctoral degree in education results from a long standing interest in educational psychology that began in my first career as a nurse providing patient education, and continued as my career shifted into the field of education as a community college and university instructor. Completing undergraduate science and art degrees and master's in education wasn't enough for me, as I wanted to learn more about educational psychology and experiment with creating new learning resources.

MH: After having worked in teacher education as an assistant professor (later years Associate prof) for around 14 years, I applied and received a grant to do my Ph.D. My graduate studies in pedagogy (Education) date back to 1989 and the degree from then is not sufficient in order to pursue a career as a researcher. I am doing my degree in education since this is my field- or rather pedagogy as it is called in Scandinavia, and I have been working in teacher education and therefore my practical interests are also within this field.

TD: On a macro level I believe education is the answer to solving many issues around the world. Somebody said once: "I am touching the future, I teach." On a micro level I am interested in exploring teachers' professional identity because of my own personal experience of being a teacher in the midst of the Balkan conflicts in the early 90s.

Q: *What does it mean for your personal professional growth?*

CW: On a professional level it has enabled me to get up to speed, so to speak, with a range of academic writings, concepts, theoretical arguments and discussions that I may not have had

access to without my studies. It has also provided me with a useful support network within my work environment. On a personal level it has allowed me to be more reflexive about what I do and why. Whilst it is hard to find the time to study for a part-time doctorate with a full-time job it has allowed me to learn a lot about my own beliefs and values. I have had to learn to plan life carefully and to prioritize more clearly.

DS: Throughout my career in the graduate program, I have been able to build and expand on the ideas I initially came in with and deeply reflect on educational issues. To approach my feelings of disconnect – I am studying knowledge systems that are indigenous to developing countries and would like to understand how historical events, like colonization, may have destroyed and undermined them.

KM: I am surprised and satisfied with my personal and professional growth resulting from my doctoral experience. Slogging through advanced statistics courses cleared the way to a new perspective on data analysis as a creative pursuit. Rewriting my proposal over and over has increased my writing skills especially in tightly defining concepts and in carefully clarifying what I mean to communicate. I feel I have more self-confidence in my capabilities as a researcher and in my actions as a teacher as a result of doing doctoral work. Making the time to read educational psychology more deeply and broadly has given me the theoretical background and insight into the teaching strategies such as Problem-based Learning (PBL) that I have used for the past twenty-five years.

Q: *How have your graduate studies changed or informed your perspective on teaching and learning?*

CW: It has widened the range of texts and ideas that I have read around pedagogy. These have in turn informed my thinking around a range of issues such as learners, communities and cultures.

TD: Since my graduate studies are based on my personal experience of being a teacher during times of war, that alone already changed my perspective on teaching and learning. It is worth noting that in the times before the Balkan wars I tended to think of learning through the lens of cognitive theories. The experience itself shifted my focus to humanist theories and I believe studying for the Doctorate of Education where I explore teachers' identity may strengthen that perspective.

KM: For me, opportunities for sustained discourse on teaching and learning have been vital to enhancing my perspectives in this area. Working with seasoned professors and others in the educational environment while completing my course work has provided the tacit knowledge unobtainable from books and articles. These experiences have been essential to observe, consider, research, debate and discuss teaching and learning beliefs similar and dissimilar from myself.

DS: My graduate program has made me a critical thinker in the area of comparative and international education. My professors have taught me alternative ways of developing education policy and curriculum so that certain groups of students are not marginalized over others. The course readings, lectures, and conversations I have with my colleagues, have reinforced my thoughts that knowledge does not only flow from top to bottom and that the classroom is a wonderful environment for students and teachers to engage in a learning conversation.

Q: *How are your graduate studies informing your perspective on teacher education?*

MH: As I do my empirical study with a group of in-service teachers I get different perspectives on what teacher education could and should (in my opinion) focus on. These are issues more specific for the Norwegian teacher education. Two issues, which in my opinion are keys to good teaching and to professional development for teachers, are time available

and manageable “tools” for teachers to reflect on what they do when they do what they do – teach.

TD: I used to believe that teacher education is more than enough for preparing teachers for their profession. Unfortunately no teacher education has prepared me neither for losing nor for regaining my professional identity. My doctorate studies have shed more light on how multi-layered teacher education needs to be; first of all, how the focus on skills and knowledge should expand to beliefs, values, identity and mission.

CW: Again I have read more widely and this has impacted upon my thinking; also meeting with other individuals at a range of events has allowed me to think through alternative arguments and views. It has widened my networks within my work environment and taken me on some interesting journeys that I wouldn't otherwise have experienced. The new people that I meet at ISTE are an example of this.

KM: Working on a research project concerning the expectations of post-secondary teachers while also preparing my doctoral research has opened my eyes to what and how I might contribute to the field of teacher education in ways I had not considered before doing my doctoral program. I find myself considering a broader array of strategies to enhance the inclusion of educational psychology in teacher education.

Q: *What impact on education (elementary, secondary, post-secondary, further education) do you expect your study will or may have?*

TD: I expect my study to have impact on teacher education in Slovenia both on the formal teacher education and on CPD¹ programs. There has been an emphasis on subject knowledge and pedagogical skills in the past and the hope is that studies like mine will contribute to a more theoretical, practical and experiential teacher training.

MH: This is hard to say, it might not have any impact at all. In terms of political impact it depends a lot on how I am able to promote my findings and my pedagogy across to the policy makers – this has not been my agenda so far. Within the courses I teach and the institution I teach I will work on implementing my ideas and thoughts and thereby try to influence both students and the curriculum with pedagogy in teacher education.

KM: I expect that my research will have an immediate impact of stimulating participants in my research sample to reflect upon their beliefs about teaching and learning and their communication challenges when tutoring in a program that uses a problem-based learning (PBL) approach. In the short term the two medical schools that supported my research have indicated that they are interested in the findings to enhance the curriculum of their tutor training programs. More broadly, I see the findings including the measurement instrument as applicable to medical and health science education, post-secondary teacher education, and settings where adult educators use a facilitation approach and are interested in a self-assessment tool for professional development.

CW: I think that undertaking an EdD. has given me the support and structure to develop some of the skills required for working in an HE environment. It has enhanced the skills base that I brought with me from a school background. Central to this has been contact with others and the reflexive impact that this has had on me.

Claire Whewell (CW) at the University of Stirling, Scotland is studying the impact of the Master's level course, developed to support the Standard for Chartered Teacher, on those who have taken the course. She draws on aspects of narrative inquiry and identity theory to shape her study.

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Deepa Srikantaiah (DS) at the University of Maryland, College Park, U.S.A., is investigating how indigenous knowledge systems are represented in globally operating institutions in the Western hemisphere. In this issue of the journal she has an article co-authored with her supervisor.

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Kareen McCaughan (KM) at Simon Fraser University, Canada, is investigating the relationship between the teaching and learning beliefs of tutors using a Problem-based Learning (PBL) approach and their comfort with non-directive facilitation strategies.

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Marit Hoveid (MH) at Norwegian University of Science and Technology, Norway, is doing both a philosophical and an empirical study, inquiring into ways in which language use about inclusive education structures relations and interactions in education.

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Tatjana Dragovic (TD) at Open University, U.K., is examining 14 primary school teachers' personal and professional development, focusing on Neurolinguistic programming based development training. Her article in this issue is, Teachers' Professional identity: Losing it and Regaining it.

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Teachers' Professional Identity: Losing it and Regaining it

Tatjana Dragovic

A teacher/ researcher shares her personal story of losing her professional identity through the turbulence of a war and regaining it later in a new place. She frames her story with an exploration of selected literature on the nexus of teachers' personal and professional identities and their teaching embedded in them being who they are. She concludes the paper by asking that, in their educational programs, teachers around the world be helped to face sudden changes in their lives and to maintain and even develop their professional identity in the midst of critical situations. This story remains a vivid and painful memory of this writer's life journey.

Introduction

This paper will focus on an individual experience of losing and regaining a teacher's professional identity. The paper will discuss some of the existing literature on teacher's professional identity as well as tackle personal issues involved in the loss and regaining of this identity. The role of initial teacher training/teacher education programs and continuing professional development (CPD) will be partly examined in order to open a discussion about their contribution to preparing teachers/students for being and remaining teachers in sometimes critical situations.

Teachers' Professional Identity

In the last decade, teachers' professional identity has emerged as a separate research area (Bullough, 1997; Knowles, 1992). To explain what is meant by teachers' professional identity, several authors have drawn on the definition of identity used in social science and philosophy. The works of the symbolic interactionist, Mead (1934) and the developmental psychologist, Erickson (1968) are of particular interest in this regard. Mead used the concept of identity in relationship with the concept of self. According to him, the self can arise only in a social setting where there is social communication. Erickson outlined a changing concept of identity stressing that identity is not something one has, but something that develops throughout one's entire life. Thus identity turns out to be a relational phenomenon. Gee (2001) stresses that identity development can best be characterized as an ongoing process, a process of interpreting oneself as a certain kind of person and being recognized as such in a given context. In this context Beijaard *et al.* (2004), who made an analysis of studies about teachers' professional identity, see identity as an answer to the question: "Who am I at this moment?"

As a possible answer to the question Beijaard, Meijer, and Verloop (2004) defined teachers' professional identity in the following way:

- Professional identity is seen as an ongoing process of integration of the 'personal' and the 'professional' sides of becoming and being a teacher;
- Professional identity is not a stable entity; it cannot be interpreted as fixed or unitary;
- Professional identity implies both person and context;
- Professional identity is multifaceted;
- Professional identity may consist of many sub-identities that may conflict or align with each other;
- Agency is an important element of professional identity, meaning that teachers have to be active in the process of professional development.

Beijaard *et al.*'s (2004) *relatively* recent findings about features of teachers' professional identity are not fully in accordance with previous work done in the same field, for example, by Nias (1989). Her concern is with the 'self' and its realization in teaching. Its pedigree, as already mentioned, is symbolic interactionist and particularly Meadean conceptions of the 'self'. Within that framework her book is a notable contribution, as it provides a considerable amount of material on the nature of the 'I' and the 'Me' as seen by teachers. Nias makes a distinction between the 'substantial' self, a kind of inner, unchanging core and the 'situational' self, that is, different selves that are adaptations to particular situations. Her concern is with tracing the linkages and tensions between the two as evidenced within teaching.

According to Mead (1934) the 'substantial' self is formulated early in life through many and varied interactions with significant others, many of them non-verbal and hence difficult to articulate. To aid a sharper definition, it both compares and contrasts with others; and for protection purposes it has a survival kit that resists assaults on the self designed to destroy or to change it. 'Situational' selves, on occasions, may be part of this defence apparatus by allowing the individual to adapt to different situations while preserving intact the innermost core. It is the teachers' substantial selves that should be aimed at for significant change and development during personal and professional development, and these are not changed easily. If one is to adopt this perspective on teachers' professional identity, many attempts to contribute to the development of their identity through initial teacher education and/or continuing professional development would prove to be fruitless due to the fact that the 'substantial' self is not changed easily.

On the other hand, given the significance of 'interaction' in the formation of teachers' identities, MacLure (1993), just like Beijaard (2004), warns against holding the view that identities comprise a 'core' or 'essential' self. In her research she demonstrated through detailed discourse analyses of interviews conducted with teachers, how teacher identities are "less stable, less convergent and less coherent than is often implied in research literature" (p.320).

In a study of secondary schools Helsby (1999) found those teachers' professional identities in which their values were embedded, were undermined and even changed by educational reforms. Speaking of changes, Woods' (1981) metaphor of 'making and breaking the teacher role' may prove useful here particularly for an examination of this author's personal experience of needing to flee Serbia in the early 90s, feeling that she was not allowed to be a 'proper' teacher in a time of political and civil war. Some of the colleagues that stayed in Serbia, later on have confessed that they had to sacrifice their understanding of professionalism and change their professional identity as teachers. If a professional identity, including a teacher's identity is not as static, singular and core as Nias (1989) suggested, then there is an opportunity to extend, develop and even change it through continuing professional development.

Strauss (1962) offers a model of personal change or development that would challenge the 'substantial self' laid down in the interactions in early life. In his discussion of 'transformations of identity', one meets with new concepts and new classifications, and old ones being modified. It stays; however unknown for now whether such a personal change or development may be achieved through initial teacher training and/or continuing professional development programs since no major research study has explored the relationship between initial teacher trainings and/or CPD programs and the way in which teachers perceive their

professional identity. Moreover, there is little research worldwide into teachers' professional identity over the course of a career, how they build and maintain (or not) their professional identity. How do they adapt to uncertainty and change in different contexts?

Beijaard (1995) mentions four main features related to the study of teachers' professional identities. These are 'identity in general', 'the subject one teaches', 'relationship with pupils', and 'role/role conception'. However, having mentioned uncertainty and change earlier, a further feature not mentioned that could and should have been considered when examining teacher identity is the significance of the specific context, be it personal, social, cultural or political. Having said that, it would be fair to mention that several researchers (Nias, 1989, 1996; Hargreaves, 1994 and Sumsion, 2002) have acknowledged that teacher identities are not only constructed from the more technical aspects of teaching (i.e. classroom management, teaching skills, subject knowledge...), but, as Van Den Berg (2002) explains: ...[teacher identities] can be conceptualised as the result of an interaction between the personal experience of teachers and the social, cultural and institutional environment in which they function on a daily basis" (p. 579).

Krejsler (2005) has also pointed out that nowadays in order to uphold the authority of the profession, it is no longer sufficient that the professional solely refers to his/her professional knowledge and the ability to apply that knowledge to specific and well-defined diagnoses or instrumental needs of the client. She/he is increasingly expected to be able to act as a fellow human being as well (Kvorning-Hansen & Lam, 1990). It is in the context of the above reflections on professional identity and "acting as a fellow human being" that I share my story below.

My Story

It feels almost like a betrayal to even attempt to write an academic article about an intimate and painful personal experience. How does one write academically about feeling lost, ashamed of not being able to help one's learners understand and rise beyond everyday political games, about losing one's country, home, friends, family members and, above all, about losing one's own self? One does not. One cannot. At least I cannot. I am sure that the colleagues around the world, who teach creative writing, would know how to frame a narrative such as this one. I am also sure I should be able to use what I have learned from studying Anglo-American literature to make this account flow smoothly and elegantly. And yet I cannot. At least not yet. It seems too early, even though it is now 15 years since I fled from Serbia. That alone says a lot. I have tried to talk and present on the issue many times and every time I had to fight tears to be able to get to the end of the story. Whenever I hear others talk about the issue of teachers' identity I silently cry in the audience. What is it that is still so painful 15 years later? Taking a distance for a moment I could say that one way of thinking about it is to say that it takes a long time to forge a professional identity, and a very short time to lose it, and that it seems to take much longer to regain it than to forge it. But am I now talking only about a professional identity? Or am I talking about a sense of self? Or both? I do not know. I do know though that these concepts are very clearly closely interwoven.

As Hargreaves (1993) says:

[T]eachers don't just have jobs. They have professional and personal lives as well. Although it seems trite to say this, many failed efforts in in-service training, teacher development and educational change more widely are precisely attributable to this neglect of the teacher as a person – to abstracting the teacher's skills from the teacher's self, the technical aspects of the teacher's work from the commitments embedded in the teacher's life. Understanding the teacher means understanding the person the teacher is. (p. viii)

How can someone from the 'outside' understand a teacher caught up in the turmoil in the Balkans in the early 1990s, where everyone was suddenly taking sides that hadn't existed just a few years or even months earlier? Suddenly childhood friends, colleagues and even family members found themselves on opposite sides. Almost overnight what used to be called Yugoslavia fell apart and ended up in several 'civil' wars. With the famous bipolar 'philosophy' used much later by another famous politician (George W. Bush) "Either you are with us or against us", there didn't appear to be any way one could stay out of the political game. Having worked at the same time as teacher and a journalist and having experienced threats for not behaving according to the ruling political 'philosophy', I faced one of the most difficult decisions of my life: to stay and compromise on basic values and beliefs about what constitutes good professional work or to leave and forget about any commitments to learners and to education in general. It was what psychiatrists and psychotherapists would call a double bind. The last straw broke when my boyfriend was drafted for the army. We finally decided to leave, or rather we 'smuggled' ourselves out of the country feeling bad about leaving, feeling bad about not being able to stop the madness and feeling helpless.

We found ourselves arriving in Slovenia, the farthest we could get without any serious difficulties. The rest of the world was closed due to sanctions. How is it to be a disillusioned teacher in Slovenia where the Yugoslav/Serbian tanks had been on the streets recently against the local population? Frightening is the word. And yet it was a 'liberation' at the same time. If for a moment we forget basic survival issues (which we actually cannot) there were even more serious issues to deal with: First, getting a status that would allow us to work (that excluded a refugee status that would have provided us with basic food and shelter, but not more). Secondly, where could we find someone, who would employ people from Serbia, who were basically considered 'outcasts' in the current political situation? On the one hand, I wanted to work, to teach, to BE a teacher again and at the same time I felt ashamed of not 'being there' for the students I had left behind, and, on the other hand, I did not feel as a teacher any more.

How does one regain one's identity as a teacher? I believe I forged my teacher's identity while I was trained to be a teacher; however no initial teacher training program, no CPD program had prepared me for regaining it. How does one do that? In my case, it started happening through teaching and learning, through being reflective about what happened, through simply 'being', and through surviving. The first strategy (through teaching and learning) could be called a modified 'learning by doing' approach which became 'regaining teacher's identity by doing it'. To teach was very demanding and yet it was healing at the same time. The second strategy (being reflective about what happened) opened up 'space' for exploring the 'reflective practitioner' concept (Schön, 1983) on a completely different level. The third and the fourth strategies may seem to be one and the same and yet they are not: Surviving is not a guarantee for 'being', and 'being' is not a guarantee for surviving. I know

many teachers in the war-affected areas of ex-Yugoslavia, who survived but stopped 'being' (being teachers or being their own selves). There are also teachers in the same region, who managed to continue being teachers, but have not really survived the value-clash they experienced. Once I started teaching again, it took some time before I could feel that I can make a difference for the learners, and not just with my professional knowledge of the subject. It was something else; it was my life story and who I have become due to experiencing it. It was about a 'personal touch'. There was now an even greater commitment to helping learners become free-thinking, independent, satisfied, committed human beings. Five years after arriving in Slovenia, I was fortunate enough to be invited to design and deliver CPD programs for teachers in Slovenia. Since then I design and deliver CPD (Continuing Professional Development) programs that touch on teachers' professional identity and that work on their personal development through reflective and experiential modules in order to prepare them for any critical situation, but hopefully not for a war-related one.

Teacher Education

Perhaps it will be helpful to briefly explore or at least open a discussion on what formal (and informal) teacher education programs can do for teachers in similar situations as presented in my story above. Nias (1989) wrote that people feel threatened when they face changes that influence their self-image and consequently their personal and professional identity and the changes one faces while being confronted with war definitely fall into that category. Blasé and Anderson (1995) draw attention to the connection between teacher emotions and wider contexts:

Teacher emotions are professionally affected by the micro-politics of their schools in terms of their principal's behaviour, their experiences of change; and so on... these micro-politics of the school are in turn embedded within major micro-political forces of leadership, change and political reforms that have equally significant consequences for the emotions of teaching and teacher development. (Hargreaves, 1998, pp.326-327)

These statements are begging an important question: How can teacher education, be it initial teacher training or CPD, provide for teachers' professional identity creation and its maintenance and development? Hargreaves (1993) warns, as mentioned above, that it cannot be achieved through the neglect of the teacher as a person and through abstracting the teacher's skills from the teacher's self. From a personal development perspective, the question about teachers' professional identity to be answered may not be just (as suggested earlier by Beijaard *et al*, 2003) who am I at this moment? But perhaps there are even more important ones, e.g. in the initial teacher training phase, who do I want to become? And in the CPD phase, who am I becoming at this moment? And, who have I become?

In order to help teachers engage with such identity questions, in his book on teaching excellence in higher education, Skelton (2005) offers Barnett's (1997) idea of 'critical being'. Barnett's notion of "critical being" integrates the intellect, the self, and action. According to Barnett, teachers who refuse to accept 'received wisdom', who develop an informed personal perspective, who take responsibility for this perspective and are prepared to act in accordance with their beliefs and values, place themselves at some risk. The 'negotiation of/with the self' involves a dialogue about the extent to which one can realize personal values and commitments in situations that are already "constituted and constrained" (Skelton, 2005, p.13). Barnett (1997) advocates preparations for a 'critical life' as the major purpose and goal of higher education, a quality that encompasses 'critical reason', 'critical self reflection' and

‘critical action’. He gives as an example the Chinese student, who stood in front of a tank in Tiananmen Square that he interprets as a ‘critical action’ carried out from a sense of personal “authenticity”.

If the interwoven relationship between teaching and learning is kept in mind, how can we, as teachers and teacher educators, ensure that by forging, maintaining and developing our professional identity we make space for our students (future teachers) to develop, not as self-contained or transcendental individuals, but as social actors with a ‘self-referential capacity’ (Barnett, 1997). Should we do it through the curriculum or through the way the curriculum is delivered or through more educational research into all the above mentioned issues? Crème (1999) offers an example of how a short, but significant first year course on ‘Critical Reading: interdisciplinary study skills’ at Sussex University in the United Kingdom (UK) became “one of those courses that can change people’s lives”. On the other hand, educational research projects such as the ‘Good Work Project’ [on-line resource] may shed additional light on the whole issue of ensuring creation, maintenance and development of a professional identity in general. The ‘Good Work Project’ is “a large-scale research study co-directed by Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi of the Claremont Graduate University, William Damon of Stanford University, and Howard Gardner of Harvard University. The ultimate goal of the project is to identify and to promote ways in which individuals at the cutting-edge of their professions can carry out work that is ethical and socially responsible” (Good Work Project website). Gardner and his colleagues particularly caution about ‘compromised work’ that happens across many professions and moves away from ethical and social responsible ways of carrying out one’s work. The project has included examination of different professions from the fields of genetics, journalism and education. The Good Work Project Report Series, Number 6 focuses on “Contemplation and Implications for Good Work in Teaching (1998, on line source, Good Work Project website).

I have personally experienced how demanding it was to do my job ethically (both as a teacher and as a journalist) during turbulent and unstable political conditions (in Serbia), and had to flee or risk enduring serious consequences, including a breakdown of my professional ‘pride’ or identity. Many of my colleagues that stayed in Serbia had to, at least for some time, resort to carrying out ‘compromised work’. My choice of leaving also has had dire consequences for my professional identity and beyond. Neither my colleagues in Serbia nor I (who left) had any clear awareness of the consequences, or how to deal with the situation.

There are probably no clear answers to the questions about what formal (and informal) teacher education programs can do to prepare teachers for ‘critical situations’ whether they arise from personal, social, cultural or political circumstances. However, it would be helpful if teachers and teacher educators around the world discuss, explore and try to address the issue. In this way there is perhaps hope that teachers can “sense persons being created, learnings being initiated, future citizens rising to meet the challenge of unknown worlds” (Rogers, 1998, p.205). His formula to realize this hope appears simpler than it is: “... teachers, risking themselves, *being* themselves, *trusting* their students, adventuring into the existential unknown, taking the subjective leap” (1998, p.205). Having experienced risking myself, losing and regaining myself and adventuring into the existential unknown, 15 years later I can say that, in spite of the painful memories, I am grateful for the life experiences that made me grow and develop both as a person and as a professional. I would never recommend any of the experiences for educational or personal development purposes, as I still suffer from them. I just wish I could have been better prepared. In a very strong sense I would agree with Hargreaves, when he says:

We are beginning to recognize that, for teachers, what goes on inside the classroom is closely related to what goes on outside it. The quality, range and flexibility of teachers' classroom work are closely tied up with their professional growth – with the way in which they develop as people and as professionals. Teachers teach in the way they do not just because of the skills they have or have not learned. The ways they teach are also rooted in their backgrounds, their biographies, and so in the kind of teachers they have become. Their careers – their hopes and dreams, their opportunities and aspirations, or the frustrations of these things – are also important for teachers' commitment, enthusiasm and morale.” (Hargreaves, 1999, p. vii)

Conclusion

Writing a mainly personal account, as I have done here, is not an ideal foundation for drawing any broad conclusions. Nevertheless, I hope that teachers and teacher educators reading the account may recognize similar situations arising in their own professional settings, even if some are of a far less dramatic character. Unfortunately others may have had worse experiences than mine. Recognition of such experiences may validate a singular personal account and highlight the relevance of studying other cases in depth. There are teachers all over the world, whose personal stories could inform the development of our profession as well as our teaching practices. My hope is that we hear their stories and use them to add depth and meaning to programs for teachers' education and professional development.

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Reasons for Teaching and Practical Reasoning: A Reconfiguration of Teachers' Personal Language Use in Teaching

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This study is part of a larger project that explores the development of teaching-learning processes through teachers' personal language use. The findings could influence new directions in teacher education and continuing professional development. Presented here are preliminary findings based on short interviews with nine teachers and discussions of video recordings of these teachers in practice. The aim is to explore the potential of reflexive processes by using language about what we do when we teach and thereby to find ways in which the teaching-learning processes could be mastered differently at both an individual and an institutional level.

Introduction

In action, we have very few means of recording or seeing what we are doing. The moments pass by in "high speed" and much is said and done. Sometimes a teacher mentions a gut feeling she got after something happened in the classroom, and maybe by trying to recollect she will be able to trace what it was that created this feeling of unease or happiness in her¹. But most of the flow of events will pass by, never ever being recollected.

This cannot be altered in any way; it is simply the flow of events when a teacher acts in a classroom. What interests me is finding ways for a teacher to talk about what is happening. For most of us, the flow of events is overwhelming. A teacher seldom has the time needed for recollection and a more elaborate interpretation about what is happening in the classroom. And if she does, she very often finds that the words needed to describe and analyse are lacking in her personal vocabulary; she just doesn't have them. A concrete example of this is provided by one of the teachers in my project who, after being asked what he was doing in order to promote interaction between students and reflective thinking in a discussion he was leading² answered: "*Honestly, I do not know what I am doing.*"

In this project I explore the possibilities for the teacher of developing a personal language in use about what she does when she teaches. Each teacher will of course use language individually; they will have individual references for their own actions and for the interpretation of actions of others. I believe that in working with her own language use and the way she perceives and interprets her own actions and the actions of others, a teacher can develop a reflexive practice of teaching.

In this paper I will first give a brief overview of the project, how the collaborative counselling sessions are organized, and how the reflective team of teachers works. This will allow insight into how we work with teachers' personal language use about what they do when they teach.

¹ I am using the feminine personal pronoun where both the feminine and masculine could be used.

² We saw this taking place on the video.

Some theoretical and philosophical references follow. In the counselling sessions, the teachers are asked to present their reasons for acting and to pursue practical reasoning for actions to be taken. I will try to present what is meant by this and how I perceive this as a way of working with personal language use. Re-figuration is a way of thinking, a reflexive hermeneutical process. I will address this towards the end of the paper. This is what, at this level of working with individual actions, opens a future which can be perceived differently, which may in turn alter the way we do things as teachers when we teach.

Frames for Collaborative Counselling – the Reflective Team.

Nine teachers, a group responsible for the education of the 84 eighth-grade students at a junior high school, decided to join in my project after an open invitation to the three groups of teachers at the school. Since the entire eighth-grade group were positive and expressed a will to participate, they were chosen by the school.

This eighth-grade group consists of six female teachers and three male teachers. They range in teaching experience from their first year to 30 years of teaching. Some have worked together in other groups, but this eighth-grade group started working together this school year (2006-07). A standard structure at this school is that every group has a group leader. As no one on the group wanted that role, the group decided to split this function and share the leadership. Although several had severe doubts about this arrangement, they reported, after about half a year, that this had been really good for the group and for their way of taking collective responsibility. Throughout my interviews with each of them, they praise this arrangement and, as I interpret them, express a pride in what they have achieved as a group. *“We are like a little small locomotive”* one teacher said.

In order for the teachers to be able to work with their language use, I established a counselling structure which I call a “reflective team” (influenced by Andersen, 2005). This reflective team consists of two or three of the teachers. At each counselling session, one person becomes the focus teacher, who receives counselling and gets to work with her own language use. What we work with, analyse, and discuss are actions that she has identified on the video-recordings I have made (I will return to this). The counsellor is a colleague teacher in the group who leads the session and the counselling with the focus teacher. These two start the counselling session by entering into a dialogue about what they see and read in the material presented for the session. The reflective team will not enter the discussion until the counsellor addresses them. When he does, the focus teacher draws back and listens to the discussion going on between the teacher (counsellor) and the reflective team.

The material used in these sessions is extracted from video recordings done in the classrooms. An overall theme was decided by the eighth-grade group for the first sessions: student participation and interaction between students and between students and teacher. Each individual teacher may approach this theme differently according to their own interests and what they themselves would like to work with together with the other teachers. As one teacher expressed: “I would like to investigate what it is that makes so many of the girls quiet and not participating in discussions. Am I not seeing the girls?”¹ Therefore before starting the recordings, the focus teacher decides where and when she wants me to make the recording.

¹ Expressed in a planning meeting May 2, 2007 Logbook

The focus teacher watches the half-hour video recording and extracts the sequence (maximum ten minutes) she would like to present to the others and to work with. In addition, the dialogue in the selected sequence is transcribed and the text given to all the teachers taking part in the collaborative counselling session. All the participants in the counselling session have viewed the video sequence before the session. This is the material that the counsellor, the focus teacher and the reflective team of teachers use in the sessions, in addition to whatever happens in the sessions. Sessions usually last approximately one and a half hours and are also video-recorded. These recordings are mostly for my use as a researcher, but there is also a potential for using them in new collaborative counselling sessions together with the teachers. After each session I make a short résumé of the discussion taking place in the counselling session, which is distributed to all the teachers in the group.

We begin each counselling session by watching the video sequence selected by the focus teacher. Then the dialogue between the counsellor and the focus teacher starts. A main question, which may be rephrased in different ways by the counsellor, is: *What are you doing?* This asks the focus teacher to describe her own actions as re-presented on the video recording. This is an important step in the procedure. By describing, using words about what she is doing, the teacher very often detects something new that she had not known or thought about before. The actions may take only seconds in real time, but the counselling aims to get the teacher to find words to describe them the way she interprets them. Another important question for the counsellor to ask will be: *To what end are you doing it?* The focus teacher is then asked to use (her) language about the motives that she may have had for doing what she did. Ricoeur (1983) says, "Actions imply goals, the anticipation of which is not confused with some foreseen or predicted result, but which commit the one on whom the action depends" (p. 55). This is why a motive is requested, not in order to "nail" the teacher for not achieving a given result, but to help the teacher to expand her own knowledge about the conditions that "guide" her actions when she is teaching.

In this process of developing a personal language in use, a theoretical language derived from books is not sufficient. In my opinion, if we start out in the "book" language, closeness to what happens in practice is very often lost. This is not a rejection of theoretical knowledge, just a discussion on where to begin. This way of working with personal language seeks closeness to the eventful character of teaching and the personal commitment of teaching. It also acknowledges that there is no way of finding a last word, because there is no last word – only new questions, answers, and interpretations. Or as Ricoeur (1991) says, "Neither in literary criticism, nor in the social sciences, is there such a last word. Or if there is any, we call that violence" (p. 162). In working with a teacher's personal language use, we seek words to describe and analyse our actions as teachers – and at the same time acknowledge that these words will never become the last words.

Working with Reflection and Reflexive Practices

Reflection is thought that turns back on itself. Working with teachers' personal language use involves working with reflection. In the sessions, the focus teacher views a video showing herself interacting in the classroom and is asked to describe what she sees herself doing. The teacher then elaborates some thoughts of what this is about, what is happening. When the teacher is then asked, "To what end are you doing this?" a reflexive process is begun. You might object that since the teacher has looked at the video before the counselling session, the reflexive process had probably started before she came into the counselling session. But what is happening here and now, the words the teacher is using in describing her actions and in

formulating the motives for her actions, is sharpened by the collaborative process - here and now - in the session. The reflections taking place here and now are what we work with in these sessions. If we re-did the session later, a whole new description and reflection would come out. There are, as already said, no final words in this “game”.

Again influenced by Ricoeur, I frame this work as reflexive practice, and refer to the processes in which we involve teachers as reflexive processes (Hoveid & Hoveid, 2006). This has to do with creating a learning environment and facilitating learning processes for teacher-learners. I use the phrase “teacher learner” in order to emphasize that the participants in these processes are learners. This means that they have entered these processes with the intention of learning; what they will learn is not possible to prescribe or predict. A reflexive practice implies creating processes where one process reflects another process that in turn reflects another process, and then there is a possibility of building up sequences of processes that reflect each other. In education this creates a highly dynamic and complex setting. The facilitator provides the framework, elaborating a structure for the processes that the participants involve themselves in, but again, what happens in these processes is not possible to prescribe – things will happen – the thrill of it is that you do not know exactly what, because what the participants say and do is not something you can foresee.

“Reasons for acting” in Interaction with Students in the Classroom

In this project I am working within the concept of practical reason. According to Paul Ricoeur (1991), the “concept of practical reason is identified with the conditions of the intelligibility of meaningful action” (p.189). In my interpretation, this means asking how I may understand the meaning of an action performed by myself or others. It does not imply that I necessarily accept the action; some actions may by some other set of criteria be perceived as “irrational.” Actions performed out of revenge, hatred, or other strong emotions represent actions we may very well condemn as unacceptable, but they are nevertheless intelligible. Ricoeur says that an action “remains **meaningful** to the extent that it meets conditions of acceptability established within a community of language and of values” (p.189; original emphasis).

In order to reach these conditions of acceptability in answering our questions, we adhere to the conditions of acceptability of our community. “I did it because....” I then recount the reasons and there may be a string of reasons for acting the way I did; some I can account for but others are not yet part of my “vocabulary.” “All that is assumed at this initial level of investigation is that human action is neither dumb nor incommunicable.” (Ricoeur, 1991, p. 189) When we act we reveal our selves; our actions have a motive, and on being asked, we can account for it and why we did what we did¹.

All actions have a motive, and we can pursue this motive and analyse it. In starting to work with our motives we will probably alter them. In the flow of events in the classroom, we may not question the motives of our own actions or of the actions of others. Things just happen. In my view, the complexity of human acting and suffering is in no way diminished by analysing

¹ Someone who has tried this out at a micro level is Daniel Stern (2004) in his book, *The Present Moment*. He accounts for how he asks people to recall their action, mundane actions, like taking some things out of the fridge and putting them on the counter, actions which only last a few seconds. People are then, surprisingly enough able to account for their actions and deliberations going on when acting; actions we would think they just did out of habit.

what reasons for acting we may have had as human beings; on the contrary, it is probably expanded when we engage in these processes.

When I make video recordings of teachers interacting with students in the classroom, the teacher selects shorter sequences that, together with the dialogues transcribed as text, form the material for starting the process of discovering the teacher's motives for her actions. Thus, by the time the teacher gives her account, she has already distanced herself from the moment when the action took place. By reading the text and viewing the video, she moves to another time and place, where her motives may be very different than they were in the classroom. My main concern here is not having teachers able to account for a "true" motive, if such a thing exists. Rather, I am interested in listening to the motives a teacher gives for what she is doing, and how she works with them. The potential for reading, interpreting, and discussing together with a group of teachers the different motives guiding actions in the classroom will, in my experience, open a teacher to a more critical and reflective evaluation of her own motives. It also seems to lead to practical reasoning to find new ways of coping with what is happening in the flow of events in the classroom. Then practical reasoning provides a way of lining up a string of possible actions which could lead to a desired end. In doing this, I believe that we can open up to new intentions and new areas of action, new ways of acting within a context which is very often confined by habit and unreflected action. Since this is understood within a hermeneutical framework, new actions will always take place; therefore also new intentions and motives for acting can be accounted for and a never-ending spiral of actions and motives, open for new interpretations, will become possible.

Meaningful Action Considered as Text

In this project I video-record teachers in action. After the teachers have viewed the recordings, they choose sequences of actions. These sequences are then saved as media files (mpeg) and the dialogue is transcribed into a written text. Then both "texts" are open for the teachers to read. The video recordings represent a "record," an inscription of human social action. In some way these recordings represent a sort of text. They comply with the criteria of being fixed, although not in writing but in digital pixels and sound tracks; they are open for reading and may be read and re-read over and over. A text, Ricoeur (1991) says, is "any discourse fixed by writing" (p.106). Here I am adopting a concept of text with a much wider reference than merely to written texts. On the other hand, when the dialogue from the video-sequence is transcribed, we have a more proper written text. But since this is a transcription of dialogues, sentences do not follow proper grammatical rules, and several voices may sound and speak at the same time. Therefore this text reveals breaks and inconsistencies more common in oral language where for instance, references are made explicit when talking by pointing or by the use of bodily gestures. Even so, this is a written text and as such it suggests a different kind of reading than reading the live pictures and the dialogue on video. When watching the video so many things happen at the same time, you get so much information, that following what is happening or just listening to what is said is difficult to sort out. In order to be able to read the video recordings, my experience is that you have to re-read it over and over. An obvious difference I found when reading the transcribed dialogue is that I became much more attentive to what words were used, what questions were asked, and what answers were given. So although this transcription of oral dialogue is not a proper text, constructed, for instance, like this text you are now reading, it is fixed in writing. Hence, it evokes a different response than what is possible in speech. Ricoeur (1991) comments:

What in effect does writing fix? Not the event of speaking, but the "said" of speaking, where we understand by the "said" of speaking that intentional exteriorization

constitutive of the aim of discourse thanks to which **sagen**, the saying, wants to become **Aus-sage**, the enunciation, the enunciated. In short, what we write, what we inscribe, is the noema of the speaking. It is the meaning of the speech event, not the event as event. (p. 146; original emphasis)

When a teacher's actions are fixed by recordings on video and through transcriptions of the dialogue, they are open for readings. Therefore meanings different from what the initial "author" held can be interpreted in the text. These texts are now, through interpretation, open to a world. According to Ricoeur (1991):

... only man **has a world** and not just a situation. In the same manner that the text frees its meaning from the tutelage of mental intention, it frees its reference from the limits of ostensive reference. For us, the world is the ensemble of references opened up by the text (p.149; original emphasis)

As the references are opened up by the text, new meanings may emerge, new meanings not yet present in the *um-welt* of the teacher. This is a process which may represent some difficulties. How is the teacher going to be able to read these texts? How is she going to be able to interpret and argue and in this way use her language about the possible references opened up by these texts? The world opened up by the references of the text is at the same time what opens possibilities for the teacher to free herself from a narrow reading of her own motives in the actual situation. Reading texts constitutes at the same time a distance, i.e. distancing oneself from the action in order to make sense of one's own motives (Ricoeur, 1991).

Let us trace back a little and try to make sense of this with the help of Ricoeur (1991). In this analysis of human actions, a link between the plurivocality of the text and the plurivocality of human action is made.

The trait concerns the relation between the purposive and the motivational dimensions of action... the purposive character of an action is fully recognized when the answer to the question **what** is explained in terms of an answer to the question **why**. **I understand** what you intend to do if you are able to explain to me why you did such and such an action. Now what answers to the question why make sense? Only those answers that afford a motive understood as a reason for . . . and not a cause. (1991, p. 160; original emphasis)

Answers that give a reason for doing what you did, bring this back to the desirability character of action and is therefore not putting a break between desire and reason. As acting humans our wants and beliefs are "forces" that make us act in different ways, but at the same time our desire also helps in making sense of an action "as a result of the apparent good that is the correlate of the desirability character" (p.162). We seek by this or that action to attain something we want or believe in and we seek through this or that action to achieve the good that we desire.

When teachers explore the desirability of their motives for acting, it can, in my view, open up the possibilities for them to explore what constitutes their own profession, and what constitutes their relation to the students that they teach. Let us imagine a teacher who is never challenged to give a reason for what she does in the classroom with the students. What consequences would this have in a teaching career of thirty or forty years? I will not venture

to answer this question; just conclude at this point that the teachers in this project want to participate in a process where they can analyse and discuss more closely what is “guiding” their own actions when they interact with students in the classroom.

A Possible Re-figuration of a Teacher’s Personal Language Use in the Practice of Teaching

What happens with a teacher in these collaborative counselling sessions? I am still at a preliminary stage in analysing the different aspects of the processes taking place. When working with a teacher’s personal language use, the words a teacher uses, the meanings that are extracted from these words are seen as important if a teacher wants to work with her own practice. Using words, describing a practice and the motives for action does not in any way alter what a teacher does. Reflection on action does not necessarily alter the way you do your teaching in relation to the students or in teaching the subject the way you do it.

An interesting aspect of using words to describe and analyse actions is the ways these descriptions and analyses may teach us the moment we appropriate them. An example may highlight this. In one of the first counselling sessions, a female teacher, called Anna, put forth an analysis of the action we had viewed, showing the different way in which the male teacher leads a morning session with the students as opposed to herself and some other female teachers. She concluded by questioning whether this might be why she and the other female teachers seemed to have students who were hard to get to talk (“not oral students”) as opposed to two of the male teachers in the group who had “oral students,” who were willing to engage in talk and to discuss at the morning session.

By putting forth this analysis, Anna causes a re-figuration to take place. Peter Kemp writes that, according to Ricoeur, “We form and teach ourselves the moment we appropriate stories and ideas – which is **re-figuration**. This is the actual mimesis, the creative representation (the putting forth) of a ‘hermeneutic identity’ ” (Kemp, 2006, p. 175, original emphasis). The moment Anna presents this analysis and constructs the different stories about the male and female teacher in the group, it seems that a new motive is born in her.

A few weeks later I film her in the classroom in one of the morning sessions and following this we have our collaborative counselling session. What takes place in the class is that Anna deviates from the plan she had when starting this morning. She originally had a very tight schedule and a lot of information to prepare the students for the day’s events. Instead, she reacts on an initiative from one of the quieter boys in the group. This leads to a succession of events where Anna lets the initiatives of the students direct the flow and talk between students and teacher and students. She then abandons her plan and when engaging in the talk with the students, she comments that she had completely forgotten the time. It eventually catches up with her 20 minutes later, when she is called by another group of teachers and students. Then several decisions must be made on the spur of the moment – since all she had planned was not done – resulting in her leaving some of her students in a state of not knowing what to do.

When analysing this, Anna remarks that this would not have happened to her a month before. She describes herself as a very organized and controlling teacher, always structured and conscious about time and informing her students what to do when. The other teachers on the counselling session confirm this. So what happened to her in this morning talk with the students where she had abandoned her plan and let things flow? In her own description, Anna said that she had started to be conscious about time (something we had discussed

extensively in one of the first sessions), about giving the students the time and the “room” to interact and talk without her interfering and being the one who led the discussion. She was trying out if this would inspire more oral participation from the students. A concrete indication of her achieving this was her remark that she completely forgot about the time, “*even though I had the clock right there in front of me.*”

A re-figuration of an individual’s identity is part of a mimetic process. What I have aimed to describe by telling Anna’s story is my interpretation of what took place: a re-figuration that led to a change in practice. It is these moments of re-figuration that I hope to promote through this work in the collaborative counselling sessions. I believe they may open a teacher to a more constructive and a more experimental attitude towards teaching. On the other hand, this group of teachers is accustomed to such experiences. They continuously try out new practices of teaching and organising. Differences that the work within the collaborative counselling session may make are: a more elaborate language use, critical analysis, and interpretation of what is happening and what it is that they want to happen, both on a personal level and an institutional level in relations between the teachers and students in this school. This is one way in which a reflexive teaching practice could develop.

Concluding Remarks

My impression so far in this project is that taking time to sit and reflect on what is taking place in the interaction between teachers and students and interpreting the motives for acting reported by the teachers is both useful and interesting. The teachers say that they learn something at each session. In my view, this underlines that teachers’ need to have time and a method for taking care of their need to talk and reflect together on the relationship between them and the students. A flow of events takes place in the classroom to which the teacher must react immediately. A time off from this rush of happenings – a collaborative session where actions in the classroom are put into different perspectives – is, in my opinion, a necessary part of teachers’ personal teaching practice. These sessions constitute a place where the teachers gain what they seek for their own students – moments of reflection in a process which is reflexively tied to what they do and hope to achieve in their own teaching.

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Professional Knowledge towards Language Education: (Re)constructing Beliefs of In-service Teachers

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A two year in-service program to enhance the professional development of language teachers is studied to gain insight into how teachers reconstruct their beliefs and expand their professional knowledge base concerning language teaching and how they implement an innovation, specifically the portfolio, into their teaching practice. Five language teachers from one secondary school participated in the program. While comprehensive data were collected during two phases of the two-year project, the focus data in this paper are the teachers' written reflections about their teaching and their discourse in regularly scheduled plenary sessions. While they did not particularly see the students' doing a portfolio as a particularly helpful tool for language learning, what they valued in the program was the shared reflections about their teaching and how doing so influenced their beliefs about language teaching.

Introduction

In this paper we share, in a limited way, aspects of a large study of an in-service teacher education program that has the goal of developing language teachers with plurilingual and intercultural competence. After describing briefly the two phases of the two-year study (2004-2006) as background to data analysis, we present extracts from the participants' discourse and from their reflections to illustrate how they were talking about their teaching experiences during phase two of the project. We present interaction sequences to demonstrate the participants' growth in developing two types of knowledge: knowledge about object and knowledge about themselves. In concluding we make the point that, regardless of what new ideas or innovative practices the teacher educator may introduce through in-service for teachers to expand their knowledge base and to use in the classroom, changing practice is best assured when teachers' beliefs change and when they have a major role in determining the in-service activity.

Expansion of Knowledge Base for Language Teachers

Language is understood as the "medium through which communities of people engage with, make sense of and shape the world" (Phipps & Gonzalez, 2004, pp. 2-3). Therefore the role and tasks of the language teacher are crucial in education. To accomplish their task, language teachers must be aware of their images of curriculum, of languages as teaching and learning objects and of their curricular integration of languages. We are thinking of language as an empowering process whereby teachers become capable of (re)constructing their professional knowledge base, always questioning themselves and valuing their language and culture as well as the language and culture of others. The knowledge base of a language teacher goes beyond knowing linguistic and pedagogical processes; it entails respecting and embracing cultural diversity and having intercultural competence. It includes having plurilingual competence, understood as a means of recognising differences within a globalized society and having the languages and strategies to communicate and interact appropriately with others in intercultural contexts. (Beacco & Byram, 2003; Byram, 2002). This concept of plurilingualism refers further to the ability to use the competence in the mother tongue and the knowledge and skills learned in a foreign language for learning and using other languages (Conselho da Europa, 2001).

Taking into account the complexity of plurilingual and intercultural competence and the process of learning a language, the portfolio¹ seems to be an appropriate pedagogic tool in language education as it values all the linguistic acquisitions and experiences, respects previous knowledge, and puts the learner at the centre of the learning process. “Portfolios are rich, contextual, highly personalized documentaries of one’s learning journey” (Jones & Shelton, 2006: 18-19). To implement a portfolio as a learning and teaching approach (Gonçalves & Andrade, 2007) towards developing plurilingual and intercultural competence in language classes increases the complexity of the language teacher’s task. However it is an opportunity for the teacher to try out an innovative practice and to (re)construct his/her images of language and language teaching thereby expanding his/her knowledge base.

An In-service Teacher Education Program for Language Teachers

Working with the portfolio as a strategy for developing plurilingual and intercultural competence in students was a central activity of an in-service teacher education program and part of a larger research project². The project aimed to raise awareness about being a language educator. More specifically, the program sought to motivate collaborative and reflexive work among language teachers and to simultaneously foster the use of the portfolio as a language learning tool for promoting plurilingualism and interculturalism. This program also assumed that working with the portfolio as a curricular tool would support and enhance teachers’ professional development.

The in-service program had two phases over a period of two school years (2004-2006). The invitation to participate was sent to all language teachers (mother tongue and foreign language) in one secondary school³; participation was voluntary. Five (16%) of 30 language teachers participated, forming a learning community (MacLaughlin & Talbert, 2001, in Little et al. 2002) that was willing to question their practice and change for their professional growth. The participants⁴ in the program, currently being developed at LALE (Open Laboratory for Foreign Language Learning), Department of Didactics and Educative Technology, University of Aveiro, Portugal were experienced teachers, each of whom knows four to six different languages: Portuguese, English, German, French, Spanish and Italian. This common plurilingual basis constitutes what Ellis (2004) considers a “rich background in language learning”, (p.105). The teachers’ plurilingualism could be summoned both in their discourse and in their practice, interweaving personal biography and beliefs with professional growth.

¹ It is important to note that the *European Language Portfolio* (ELP), created by the European Council in 2001 to foster Plurilingual Education, is the ultimate expression of this tool’s value to register and document all the individual’s linguistic and cultural experiences and competences. (The ELP is a document in which individuals’ linguistic knowledge and competences are identified, described and certified. Its general purpose is to deepen mutual understanding among citizens in Europe, to respect the diversity of cultures and ways of life. Its main objective is to promote a plurilingual and intercultural competence).

² PhD-project entitled *Portfolio and curriculum construction for language education: potentials and constrains within the Portuguese school system*, funded by FCT (Foundation for Science and Technology), POCI 2010 Program, currently being developed at LALE (Open Laboratory for Foreign Language Learning), Department of Didactics and Educative Technology, University of Aveiro, Portugal.

³ This project was conducted by Maria de Lurdes Gonçalves, teacher of the referred school, on investigation licence conferred by the Portuguese Ministry of Education.

⁴ The five participating teachers will further be referred to by the initial letter of their names.

The first phase of the program (January to June 2005) was organized in ten group sessions of two hours and a half each, with language teaching activities, portfolio activities, reading and discussion. Between the sessions the participants had assignments that involved professional reading and reflection on topics from the sessions. In the second phase (September 2005 to May 2006) we (the researchers) followed and monitored the effects of the first phase on enhancing the teachers' practice. The teachers used the portfolio as a privileged pedagogical tool; they encouraged their pupils to construct language portfolios for their own language learning. We had working sessions with the teachers; we observed and videotaped their lessons. The videotapes were viewed by the group and discussed in plenary sessions. The data collected during the study and over the duration of the program were comprehensive and varied and included a preparation questionnaire, individual written reflections, transcription of the plenary sessions, a teaching unit plan and videos of observed lessons.

Table 1. Collected data

| Preparation | Phase 1 | Phase 2 |
|---------------|---|--|
| Questionnaire | Individual Written Reflections - Visiting Harbour - Arriving Harbour 1 Impressions... - Arriving Harbour 2 Clarifications... - Arriving Harbour 3 Projections... Transcription of the plenary sessions Teaching Unit Plan | Individual Written Reflections: - Quay 1 Preparing the departure... - Quay 2 After the first step... - Quay 3 New place, new perspective... - Quay 4 (free title) - Reflection After Observed Lesson - Final reflection Films of observed lessons Transcription of discussion sessions on the observed lessons |

Data Analysis

In this paper we are sharing a limited aspect of a large two year research project studying an in-service program for language teachers. The sample is small, consisting of five voluntary teachers from one secondary school. Here we focus on the analysis of the transcriptions of the plenary sessions of the second phase of the program. However, earlier data analyses from both phases of the program allow us to better understand the teachers' reconstructed and displayed knowledge during phase two. Therefore, we present a short account of some preliminary conclusions from the earlier analyses.

The first phase of this in-service program gave the five participants a chance to (re)construct their images of languages and they showed some breakthrough in giving up the vision of languages as segmented objects in the curriculum. At the end of the first phase, their discourse was unstable and they showed insecurity in their recently acquired knowledge. A further analysis¹ of data from the second phase of the program focussed on the impact of the first phase experience on the participating teachers' discourse about their teaching practice in phase two. The analysed data included the individual written reflections at two stages: *Quay 1- preparing the departure*, (defining goals and strategies to implement in classes) and *Quay 2- after the first step*, (reflecting on taught classes). We also compared their words to their individual reflections after being observed in action (*Reflection after Observed Lesson*,

¹ Paper presented at the World Curriculum Studies Conference: Meeting International and Global Challenges in Curriculum Studies in Tampere, Finland – 21st to 24th May 2006 – *Plurilingualism and curricular integration: notes within a teacher education program.*

RAOL) that is, in class with their pupils (Table 1). The preliminary results helped us (researchers) to better understand teachers' images of language as a curricular teaching object¹ towards plurilingualism and the pedagogical means of developing it. The data pointed to a process of (re)construction of images and, therefore, to the real possibility of an integrated development of plurilingual competence in class because these teachers are aware of plurilingualism and value it, as a result of the in-service education program.

As far as professional development is concerned, however, the teachers are still linked to a technician view of the teaching task and to a utilitarian use of language. They seemed to be in transition, like in the middle of a bridge, not being sure of either moving forward or backward. Moving forward is a step towards a paradigm shift, towards becoming comprehensive language educators; that means becoming all-embracing professionals and bridge builders between individuals and languages/cultures (Larrosa & Skliar, 2001).

For the present paper the focus of data analysis is on *interaction*. As Vasseur (2005) explains "l'interaction est le lieu où se joue [...] la construction de nouveaux savoirs et savoir-faire" (p. 15). It is important to keep in mind that interactions are complex objects of analysis as they are produced by a group of people with their own personal traits, in a specific place and at a precise moment. Interaction in the working sessions played a very important role in the program; for that was the time and place where teachers expressed themselves and articulated their understandings contextualised by the historical, social, cultural and experiential background they brought within themselves. In the process of materialising thoughts into words (Foucault, 1988) teachers become aware of their own understandings and in discussion, they have the opportunity of (re)constructing their professional knowledge.

The methodological approach for the analysis of the teachers' interactions has two main steps. Firstly we considered analysing *sequences of interaction* during the working sessions which illustrate professional knowledge, regarding two of three knowledge types, as described by Andrade et al. (2003):

1. Knowledge of the object, that is, considering language as a curricular object, and more precisely the practice of developing and fostering plurilingual and intercultural competence using the portfolio as a privileged pedagogical tool;
2. Knowledge of the self, that is, considering the teachers' acquired knowledge and knowledge yet to be acquired and their own qualities and roles that they think they can play.

Secondly, within the selected extracts we analysed the discourse so as to identify traces of the reconstruction of beliefs.

Discussion of the Data

In this section the five participants (G,Z,E, I, and C) are engaged in a plenary discussion about observations during their class activities.

1. Knowledge about the object

In the *interaction sequence FII S03/120-190*, the group is talking about class activities to develop plurilingual and intercultural competence. One of the teachers (G) picks one activity

¹ The present engagement with teaching/learning objects in pedagogy is grounded in Shulman's work (1987) on pedagogical content knowledge.

of associating words or images and states that it is important to understand images of the language and of the speakers and asks if it is correct to discuss stereotypes. The other teachers argue it is important to discuss stereotypes but G is not sure of its importance anymore;

...but that is already so / hasn't that faded away? That isn't already... (FII S03/133).

Whereas the other teachers see the relevance of discussing stereotypes, value the discussion process by itself and are able to justify their opinions, G, who brought the topic into the discussion, does not see the point of it and is not sure of anything; and when the group continues arguing on the importance of discussing, G does not seem to want to understand that there is much more behind a simple drawing or a single word. Asked by the teacher educator (responsible for the program) to explain what she means, G moves to another proposed activity and comments:

... «laughs» there are things I don't imagine myself / hey sorry but I can not avoid saying something / for example / eh a list of foreign words that are part of the Portuguese language / very well / to list the presence of various languages in the daily routine / and I wrote down / what for ? «laughs» / because I am imagining myself / I am imagining myself in my classes / I can never forget it / (FII S03/188).

I am not doing a research work, (FII S03/190).

The “novelty” of the content seems to be the only interesting aspect for G and she does not seem to accept the role of working with what the pupils already know and think, valuing neither the pupil's reflection nor her own reflection. G is a teacher and not a researcher, as she claims. Here we can identify a trace of discontinuity and complexity in this teacher's discourse (Vasseur, 2005). What is in question is not only the understanding of the concept itself, but how each teacher can put it into practice. It is important to stress that although the other participating teachers seem to understand and value the activities in their discourse, which is clear and characterised by long and complete sentences without many pauses, contrasting with G's discourse, with short bits of sentences, several pauses, repetitions and uncertainties, it is not straightforward that they have fully understood how to put the discussed concepts into practice and that they are going to be able to change their practice. These teachers are in the process of reconstructing their beliefs.

In the *interaction sequence FII S06/1-56*, Z's class is being discussed and the major topics are how things happen and how pupils react to the proposed activities. One of the teachers refers to how ideas were connected by Z and how the pupils were constructing meaning under her guidance:

I... but eh / the ideas connection / and how you made the most of it / of the word help / and then the song / and then / through different languages to the word help (II S06/ 16).

The pupils' reaction can be considered a normal reaction to novelty and change. However, it surprises the teachers that pupils easily engage in the activities and expand their knowledge to other fields and enjoy the activity.

In the *interaction sequence FII S06/90-150*, E's class is being discussed. The previous knowledge on other cultures and languages is focused and teachers realize how important it is to know what pupils think and know about languages in order to develop plurilingual and intercultural competence:

I... that the costume was African and they had to speak African / isn't it? (FII S06/106).

Z... it was a mixture of English and Portuguese «laughs» (FII S06/108)

I... they also thought that English was the official language of all those countries mentioned in the sheet (FII S06/117).

E: English as universal language should be the official language (FII S06/118).

In the process of exploring this image and the power of the English language, the teachers bring into consciousness the gap between language learning outside and inside school and assume that that may be a source of lack of self confidence in pupils; therefore one of the teachers comments:

I: the message she summarises at the end of the class is that it is not necessary to know a language very well to be able to communicate to somebody / it is important (FII S06/133);

I: it fosters success and it is very important to pupil's self-confidence (FIIS06/135).

The *interaction sequence FII S07/82-134* refers to C's class. C worked with eight and nine year-old children learning a foreign language for the first time. The teachers were surprised by the success of the activities. They comment on how well C adapted the materials and chose the activities:

E: my first thought would be that I think not / they would not be able to do that kind of task and it is funny they so small children doing / well with their own difficulties but they don't reject / on the contrary/ it looked they were enjoying very much and they were able (FII S07/93);

E...that is they are more mental flexibility than what we think / they are simply not used to use it / but when they have to use it / they show that they have it (FII S07/97).

Using this class as example, one of the teachers discusses the way languages are taught at school, and the gap between learning at school and learning outside school becomes a discussion issue again. This is a trace of continuity in the interaction, referring to a real concern already identified by the teachers. Surprisingly they do not mention the use of the portfolio as a privileged tool to help pupils overcome that gap that they identify. It seems that these five teachers talk much to themselves. By listening to their own thoughts and to the others' thoughts, meaning deconstruction and reconstruction is made possible. There is open and free space in which to do so. We know that the internalization of new knowledge and (re)construction of beliefs is a slow and individual process. Actually, talking aloud to oneself may be a sign of belief (re)construction.

2. *Knowledge about themselves*

The data used for findings regarding this type of knowledge came from the participants' reflections on their observed lessons (*Reflection After Observed Lesson-RAOL*). In their written contemplations the teachers began with a global evaluation and described the activities that they did in class. Their analysis is done from the perspective of the students' learning and reaction. They also analyse the structure of the class and mention what they should have done differently and what went wrong:

... ambitious class to this level (90m.) therefore there wasn't enough time to the task solving and for a more concentrated approach to the exercises (RAOL I).

As far as their professional growth is concerned they state they are quite happy with their work because the students liked and responded well to the activities. Some teachers seem to justify their practice,

I enjoyed the class, though I still think that it is generally difficult to articulate and/or foster diversified activities of plurilingual and pluricultural awareness of elementary pupils using an elementary syllabus, once they don't know well the foreign language, forcing very often to the use (almost temptingly abusive) of the mother tongue. (RAOL I).

However, one of the teachers analyses her own practice beyond the curricular constrains and usual teaching approaches:

I think I have open myself to the possibility of using other languages that somehow are close to it (ex: Spanish) as a resource to the learning of English. (RAOL Z).

When analysing the final reflection (FR), teachers referred to the whole process, that is, both the first and the second phases of the in-service teacher education program. In our analysis we tried to trace linguistic marks that could point to a belief reconstruction process:

During these two years' work I learned a lot about issues which I have always considered important but upon which I had never reflected much (FR C).

It was crucial to watch our practice and reflect upon it. To realise and reflect on positive and less positive aspects, to reflect on what I could have done, what I still can do, what should I do to change. Becoming conscious of my work as a teacher motivates me to consider my work framed within collaboration, reflection and innovation; I became a better person and a better professional, more aware of my practice, aware of the need to reflect to get better (FR E).

... whenever I was able to overcome some of those obstacles and I conducted activities within this Program, I felt very rewarded, not only because I had attained a goal, but also because I could confirm how pupils grow and appreciate this type of approaches and that it is really worth insisting on this change (FR I).

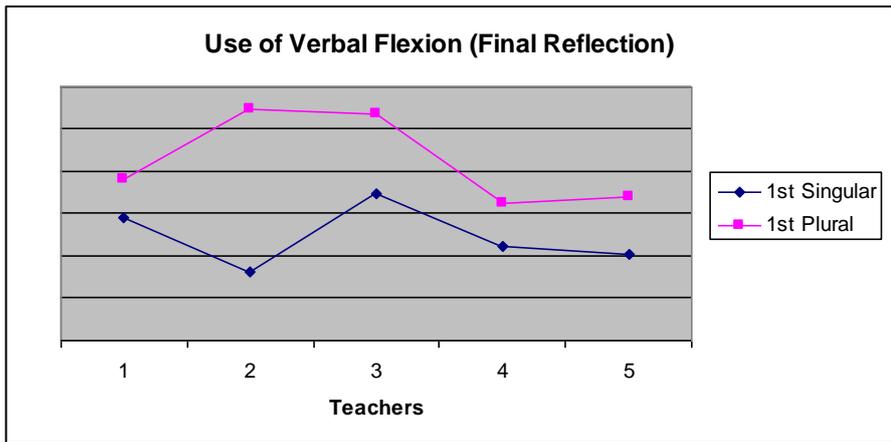
... this Program gave me a new sensation of comfort when using other languages in the English class, namely the mother tongue (FR Z).

In the above extracts the teachers refer to themselves by using the personal pronouns "I" and "me", except for one teacher, who evaluated the process by using "we".

This Program has made it possible for us to give the first steps, to recognise the field. (FR G).

Not surprisingly, the percentage of the use of verbal flexion in the first person singular is much less in this teacher's ((Figure 1, #2) final reflection compared to the texts of the other teachers.

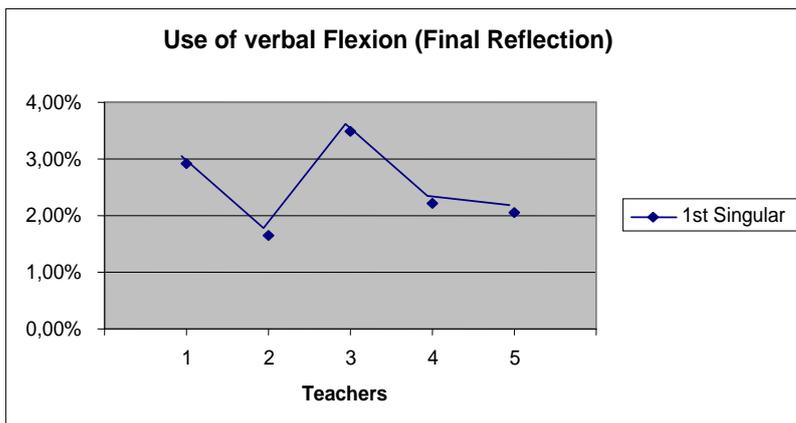
Figure 1: Use of verbal Flexion (1st Singular and Plural)



We can observe a bigger gap (Figure 1) between the use of verbal flexion of 1st person singular and plural for this teacher, whereas the others keep a similar distance. In fact, teacher #2 is the one who makes less use of verbal flexion 1st person; teacher #3 uses it the most (Figure 2).

This preliminary analysis of data indicates that most of the teachers have started a belief reconstruction process from their practice by watching themselves and reflecting on what they did, how they did and could have done. The deeper the reflection is the more reconstruction it allows and the more empowered teachers feel, though sometimes frustrated.

Figure 2: Use of verbal Flexion (1st Singular)



Conclusions

The goal of using the portfolio as a planned and systematic teaching strategy to help students develop plurilingual and intercultural competence as part of their regular class work is something still distant and rather vague for this group of five teachers. This tool was seen as someone else's; in this case, the teacher educator who planned the in-service program. What is significant about the teachers' discourse in the plenary sessions and the written reflections about their teaching is that very little was said about the use of portfolios. To engage in discussion and plan one or two classes was something feasible for the teachers. Doing so brought a breeze of renewal to their practice; but to do much more was too big a stretch. These findings indicate that, in spite of some well organized activities to encourage the

participants to be innovative, they needed far more in order to really change their practices. Roldão et al. (2006) refer to the power of school culture and unquestioned routine as being far stronger than one might think.

Nevertheless, teachers' discourse seemed to indicate the beginning of a process of belief reconstruction within an intertwined dialogue of personal and professional knowledge. Beliefs that underlie the teaching activity were summoned when talking about practice in order to explain things to the group, especially, when explaining the reasons for a particular practice. Teachers became more conscious of their own practices and beliefs when watching and confronting them both within the group and also with new theoretical knowledge. But that is just a small sign of change, because "if changes in teaching are to take place, the teachers' frames must change" (Barnes, in Pinar et al., 1995, p.764) and frames change with time and with self-engagement. The next step of this research project is to interview each of the five teachers to trace what has changed in their 'frames' or in their professional 'landscapes' (Clandinin and Connelly, 1996) since participating in the in-service program.

Collaborative work is a fundamental strategy for professional development, although individual commitment must precede such work. Therefore, we believe that professional knowledge base of in-service language teachers can best be reconstructed by the individual with the support of the community. We should not forget that among 30 language teachers of the school, only five (16%) enrolled in the in-service project. So there was a weak willingness and commitment of this school's language teachers to participate in a long term teacher education program, although it specifically addressed their teaching subject which, according to their opinions (previously expressed through a questionnaire), would fit with their professional needs and would therefore assure real professional development. This attitude of indifference seems to be the result of an instituted culture wherein professional development is perceived as something distant, and teachers do not consider themselves as having the major role in determining goals and activities, an approach of the growth model of professional development, which positions teachers as the subjects and agencies of their professional and personal growth.

For growth to occur, it is best that the individual teacher engages in and commits to a self-determined project with a defined goal, even if the project is not very well structured in the beginning. Moreover, the question of time should not be disregarded, as real change happens over time; "...it takes time for all of us to learn a new language, to live a new story, to become constructed knowers. We are all slow unlearners" (Hogan & Clandinin, 1993, p. 195). In-service teacher education programs have the obligation to assist teachers in that process of knowledge (re)construction, keeping in mind that teachers' knowledge is a mixed construction, located in multiple frontiers, and combining levels of different realities and different fields of knowledge in which beliefs can feed projects, tones, messages and forms of teachers' expression (Linhares, 2007). As a final note, it is important to stress that regardless of how precisely we try to identify and describe teachers' knowledge constituents in order to better understand it, we should never lose the capacity for looking at it (teachers' knowledge) in its complexity and be astonished at its "artistry" (Schön, 1987).

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Indigenous Language Loss: Revitalization in Immersion Classrooms with Intergenerational Teachers

Sally M. Hunter and Deepa Srikantaiah

In this paper we address three issues - the world wide indigenous language concerns, the history of American Indian language loss and the results of language loss for American Indians – as background to an informal qualitative research study undertaken with American Indian elders and American Indian educators on the issue and concerns of indigenous language teaching and learning. One concern is that present state legislation in Minnesota requires that only licensed teachers be in the classroom of its public schools. To overcome this limitation, it is proposed that a new legislative model be designed to place elders and licensed teachers together in immersion language classrooms in public schools as a strategy to promote the learning of indigenous languages and save them from extinction.

Introduction

American Indian languages, along with many of the world's indigenous languages, are threatened with extinction in the very near future. On a global scale, hundreds of indigenous languages are endangered. Nosh (2007) estimates there are 300 to 400 world languages that have already disappeared from our planet during the last 75 years. UNESCO reported in 2001 that 50% of the world's 6000 languages are endangered (UNESCO, 2001). Both Nosh (2007) and UNESCO's statistics report the urgency of language loss. These statistics point out the need for the conservation of indigenous languages before they are lost forever. This paper will address in this order, the world wide indigenous language concerns, the history of American Indian language loss, results of language loss for American Indians, and then report findings from an informal qualitative study undertaken with American Indian elders and American Indian educators when the future of the Ojibwe and Dakota American Indian language was discussed. Out of this came ideas for a language immersion model for indigenous languages in public schools and suggestions for how teacher education may contribute to the preservation of indigenous languages.

World wide Indigenous Language Concerns

Recent trends in globalization and demands for employment in the modern market are harming languages native to certain areas. Indigenous languages currently spoken are being replaced with languages of commerce in a global system. Mule (1999, p. 232) writes that the teaching of indigenous or vernacular languages in local community schools, such as rural areas in developing countries, is often times not defined as educating the community to be literate. Therefore for literacy, English becomes one of the primary languages of instruction and learning.

When indigenous languages are endangered, the world risks forfeiting something of value which can never be replaced. Just as the concern for wildlife across the globe has settled into a global consciousness, we find a parallel happening in language loss. Environmentalists are struggling to stop the destruction of wetlands and natural habitat. Just as the world's ecology depends upon all creatures in the interconnectedness of life, the world environment is endangered with the loss of the creatures that are a vital link to life on earth. Similarly, if some of the world's diverse languages disappear, a part of the heritage of mankind is gone forever. This heritage could be a link in knowledge and thought that provides a vital

connection for all of humankind in the future. For example, the Dutch are worried that English medium schools and universities will replace the teaching of and communication in the Dutch language (Schugurnsky, 1999). The Dutch have taken steps to ensure their language will survive by having laws requiring all naturalized citizens to learn Dutch.

Chenni (2005) notes that in Bangalore, India, because of the recent development of the information technology (IT) sector, English has nearly replaced the local language Kannada, especially in science and technology communication. He also writes that since Kannada is not needed for modernization or to succeed in the global economy, it has become “ghettoized as a vernacular” and devalued in Bangalore. When this occurs, it further separates the indigenous people from mainstream culture. Indigenous and local languages however, act as powerful tools in education and learning environments, particularly in communities that have been colonized like Native American communities. Indigenous or local languages can be considered the prior knowledge students bring with them into a classroom (Kawakami, 1999; Jegede, 1999; Srikantaiah, 2005) and reflect students’ culture and identity. Therefore, acknowledging indigenous languages within conventional education systems is important because the diversity of worldviews that the students bring with them into a classroom are highlighted and new ways of thinking and learning are introduced into conventional education systems. This opportunity is lost if we are not preserving indigenous languages.

A world-wide revitalization of indigenous languages has a successful model with the formerly colonized Maori of New Zealand and the colonized Native Hawaiians in the United States. The Maori of New Zealand have successfully revitalized their language developing an entirely new generation of Maori speakers and making Maori an official national language parallel to English. The Maori people now have connections to the Polynesian groups working on language preservation issues as part of a consortium called the World Indigenous Nations Higher Education Consortium. The Native Hawaiians went from a handful of fluent Native speakers to 20,000 first language speakers in approximately 20 years. They were successful in establishing Hawaiian immersion schools in the public school system (Pease-Pretty -On -Top, 2003). The Maori and Hawaiians have shared their models in Minnesota and world wide.

Native Peoples throughout the United States including the communities/villages of Minnesota's Ojibwe and Dakota are deeply concerned with language. Native People's languages- those languages that can be traced back to pre-Columbian times- are the most vulnerable and endangered. Of the estimated 300 Native languages spoken at the time of the first European immigration, only 175 survive in the United States today (Martinez & Strong, 2005). In these languages there are few fluent speakers left; 35 of the tribes have only 10 to 100 fluent speakers left (Martinez & Strong, 2005). This concern remains urgent because most Native tribes are small in population. Native Peoples make up only one percent or 2.6 million of the total population in the United States. There are no other nations that speak the languages of Native Peoples. So, once there are no more speakers, the languages are lost.

A History of American Indian Language Loss

Throughout the long history of world colonization, indigenous languages were highlighted for extinction. “Linguists, historians and anthropologists trace the rise of nationalism in Western Europe as the beginning of a cultural intolerance that subsequently fuelled the war on Native languages . . . Thus, the current crisis of Native languages is the latest and perhaps most fundamental stage of systemic forced assimilation that began centuries ago (Martinez & Strong, 2005, p. 2).

In the United States, “the ultimate objective of this assimilation . . . was to “kill the Indian and save the man” (Martinez & Strong, 2005, p. 2). Throughout the world, colonialism deliberately attempted to educate the young away from their culture and language. This colonizing policy had devastating results on all Native People who were victims of its ruthlessness. The racist thinking supported assimilating young children through forced separation from their parents and their community/villages. The colonizers believed their culture was superior and tried to wipe out all vestiges of ethnicity and language that they felt were inferior to their own. At this time, the government’s official thinking about Native People was powerful and damaging in every way as found in the statements of a white Indian commissioner. In 1882, U.S. Indian commissioner Price, as reported in Martinez and Strong (2005) said:

One very important auxiliary in transforming men from savage to civilized life is the influence brought to bear upon them through the labours of Christian men and women as educators and missionaries . . . In no other manner and by no other means, in my judgment, can our Indian population be so speedily and permanently reclaimed from the barbarism, idolatry, and savage life, as by the educational and missionary operations of the Christian people of our country . . . This, with liberal appropriation by the government for the establishment of industrial schools, where the thousands of Indian children now roaming wild shall be taught to speak the English language and earn their own living, will accomplish what is so much desired, to wit, the conversion of the wild roving Indian into an industrious, peaceable, and law abiding citizen. (p. 3)

At the time, the attitudes held by government officials supported a belief about Indians as savage and wild. This view is as shown by yet another Indian commissioner, J. D.C. Atkins, who said in 1882:

It is also believed that teaching an Indian youth in his own barbarous dialectics is a positive detriment to him. The first step to be taken toward civilization toward teaching the Indians the mischief and folly of continuing in their barbarous practices is to teach them the English language. (Martinez & Strong, 2005, p. 3)

The thinking of the times was uninformed and Eurocentric and that thinking produced Indian policy. The assimilation movement brought Indian children to industrial boarding schools far from their parents and families where they seldom, if ever, were allowed to visit home. The children, unaccustomed to physical punishment, were beaten and isolated if they tried to speak their own languages. The language was literally beaten out of the children after they were taken from their homes through coercion or outright theft. The researcher’s grandmother was taken before she was five years of age and sent to a Minnesota boarding school 45 miles from her home in the horse and buggy days. She then was sent to Flandreau, South Dakota, and finally to Haskell in Kansas on a train (M. Vizenor, personal communication, September 28, 1908). She returned to live at home when she was 18 years old. Her mother died within two years of her return and she never had the opportunity to regain her language.

Prior to European contact, Minnesota's Ojibwe and Dakota people lived in communities/villages and followed the seasonal harvests in balance with the earth's seasons. The education of each child was complete in all aspects of physical, mental, spiritual, and technical development. The invading nations of France, England, and later the United States,

engaged the Ojibwe people in the fur trade industry for approximately 400 years (Minnesota Department of Children, Families and Learning, 1995). As colonialism and globalization entered the picture, the foods, furs, and natural products left America and circulated throughout the world. Trade goods, plus different ways of viewing the world, began to infiltrate both Minnesota's Ojibwe and Dakota communities. Concurrently with the new products, different worldviews and different religions, came federal boarding school policies.

Boarding Schools

Boarding schools, established by missionaries in the 1600s, represented the first assimilative attempts to remove Native children from their communities/villages and family members, religion, language and homeland by placing them in distant schools to learn non-Indian ways. This approach gained wide support during the 1700s and flourished in the 1800s when the federal government increased its involvement and responsibility by developing an educational system for American Indians. Viewed as a solution to the *Indian problem*, the boarding school system, in essence, became the problem (Deyhle & Swisher, 1997, p. 115). The policies affected the entire community/village through the forced removal and education of Ojibwe and Dakota children. Native culture traditionally allowed each person the freedom to make their own choices and so, some Ojibwe and Dakota peoples eventually became assimilated while others fought wholeheartedly to keep their traditional ways, resistant to the imposition.

Educational Impositions

One definition of education as discussed by Dansie (2004, p. 1) is “. . . to bring forth what is within . . .“. This is exactly what was not given to the American Indians after colonization. Formal education for the indigenous people had nothing to do with them, their history, languages, cultures and values. It was an imposition. The more they were exposed to formal education, the more they left their language and culture behind.

Results of Language Loss for American Indians

European influence gained a foothold in the new land and forced Ojibwe people to share the common American culture and language. The dramatic change from traditions to assimilation occurred in a very short period of time. The loss of land, the introduction of alcohol, and the influence of boarding schools all contributed to the destruction of traditional life and a loss of language. Native religion had also been officially outlawed in the United States. A few families hid in order to practice their religion and keep their children safe from the missionaries. Divisions developed between those of the same culture who accepted the “White Man's ways“ and those who fought against them to keep their own identity. At times these rivalries existed in the same families, tearing families apart. Without a sense of identity, their language, and their cultures, many Indian people turned to alcohol and depression.

Armstrong (2000) adds that students face many problems in school if they leave their indigenous knowledge and culture at home. She writes that this is evident in her work with Native American students when they attend conventional schools. She notes that the separation students feel from their families and family values – especially for students who are forced to attend schools outside of reservations or attend boarding schools – affect American Indian students' achievement and they become more susceptible to mental health issues, such as depression, when they return home. The need for a people to keep their language, their culture and their core values is an essential part of helping students to survive and thrive. Every child needs to understand and know themselves in order to progress. Those

who chose to assimilate had little difficulty if their skin was light coloured. They could mix into the white man's world because their colour allowed them to escape unnoticed by the mainstream society. Those who were dark were visibly ethnic and they would not be as accepted by a racist society. If they lost their culture and language, they would be floating in no man's land without a culture or acceptance in any arena of society. It is the absence of this psychological need - to know one's own identity - that drives so many children into resisting the control in schools and to longing for their own identity. Because Native Languages were forcibly taken away from the indigenous people by the colonizing nations, some Native People learned eventually to resist and they became strongly grounded in their historical processes. Today, a language revitalization movement has arisen. This movement is not only in the United States but it is also a world wide movement. This movement drives the continuing research on immersion schools as the best possible solution for halting language loss.

Qualitative Research with American Indian Elders and American Indian Educators

For the project the researcher found a natural setting (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992) where the fluency in Ojibwe and Dakota American Indian language and the future of the language were discussed. The interviews and open conversations took place over a four-year period of study, 2003-2007. The frustration that permeated discussions informed the researcher about many unique and common issues. Some elders were already working in schools teaching language in classes and others were working in pre-school immersion programs. The informality of the data collection made a survey of different opinions and criticisms possible. A spontaneous focus group formed after the four symposia (see below) ended. Hopefully, this creative qualitative research methodology may be useful for other indigenous people around the world who are experiencing language loss.

Statement of the Problem

Many issues concern the elders of the Ojibwe and Dakota communities. However, there was a consensus that American Indian languages are endangered and something must be done immediately. The majority of educators and elders understood the need for immersion schools as one means of creating language fluency. Other methods for teaching fluency were considered effective according to the conversations but not as comprehensive as full immersion. Various program attempts are beginning throughout Minnesota. They include Master Teacher/Mentor programs, immersion classrooms and immersion schools. While there were emerging issues of licensing, location, and salaries, the concern was mainly to start the immersion process as soon as possible.

Research Questions

The Minnesota Board of Teaching members, who license teachers, discussed the proposals for Ojibwe and Dakota immersion schools with the researcher at the winter conference, 2006 of the Minnesota Association for Colleges of Teacher Education (MACTE). The researcher also conducted an interview with the University of St. Thomas director of Charter Schools, and researched the Minnesota Department of Education Charter School web site in preparation for the study. The researcher developed questions from initial conversations with American Indian educators and American Indian elders attending four Minnesota American Indian Language Symposia. Two research questions arose out of the conversations. They were: (a) What are the immersion teacher's needs? , and (b) How can teacher education help with licensing in Ojibwe and Dakota? The research questions began as open-ended and gradually led to discussions of how Indian children in public schools could be taught in immersion settings.

Qualitative Methodology

The language revitalization movement has arisen rapidly and is emerging across the United States especially in Minnesota in the forms of Internet Native language list serves, language symposiums, Ojibwe and Dakota language charter schools (D. Anderson, personal communication, February 6, 2007) and immersion schools. The immersion schools in Minnesota include the six schools listed below where only the early grades are functioning and academic standards are not prohibiting elders from teaching in the public school classrooms.

1. Bugonaygeeshig School (Tribal school with an immersion pre-school on Leech Lake Reservation)
2. University of Minnesota-Duluth (Pre-school immersion)
3. Minneapolis Early Childhood Program (Pre-school immersion)
4. Minneapolis Anishinabe Academy (Scheduled to begin Pre-school-Fall, 2007)
5. Mille Lacs Reservation Leadership Academy (Pre-school immersion program-Fall, 2007)
6. Upper Sioux-Morton Minnesota (Pre-school immersion) (L. Lee, personal communication, October 19, 2007)

Language revitalization is reflected in the strong participation of elders at four American Indian Language Symposia held between 2003 and 2007 (Table 1). These symposia drew fluent speakers, elders and educators interested in conserving the American Indian Dakota and Ojibwe languages in Minnesota. Approximately 200 to 300 participants attended each session. Of that number approximately 24% (Table 1) were elders and about two percent were fluent speakers. All four symposia were sponsored in part by the Ghotto Foundation in Minnesota (L. Lee, personal communication October 19, 2007). Other sponsors included the University of Minnesota.

Table 1. Participation of Elders in Language Symposia

| Name | Date | Year | Place | State | Elders |
|---|-------------------------------|------|-----------------------------------|-----------|--------|
| Minnesota Indigenous Language Symposium | October 16 October 17 | 2003 | St. Paul | Minnesota | 24% |
| Minnesota Indigenous Language Symposium | April 4 April 5 April 6 | 2005 | Fond du Lac Ojibwe Reservation | Minnesota | 23% |
| Minnesota Indigenous Language Symposium | April 20 April 21 | 2006 | Upper Sioux Reservation Morton | Minnesota | 25% |
| Minnesota Indigenous Language Symposium | May 17 May 18 | 2007 | University of Minnesota-Duluth | Minnesota | 23% |

(Compiled from personal communication with L. Lee, October 19, 2007)

Concerns

At these symposia the elders were heard in conversations that focused on what assumptions they made about their work in schools, what they took for granted, what were their experiences and how they interpreted their experiences (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). They elaborated their concerns and from the discussions on the question about their needs (first question) the following themes emerged:

Salary

A prominent theme was salary. Elders live in different economic situations but need to be paid fairly to live in today's world. Those elders currently working in the schools are receiving paraprofessional pay while licensed teachers who do not know the language receive full salary scale pay. The knowledge, wisdom, and language fluency are held by some of the elders, but they do not qualify for full pay because they are not fully licensed by the state of Minnesota to teach at full pay. The discrepancy indicates a lack of respect for American Indian elders.

Funding

The lack of permanent funding for immersion schools, from pre-school through high school, was another theme that appeared. Private foundations are supporting immersion schools and the Minnesota Charter School law supports immersion schools but the funding is of short duration. There are no guarantees that full immersion schools will continue to exist so that children can graduate from full immersion high school classes. Some Minnesota state monies are provided to start charter schools but the schools must be self-supporting within three years. (D. Anderson, personal communication, February 6, 2007)

Location

The location issue was the third theme of concern to the elders because of transportation and living conditions in the city or reservation. The reservations have tribally run schools but more Native people now live in the Twin Cities of Minneapolis and St. Paul. Elders did not always live near the school locations and transportation was an issue in both the city and the reservations.

Teacher Licensing and Teacher Education

The second main concern of the research was the issue of teacher licensing and how teacher education can help with this issue. In addition to the conversations and interviews with elders, a focus group was formed consisting of three American Indian elders and one researcher to address teacher education issues. Using the interviews, conversations and focus group, a model was developed to meet the salary and licensing issues of fluent language speakers in a public school setting which could be located either on the reservation or in the Twin Cities of Minneapolis and St. Paul. In this model, all three of the issues –salary, funding and location (see above) are addressed.

Currently, according to Minnesota state law, the elderly fluent speakers of the language are required to do a two year graduate teacher education program or a four year teacher education undergraduate program to become licensed teachers in order to teach a classroom of children. However, if a new legislative model were designed to place elders and licensed teachers together in classrooms they could educate one another. They could learn language and teaching practices under the auspices of a licensing agency. Public schools could then have full immersion classes and perhaps some schools could become full immersion schools.

In Minnesota's urban settings such as Minneapolis/St. Paul, school districts developed American Indian Magnet Schools where academic and cultural classes have equal standing. The curriculum includes authentic history, culture and language. The curriculum material is published and available to Native Peoples and accessible to the greater society. They are also financially secure as a part of the public school system. They teach Ojibwe and Dakota language in classes but have no language immersion classes or may have language immersion classes in pre-school only. Currently, there are only immersion pre-school classes and one

immersion kindergarten classroom connected to the public schools in Minnesota. The urban setting has one immersion classroom but it is financially unstable with private foundation funding. In general, the funding is highly unreliable with all the social programs requesting resource monies from the same pool. After major legislative efforts, the State of Minnesota has allocated funds to the University of Minnesota's budget for two sites (M. Boyer, personal interview, June 15, 2007). One was funded at the University of Minnesota campus in Minneapolis and the other at the University of Minnesota campus in Duluth.

An Immersion Model for Public Schools

Today, Native People live in two worlds, citizens of their nations and citizens of the United States of America. Those that are most successful are able to balance the two and take the best from mainstream culture to incorporate it into their viable and strengthening culture. The global grass roots movement for revitalization of Native languages is an important movement for all colonized people. If teacher education institutions could plan, implement and license teachers for immersion programs, such programs could succeed in the public schools and have the necessary tax base funding. The plan must be innovative because fluent speakers are usually much too traditional and elderly to attempt a college site teacher education program. Young licensed teachers who plan to learn Ojibwe or Dakota can pair with the elderly speakers in the classroom and they could teach one another. But, there are obstacles which include:

1. Securing tax based funding in the public schools;
2. Equal pay for two teachers in the classroom creates double financial expense;
3. Developing curriculum that belongs to the Native People rather than the public schools;
4. Determining locations of immersion sites;
5. Connecting young teachers who wish to learn the language to the immersion programs;
6. Finding teacher education support for licensure of the elders.

Language immersion teaching demands a high level of physical stamina, knowledge of the tribal language and culture and the capacity to help advance students to meet educational objectives. Because it is a popular immersion methodology, Total Physical Response (Francis and Reyhner, 2002) is used. This methodology utilizes movement, motion and gesture in the early stages of language learning and demands more physical fitness of the teacher. Consequently, immersion language teachers, especially the elderly, must work with a younger teacher who has a grasp of learning centred approaches, interactive strategies, cultural immersion activities, home study materials and supplemental parent learning activities plus the graduation standards required of students in the public schools. Students cannot graduate with a state sponsored diploma without the knowledge of the standards. In some states, a special certification is provided by the state for language teachers. However, in Minnesota, most of the Native families are located in the urban centres and their students are educated in the public school system. The use of licensed teachers is a requirement and the approach to finding ways to license fluent Ojibwe/Dakota elders so they may teach students in their native languages and according to the state standards must reward the intergenerational teachers with equal pay and status as they help one another learn, teach and share the fluency of those who could save indigenous languages.

Some Challenges

In many cases, only a handful of the Ojibwe and Dakota elderly remain fluent in their

languages and they are needed to teach the youngest children and their future teachers. Native language immersion classrooms, camps and activities have structured intergenerational learning that promotes language learning, cultural participation and build new and life-long human relationships. It is the natural way for languages to be passed from adults, family and communities to the young (Pease Pretty-On-Top, 2003). But there are challenges. Pease Pretty-On-Top (2003) says:

First, tribal elders may have extensive language and cultural knowledge, but have mixed or limited interests to share knowledge outside the confines of their own extended family or immediate community. [Secondly] the personal circumstance of the elder may not lead to teaching, especially if the elder has already become retired. [Thirdly], many elders have health issues that limit their activity or stamina in general. Camps and classrooms are often physically demanding. Finally, elders may harbour attitudes that limit positive involvement in the learning and teaching, like teasing or making fun of new language learners, or modeling resentment, sadness or anger, related to the loss of tribal language. (p. 40)

A Concluding Note

Because of the affective nature of the problem under consideration, qualitative research methodology was appropriate in order to draw reasonable conclusions from various opinions and perspectives held by the elders and educators participating in the language symposia. Direct questioning and conversations provided the data for this research. Elders and educators were asked what would work best for them if they are teaching or if they were to teach in the schools. During these conversations the researcher noted the intensity of feelings about language loss and revitalization in pride of their language and culture and extreme frustration with the systems in which they live. Yet there is much hope, for the revitalization of Native languages is now a part of the Native People's agenda. The future is promising for Native Peoples with language revitalization as they continue into the modern global society.

The model of intergenerational pairing of teachers in immersion classes that is proposed as an alternative to full licensing of elders, may work for other colonized world languages that have experienced very similar situations. A discussion of the problems and solutions to save endangered languages should be a task for teacher education. Perhaps teacher education can someday lay claim to helping save endangered languages and bring qualified licensed language teachers into indigenous immersion classrooms.

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The Effects of Cooperative Learning Strategies on Student Teachers' Achievement in Literacy Skills

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This study investigated the effects of Cooperative learning instruction versus traditional lecture/discussion methods on the literacy development skills of a group of third year TEFL student teachers. The study was of a quasi-experimental design with non-equivalent groups, an experimental group of 50 and a control group of 177 student teachers. The experimental group was instructed using cooperative learning strategies while the control group was instructed on the same material using the traditional lecture/discussion method. Findings indicated significant difference in performance, in favour of the experimental group, on the literacy achievement test, especially in reading comprehension and writing and on higher-order thinking skills.

Introduction

In the first few pages of this paper, Cooperative learning as a teaching / learning strategy is described and the research literature used to indicate its effectiveness. In examining the research literature which is extensive, focus is on an explanation of the concept and the effectiveness of cooperative learning strategies used in different subject areas. The section on cooperative learning strategies in literacy classes introduces the main point of the paper which is reporting on a study using cooperative learning strategies with pre-service teachers in the English department of the College of Education, Kuwait University, where English is taught as a foreign language. The concluding remarks in the final section of the paper reiterates that the findings of the study are in line with the many research studies that show results championing the effectiveness of Cooperative learning in improving students' achievement.

Concept of Cooperative Learning

As a teaching-learning strategy, Cooperative learning has been studied extensively and applied to schooling in classrooms around the world since the 1970s (Wilson-Jones & Caston, 2004). Cooperative learning is situated within the social constructivist paradigm. It is a teaching strategy in which students work together in small teams and use a number of activities to achieve academic objectives that include improving their understanding of subject matter. The U.S. Office of Educational Research and Improvement (1992) defined Cooperative learning as "a successful teaching strategy that team students in small groups with different levels of ability, using a variety of learning activities to improve their understanding of a subject" (p. 24). The overall concept of Cooperative learning indicates a positive interrelation that occurs when group members work together for the success of the entire group. The group builds a community of support and encouragement in carrying out assigned tasks and each member is held accountable for achieving the goals. The essential components of cooperation are positive interdependence, face-to-face interaction, individual and group accountability, interpersonal and small group skills, and group processing (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1993). Systematic structuring of these basic elements into group learning situations helps ensure cooperative efforts and enables the disciplined implementation of Cooperative learning for long-term success (Johnson & Johnson, 1999, p. 5). The overall intent of this instructional strategy, Cooperative learning, is to teach responsibility for and autonomy in learning and to help others learn reciprocally.

The findings from extensive research on Cooperative learning found improvements in (a) academic achievement, (b) behaviour and attendance, (c) self-confidence and motivation, and (d) school and classmates' satisfaction (Gillies, 2004; Johnson, Johnson and Holubec, 1993; Quinn, 2002). After reviewing research on this strategy, Lazarowitz and Karsenty (1990) and Slavin (1995) concluded that Cooperative learning is effective in improving students' academic achievement, inter-group relations, and self-esteem. Yet research findings on the comparative effectiveness of cooperative and traditional instruction are inconsistent and confounding. Other researchers have found that there are no differences in academic achievement of learners between Cooperative learning and traditional teaching approaches (Seymour, 1994).

Effects of Cooperative Learning on Learning and Achievement

Research in various school subjects on the effects of Cooperative learning on the overall learning of students has been reported widely for a long time. Reys, Suydam, and Smith (1998) described the aura in the mathematics classroom and observed how cooperative learning settings promote student-centred instruction;

The lesson might begin with the teacher meeting with the whole class to provide an overall perspective, present new material, pose problems or questions for investigation, and clarify directions for the group activity. The class then divides into small groups, usually with four members each. Students work together cooperatively in each group, discussing the problem or question, making and testing conjectures, verifying that each student is satisfied that the group answer is reasonable. This communication of ideas with one another is especially valuable in the learning process; the students help each other learn mathematical ideas. The teacher moves from group to group providing assistance by provoking questions as needed. (p.44)

As seen in the above, the organization of the classroom and the grouping of the students are extremely important in stimulating Cooperative learning for both the students and for the teacher.

In 1989, Johnson and Johnson, in a synthesis study, reviewed 193 studies in which Cooperative learning was compared to more traditional forms of instruction, with group productivity as an outcome measure. They concluded that in over 50 % of cases, the cooperative learning approach was more effective than more traditional forms of instruction, while in 10% of cases, competitive or individualistic approaches to instruction produced higher productivity. As for social interaction and the development of social skills, they found that the cooperative learning approach produced greater interpersonal attraction in 60% of the cases and that competitive and individualistic approaches produced higher levels of interpersonal attraction in 3% of cases. In another synthesis review of 122 studies done between 1924 and 1981, Johnson, Johnson and Holubec (1993) confirmed that cooperative learning experiences can promote higher achievement than do competitive and individualistic learning experiences. These results hold for all age levels and for all subject areas, and for tasks involving concept attainment, verbal problem-solving, categorization, spatial problem solving, retention and memory, motor performance and guessing/ judging/ predicting (pp. 23-24). In this vein, the benefits of cooperative learning strategies for students' achievement have been clearly demonstrated in the literature over the past 20 years (Davidson & O'Leary, 1990; Gillies & Ashman, 2000; Sharan & Sharan, 1992; Slavin, 1995, 1996).

Effects of Cooperative Learning in Literacy Classes

A growing body of research on literacy instruction has focused on the effectiveness of the cooperative learning approach on the academic, affective and social levels of students in language classes and especially with reference to the appropriateness of the approach for developing literacy (Meek, 1982; Chen, 2005). According to Chen, literacy instruction in English as a Second Language (ESL) classes that are conducted in a cooperative learning environment is characterized by shared literacy experiences and an emphasis on the development of the socio-affective with the teacher adopting the roles of facilitator, advisor and monitor. Classes run thus have been termed "communities of readers" (Hepler & Hickman, 1982). These researchers claim that:

The establishment of such communities is essential to the successful development of literacy because there is socialization and cooperation while doing reading and writing activities. The teacher in these communities assumes the role of community planner, facilitator, advisor and monitor, but never instructor, thus giving rise to self-directional learning in a collective atmosphere and reliance on intrinsic motivation, not to mention other socio-affective benefits generated as by products. (p.281)

In this context, the social nature of reading was investigated by Meek (1982, p. 60) who reaffirms that, "for all the reading research ..., we are certain only that good readers pick their own way to literacy in the company of friends who encourage and sustain them and that the enthusiasm of a trusted adult can make the difference". It has also been shown that such cooperative instructional arrangements contribute to enhanced efficacy beliefs in both teachers and students (Barkley, 2005).

Purpose of the Study

Most of the research on cooperative learning strategies in other subjects has emphasized overall students' achievement (Lazarowitz, Hertz-Lazarowitz, & Baird, 1994; Okebukola, 1985; Watson, 1991). Although many foreign language teachers have tried to use cooperative learning strategies at the college level because of its demonstrated success, there are few studies that have examined the impact of the strategies on student achievement and language development, especially literacy development (Mekheimer, 2005). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of using cooperative learning strategies versus traditional teaching methods on college junior students' achievement in literacy (Reading Appreciation and Essay Writing) in the Pre-service English Language Education program in Kuwait University. English is taught as a foreign language (EFL).

Method

Participants were fifty (n =50) students in the English department in the College of Education... They were typical student teachers at the junior level of the pre-service English Education program. The mean age of the group was 20 years and they were all nearly similar in socio-economic status. The researcher, a faculty member in the same department, had adequate experience teaching literacy to student teachers in this program.

Design and Procedures

This study utilized a quasi-experimental non-equivalent control group design as described by Campbell and Stanley (1966). Students in one intact group (n = 50) were the experimental group that received the cooperative learning instruction ; the other students (177) who were taught by a more traditional lecture/discussion instructional method were the control group. Both groups were taught two days per week for four weeks and received the same

instructional content, the same hands-on activities and data, and the same assignments. Both groups also had the same learning objectives, topics and principles introduced in the Reading and Writing textbooks, and had equal opportunities to work on their learning objectives. The major variable was the form of instruction, Cooperative learning versus traditional instruction. The same reading and writing achievement test was administered to all of the students at the beginning (pre-test) and conclusion (post-test) of the four-week treatment.

The Measurement

The literacy achievement test consisted of selected items from the syllabus of Reading Appreciation and Essay Writing and Comprehension for the Junior Academic Year 2004. The Reading Comprehension and Appreciation component consisted of a reading comprehension passage followed by 24 multiple choice items on content and language areas in the reading text and two appreciation open ended questions on the content of the reading text. The Writing component consisted of writing a short five-sentence paragraph and a longer essay. A team of jurors, comprised of seven professors from the department of English, Kuwait University, established test content validity for this study. These experts checked the correspondence between test items and textbook content and confirmed that the nature of the test items was strongly associated with the important teaching points and language topics in literacy development introduced in the textbooks. The reliability coefficient of 0.777 was calculated using the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 (KR 20).

Items in the instrument were classified into five categories based on Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of knowledge, comprehension, application, synthesis and evaluation levels. Knowledge items emphasized recognition or recall of ideas; comprehension items focused on the understanding of ideas or concepts; and application items required students to apply written responses to an appropriate language situation (reading appreciation / comprehension or writing). The same team of jurors, who were knowledgeable about the criteria for these categories, independently classified these items into the categories with a high percentage of agreement (89%). The resulting achievement test (Reading Comprehension / Appreciation Component) contained five items at the knowledge level, 11 items at the comprehension level, and eight items at the application level. The Writing Test consisted of two items, both relying on recall of ideas, application of essay writing rules and higher-order cognitive processes, such as synthesis and evaluation as evidenced in pre-writing, revising and editing.

Treatment

Cooperative learning strategies involved in the treatment included student team learning methods, jigsaw, learning together, and group investigation (Slavin, 1996). Students formed their own five-member groups and worked in their small groups to learn topics being taught using group discussion and inquiry. During group discussion, students clarified their own ideas in communication with one another. They worked on group reading comprehension and writing development projects that emphasized gathering and interpreting data generated from teacher-directed hands-on activities and group discussion. Two key cooperative-learning elements, group goals and individual accountability (Slavin, 1996), were also incorporated into the instructional method. Students made presentations of their group work and projects by explaining, clarifying, and communicating to their classmates. Students worked together in their groups in learning the topics, practicing skill areas and doing projects; but they were tested individually at the completion of the treatment. In summary, the key features of the teaching method were cooperative group learning, including small group discussion, students' collaborative efforts, and group presentation.

Class presentation of group discussion (e.g. reading comprehension answers to questions set by the teacher, or small writing projects) and teacher's discussions with students were followed by the teacher's appreciation of answers and writing projects. The most important characteristic of the unit was the set of student-centred activities designed to encourage students to become more adept in using reading comprehension and writing skills. Frequent classroom observations were also made to ensure that the treatment was applied properly.

For the control group, the traditional instructional method included lectures by the teacher, assigned textbook readings, whole class discussion, and a review of the textbook topics and language study skills in reading comprehension and essay writing for juniors at the end of each teaching unit. The key feature of this teacher-centred instruction was providing students with clear and detailed instructions and explanations, relying on the product method of teaching reading comprehension and essay writing.

Data Analysis and Findings

A *t*-test between the experimental and the control groups' mean scores on the *Literacy Achievement Test* was run using SPSS Version 10. Table 1 below shows the mean differences between the pre-test scores of the two groups. There is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups on the literacy achievement test. Table 2 shows the mean difference between the experimental subjects and those of the control subjects on literacy achievement after the treatment period (post-testing).

Table 1. Results of *t*-test for the mean differences between experimental sample and the control sample on pre-testing on Literacy Achievement test

| Group | No of Subjects | Mean Scores | Standard Deviation | t-value |
|---------------------|----------------|-------------|--------------------|---------|
| Experimental | 50 | 4.22 | 1.7870 | 1.692 |
| Control | 177 | 4.46 | 1.5060 | |

$t(98, 0.05) = 1.98$

The data in Table 2 reveal statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental subjects who had learned through cooperative learning strategies and the mean scores of the control subjects who had been taught under a traditional lecture and discussion approach. The mean score (26.52) of the experimental group on literacy skills is much higher than the mean score of the control subjects at 19.18.

Table 2. Results of *t*-test for the mean differences between the whole experimental sample and the whole control sample on achievement post-testing

| Group | No of Subjects | Mean Scores | Standard Deviation | t-value |
|--|----------------|-------------|--------------------|---------|
| Experimental (Cooperative Learning) | 50 | 26.52 | 2.55 | 13.36 |
| Control (Traditional Learning) | 177 | 19.18 | 2.93 | |

$t(98, 0.05) = 1.98$

An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) on the post-test scores with the pre-test scores as the covariates was applied to the achievement data. ANCOVA was further conducted at the knowledge, comprehension, application, synthesis and evaluation levels of the post-test

measures to determine if there were possible significant differences between the two groups among levels of thinking in which the achievement test was categorized. The assumptions of the ANCOVA were checked by a test of homogeneity of variance, which yielded non-significant values for the variables.

Table 3 below reveals no significant differences between subjects who used cooperative and individual learning strategies on knowledge level scores, or on comprehension level scores. However, the experimental (Cooperative learning) groups had significantly higher achievement scores on the application, synthesis and evaluation test items (*F* ratio for Application = 7.2, for synthesis = 21.3, and for evaluation = 15.3) than the control groups who were taught by the more traditional approach.

Table 3. An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) on post-test scores with the pre-test scores as the covariates

| Level | Source | Sum of Squares | <i>df</i> | Mean Square | <i>F</i> | Sig. |
|----------------------|-----------|----------------|-----------|-------------|----------|------|
| Knowledge | treatment | 4.407 | 1 | 4.407 | .557 | .456 |
| | Error | 1770.808 | 224 | 7.905 | | |
| | Total | 78369.000 | 227 | | | |
| Comprehension | treatment | 6.142 | 1 | 6.142 | 1.304 | .255 |
| | Error | 1055.149 | 224 | 4.710 | | |
| | Total | 55687.000 | 227 | | | |
| Application | treatment | 49.097 | 1 | 49.097 | 7.255 | .008 |
| | Error | 1515.914 | 224 | 6.767 | | |
| | Total | 78369.000 | 227 | | | |
| Synthesis | treatment | 82.670 | 1 | 82.670 | 21.319 | .000 |
| | Error | 868.614 | 224 | 3.878 | | |
| | Total | 5862.000 | 227 | | | |
| Evaluation | treatment | 65.137 | 1 | 65.137 | 15.349 | .000 |
| | Error | 950.586 | 224 | 4.244 | | |
| | Total | 5862.000 | 227 | | | |

Discussion and Conclusion

Findings of differences between pre-testing and post-testing mean scores on the literacy achievement test indicated that the cooperative learning method is supported by enhanced literacy achievement when compared to the lecture/discussion method. Therefore, the effectiveness of cooperative learning strategies used with classes of student teachers at the junior level in the PRESET program in the English Department in Kuwait University was affirmed. This fits in with the body of research that attests to the advantages of cooperative learning strategies used in other subjects and with students at different grade levels. Furthermore, the present research findings generated evidence that empirically support the notion that the format of Cooperative learning proposed in this study is more effective in enhancing higher-order thinking levels as applied to reading comprehension and essay writing skills than is the more traditional lecture / discussion individual method. This observation is in line with previous studies in other areas and subjects as related in the literature review (Cohen, 1994; Imel, 1989; Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Okebukola and Ogunniyi 1984). The observation is that communicating freely and cooperating in planning

and carrying out topics of study assisted the students in their cooperative learning groups to achieve more than they would as individuals.

The cooperative learning strategies in this study emphasized students' interpretation of data, collaborative efforts, small group discussion and presentation and teamwork. These instructional strategies required students to use higher-order thinking skills in facilitating the acquisition of literacy skills and therefore, raised their level of understanding and their synthesis and evaluation skills. For instance, when students discussed with other group members or presented teamwork results to their classmates, they had opportunities to reflect on and clarify their own ideas. As elaborated by Saunders (1992), "Small-group work tends to stimulate a higher level of cognitive activity among a large number of students than does listening to lectures and thus provides expanded opportunities for cognitive restructuring." (p. 140)

As well, autonomy of learning is achievable in cooperative learning settings, given the interdependence and reciprocal empowerment involved when each member is responsible for the outcome of the shared goals. (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). On a final note, the key factors thought to be the strongest contributors to success of the cooperative learning approach, as mentioned in this study and in previous research, include: positive interdependence, face-to-face interaction, individual and group accountability, interpersonal and small group skills, and group processing. Therefore, it is recommended that language teachers should adopt Cooperative learning for literacy development.

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Assessment Procedure and Students' Locus of Control as Determinants of Achievement in Chemistry

Modupe M. Osokoya

The study investigated a systematic assessment procedure as a strategy in the teaching-learning process along with students' locus of control (internal and external) as determinants of students' achievement in chemistry. It made use of 134 SS II chemistry students (76 boys, 58 girls) in a pre-test-post-test control group design in which the assessment procedure was crossed with locus of control. The results showed that students exposed to systematic assessment procedure (experimental group) performed better than their counterparts in the unsystematic assessment procedure (control group). Apparently, effects of the systematic assessment procedure do not vary between students of internal and external locus of control. The implications of the study for curriculum planning/development and teacher preparation are highlighted.

Introduction

Chemistry is an important and unique part of knowledge. Through knowledge of chemistry, we are able to understand the general principles that govern the behaviour of a variety of materials, both organic and inorganic, that make up the environment of Man. Man makes use of these materials from time to time. However, in spite of the relevance of chemistry in every day life, enrolment and performance in the subject in the schools of Nigeria have not been encouraging. Many reasons have been given for the poor performance of students in science subjects and specifically in chemistry. Some of these include teaching characteristics and instructional activities (Falayajo & Osafehintimi (1988); inadequate equipment (Ndu, 1991); mathematical anxiety, spatial visualization, proportional reasoning ability (Freidel et al, 1990) and some psychological attributes (Daniel 1993; Smith 1996).

Science educators and researchers have engaged in various studies to find out the effect of instructional strategies on students' performance in the sciences, especially at the secondary school level. Some of the strategies which have been suggested and used, with varying degrees of success, in science classrooms are: concept mapping (Snead, 2000; Okebukola, 1990; Ige, 1998; Jonassen, 1996), mastery learning (Block & Burns, 1976) and advanced organizers (Adepoju, 2002). In spite of the research evidence of these varying instructional strategies, the problems of underachievement are still noticeable when students are tested at the higher cognitive levels. This is why some science educators and researchers are suggesting the possibility of integrating systematic assessment procedures into classroom instruction.

The main purpose of classroom instruction is to bring about change in the learner's behaviour. These changes may be in the intellectual, emotional and physical spheres of life. In order to determine if there is change, evaluation is an essential part of the instruction, of teaching and of learning. The changes in behaviour are achieved by the planned learning activities while the student's learning process is periodically evaluated using tests and other evaluation techniques (Onasanya, 2005).

Evaluation is a systematic process of collecting, analysing and interpreting information to determine the extent to which students are achieving instructional objectives. It also entails

passing value judgment about a learner's level of performance using different assessment instruments or procedures. Assessment, one of the steps in evaluation is the process of investigating the status of an individual or group usually with reference to an expected outcome. Assessment is an integral part of teaching because through it, the teacher is able to ascertain the attainment, at different cognitive levels, of the students in the teaching-learning processes.

Systematic assessment is to assess continuously using a variety of tools to collect information at regular intervals in order to determine the performance and ability of a learner in the three cognitive domains, with a view to getting the truest picture of the learner and helping him to develop to his full potential (Emeke, 1996). This is also known as formative evaluation as different from but contributing to summative evaluation. In systematic (formative, continuous) assessment, teachers and students provide feedback regularly. In this way teachers can better identify the needs of learners and plan remedies appropriately; they can identify possible misconceptions and provide clarification in a way that does not interfere with learning as the lesson progresses. Systematic evaluation procedures help greatly in increasing the quality of learning and learners' motivation. Formative and continuous assessment enables the teacher to have a systematic accumulation of evidence on the standard attained by individual students in the system. For effective teaching, a teacher needs to integrate systematic (formative) assessment procedures into his/her teaching to help students learn at all cognitive levels.

While working with 120 senior secondary physics students on the effect of systematic (formative) assessment, student cognitive style and gender on physics performance, Okpala and Adeoye (1999) revealed the efficacy of such assessment. The result of their study indicated that the use of systematic assessment procedures, as an integral part of physics teaching had significant impact on the performance of the students across all performance categories.

Ideally, a good chemistry teacher should provide a pattern of teacher-student interaction based lessons aimed at encouraging learners' active involvement in both individual and group learning activities such as asking questions, discussing, manipulating, observing, explaining, demonstrating, prompt thinking and clarifying of concepts. Okpala and Onocha (1995), and Okpala, Onocha and Oyedeji (1999) have suggested that the systematic attribute of continuous assessment is put into operation when its planning and organization involves students at the beginning of each school term during which time the teacher informs the students what to expect of the lesson.

The construct 'locus of control' became prominent in educational studies as a result of the monograph published by Rotter in 1966. He developed a scale labeled I-E scale to measure individual's generalized expectancy for internal versus external control of reinforcement. A few years later, Ormrod (2000) suggested that students' behaviour in achievement situations is influenced by their locus of control, which may be internal or external. A number of researchers (Bakare, 1975), Osokoya (1990, 2003), Abe (1995), Adeyemo (1997), and Kempa and Diez (1990) have identified locus of control, among several psychological and personality factors that are operative in academic achievement.

If a person believes that his or her success or failure is due to factors within his own control, such as effort or ability, then such a person has internal locus of control. To the contrary, if a person is of the opinion that his or her success or failure is due to some outside factors

beyond his or her control like fate, luck, parents' work, etc., then such a person has external locus of control.(Emeke & Yolooye, 2000). Usually the 'externals' unlike the 'internals' attribute their academic performance in school work to factors outside of themselves (fate, luck, whims of the teacher, parents, peers) and therefore are not prepared to change their behaviour to ensure success or more success in future tasks. It is necessary that in their effort to explain students' achievement in chemistry, teachers and evaluators recognize the possible confounding effect of the students' locus of control.

Locus of control is a measure of one's belief about whether or not his or her success or failure can be attributed to internal (intrinsic factors) or external forces (extrinsic factors).

For success the learner must be ready to believe that he or she is capable of achieving high. Teachers can support the learner by integrating a consideration of the learners' interest and determination into the teaching-learning process, as part of systematic (formative and continuous) assessment. It is a professional responsibility of teachers and schools to ensure that assessment procedures are appropriate, transparent, equitable and inclusive of all learners. (Service Tasmania, 2006)

The Problem

It is hoped that the outcome of the interacting influence of locus of control and an assessment procedure would serve as empirical basis for developing a more effective method of teaching chemistry in Nigerian schools and even outside Nigeria. This in turn is expected to improve achievement in the schools' subjects, hence the usefulness of this study. More specifically, if a fair number of 'internals' and 'externals' are gathered to constitute a study sample (experimental group) and are exposed to a method of teaching chemistry that is characterized by a systematic assessment procedure, their achievement in chemistry might be significantly better than those (control group) who would not be exposed to such systematic assessment procedure during the teaching learning process. This study therefore seeks to determine the effect of a systematic assessment procedure (treatment) and locus of control on students' academic achievement in chemistry.

Research Hypothesis

Based on the stated problem, the following null hypotheses were tested in the course of the study:

- H0₁: There is no significant main effect of treatment on students' achievement in chemistry.
- H0₂: There is no significant main effect of locus of control on students' achievement in chemistry.
- H0₃: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and locus of control on students' achievement in chemistry.

Methodology

This study is a pre-test-post-test control group, randomized subject design in which the treatment and the independent variables are to be crossed in a 2 x 2 arrangement

Table 1. Design of the study

| | Locus of control | |
|---|------------------|----------|
| | Internal | External |
| Treatment (T ₁) Experimental Group | | |
| Treatment (T ₂) control | | |

With a schematized arrangement as follows:

Experimental group (T₁) O₁ x O₂

Control group (T₂) O₁ x O₂

Such that

O₁ - Pre-test scores.

O₂ - Post-test scores.

X - Treatment.

Sampling procedure and sample

A local government area was randomly selected from the Ijebu division of Ogun State of Nigeria for the purpose of the study. Four schools were later randomly chosen within the selected local government area with two as experimental while the other two served as control. All the chemistry students in the Senior Secondary School One (SSS1) in each of the selected schools were expected to take part in the study. A total of 134 students, (58 girls and 76 boys) with an average age of 14.3 years were involved. For easy experimentation of the assessment procedure, and for easy accessibility of the students, the class size of the experimental group was limited to 45. Where a class had more than 45 students, 45 of them were randomly selected for the experiment while the rest joined the control group.

Instrumentation

The instruments used for the study were: (a) Chemistry Achievement Test (CAT), (b) Locus of Control Scale (LCS), and (c) Operational Guide for Instruction (OGI). *Chemistry Achievement Test* is a 25 item multiple-choice test with four alternatives. The test was developed by the researcher to determine the achievement of students in chemistry. An initial pool of 45 items was constructed based on a test blueprint that considered knowledge, comprehension and application and all aspects of the topics taught during the treatment period. The topics taught were *particulate nature of matters*, and *symbol, formula and equations*. The concurrent validity of the test was established with a teacher made test as .78 while the test-retest reliability was calculated as .84.

Locus of Control Scale (LCS) is the original Rotter (1966) scale of internal-external locus of control that has been revised and revalidated by Anastasi (1988), Igwe (1991) and Yoloye (1999). The scale consists of 29 items with highly forced choices; six of these statements are filler statements. A filler statement is one that does not reveal any locus of control, dimensions, or pattern. For scoring, the *internal* statements are arranged as (a) while the *external* statements are arranged as (b). Each student is required to endorse one of the pair of statements. Each of (a) and (b) make a pair. Rotter (1966) reported internal consistency (.70) of the scale based on a sample of 400 college students (200 males and 200 females) and test-retest reliability (.72) on the same set of students. The various test-retest reliability values obtained by subsequent users of the test within Nigeria and outside Nigeria, range between .70 and .92 (Anastasi, 1988), Yoyoye (1980, 1999). Odinko and Adeyemo (1999) specifically

recorded a Cronbach alpha value of .87 for the scale using 48 SSSII students in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Operational Guide for Instruction (OGI) is a detailed guide on the steps to be taken for the systematic assessment procedure. The teachers were expected to give the students some information about the lessons before the commencement of each lesson. This information included:

- (i) Topics for assessment during the experimental period (3 weeks); these topics were *particulate nature of matter and symbol, formulae and equations*;
- (ii) Number of assessments scheduled for the period (six assessments, two per week);
- (iii) Specific topic(s) to be covered by each assessment and the cognitive domains to be assessed; Here, the break down was as follows:
 - Dalton's atomic structure (knowledge and understanding)
 - Atoms, molecules, ions, atomic masses (understanding and application)
 - Symbols of element, laws of chemical combination (understanding and application)
 - Valency, formulae and equations; (Understanding and application)
- (iv) Date for each assessment (according to the time-table of the schools in the sample); the dates were scheduled so that two assessments were done in each week).
- (v) Type of assessment instrument
 - Dalton's atomic theory (essay),
 - Atoms, molecules, ions, atomic masses (essay, multiple choice),
 - Symbols of elements, laws of chemical combination (essay, multiple choice), and
 - Valency, Formulae and equations (essay, multiple choice).

For the Control group, a typical lesson proceeded thus:

Step 1: Brief Review of Previous lesson,

Step 2: Brief Introduction of the lesson,

Step 3: Gradual presentation of the main core of the day's work, and

Step 4: Summary of the lesson.

Procedure

Of the four schools in the sample, two were the experimental group and two were the control group. The students in each group were given a pre-test of the *Chemistry Achievement Test (CAT)*. The chemistry teachers of the two experimental groups were oriented through the operational guide for instruction (OGI). The teachers did the teaching while the researcher coordinated and monitored the teaching. The treatment lasted three weeks during which time the experimental students were exposed to a systematically planned and organized assessment procedure. Before the commencement of teaching, the teacher had discussion with the students of the experimental group. The discussion involved giving the students all the information listed as (i) to (v) above in the operational guide for instruction (OGI).

Students in the control group did not receive any preparatory information. There was no discussion between the teachers and the students on the nature of the assessment procedures; neither were they given any of the information (i) to (v) of the OGI that was given to the experimental group. This control group went through typical lessons involving steps 1 to 4 as earlier above. The researcher monitored the two groups in the respective schools. They were taught the same topics: *particulate nature of matter and symbol, formulae and equations*, and

details of content. At the end of the three weeks of the treatment, both groups were assessed with the same achievement test (CAT) as post-test.

Data Analysis

The data analysis involved the use of analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) of the post-test scores with the pre-test scores as covariates, where the main effect is significant; multiple classification analysis (MCA) aspect of ANCOVA was employed to detect the direction of the difference between the respective groups.

Results

Table 2. Summary of Analysis of Covariance of Chemistry Achievement Scores by Treatment and Locus of Control.

| Score of Variation | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Score | F | Sig. F. |
|---|----------------|-----|------------|--------|---------|
| Covariates | 1811.019 | 1 | 11811.019 | 83.725 | .000 |
| Pre-test | 1811.019 | 1 | 1811.019 | 83.725 | .000 |
| Main Effects | 1310.628 | 2 | 436.876 | 20.197 | .000 |
| Locus of Control | 16.595 | 1 | 16.595 | .796 | .382 |
| Assessment Procedure | 984.947 | 1 | 984.947 | 45.535 | .000 |
| 2-way interaction | | | | | |
| Locus of control x Assessment Procedure | 7.346 | 1 | 7.346 | .340 | .561 |
| Explained | 3147.602 | 6 | 393.45 | 22.737 | |
| Residual | 1140.506 | 127 | 21.631 | 21.631 | .000 |
| Total | 4281.109 | 133 | 49.215 | | |

P < 0.05

Table 3. Multiple Classification Analysis of Post-test Achievement Scores of subjects according to Treatment and Locus of control.

Grand Mean=12.587

| Variable + Category | N | Unadjusted Standard Deviation | ETA | Adjusted for Independent Deviation | Beta |
|----------------------|----|-------------------------------|-----|------------------------------------|------|
| Assessment procedure | | | | | |
| 1 Systematic | 67 | 2.84 | | 2.98 | |
| 2 Unsystematic | 67 | -2.84 | | -2.98 | |
| | | | .41 | | .43 |
| Locus of control | | | | | |
| 1 Internal | 83 | .46 | | .20 | |
| 2 External | 51 | 1.68 | | -.29 | |
| | | | .08 | | .03 |

Multiple R = .754 Multiple R Square = .568

Hypothesis Testing and Discussion

H0i: There is no significant main effect of treatment on students' achievement in chemistry. Table 2 shows a 2x2 analysis of covariance of chemistry achievement scores by treatment (assessment procedure) and locus of control. The table indicates that there was a significant main effect of treatment on students' achievement in chemistry [$F_{1,133}=45.535, p<0.05$], thus the hypothesis was further subjected to the multiple classification analysis (MCA) as shown in Table 3 so as to determine which of the two groups of students – experimental or control-achieved significantly higher than the other.

The students who were exposed to a systematic assessment procedure during the teaching–learning process achieved significantly better in chemistry than those in the control group. The adjusted post-test mean score for the experimental group was 12.587 as against 6.627 for the control group. From Tables 2 and 3 it can be observed that treatment alone accounted for 18.49% $(0.43)^2$ of variation in the students' achievement. So the null hypothesis that says that there is no significant main effect of treatment on the achievement of students in chemistry is rejected. The result shows that, when exposed to systematic assessment, chemistry students tend to achieve significantly better than those who were not similarly exposed. A student who has advanced information details of the assessment procedures to be undertaken during an educational program is likely to be more organized and prepared towards improving his/her study habit. As Yolooye (1988) submits, providing students with such information could also help to demystify tests and examinations as well as reduce the associated threats.

For the effective use of continuous assessment, a more elaborate assessment, the teacher must be ready to do extra work to ensure its successful implementation in the classroom. Yolooye (1988, 2004) and Okpala and Adeoye (1999) also show a positive effect of an identical assessment procedure treatment on analytical and non-analytical students in Physics performance. Their work showed that a continuous assessment procedure led to reinforcement, better study habits and minimal examination malpractices.

H₀₂: There is no significant main effect of locus of control on students' achievement in chemistry. Table 2 shows that the effect of locus of control on students' achievement in chemistry was not significant [$F_{1, 133} = 0.767, P < 0.05$]. Thus hypothesis two is accepted. This non-significant effect is obvious in the beta value of 0.03 which shows that the variation in student achievement accounted for by locus of control is just 0.09% $(0.03)^2$.

H₀₃: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and Locus of control on students' achievement in chemistry. Table 2 shows that there is no significant interaction effect of treatment (assessment procedure) and locus of control on students' achievement in chemistry. [$F_{1,133} = 0.340, P < 0.05$]. The hypothesis is thus accepted. Apparently the effect of systematic assessment procedure on students' achievement in chemistry (as a result of exposure to a systematic assessment procedure) does not vary between students of internal and external locus of control. This result, when viewed against the background of significant main effect of treatment on students' achievement, tends to suggest that practicing chemistry teachers need to boost their teaching learning strategies with systematic assessment procedure as an integral part of instruction irrespective of the students' perceived locus of control. Studies in and outside Nigeria (Abe, 1995; Ojokheta, 2000; Alexandra, 1997) support the belief that some psychological factors like anxiety, self-concept, interest and locus of control affect students' interest and performance in school subjects to a great extent. Such factors also affect adjustment at school. For instance, Emeke and Yolooye (2000) observed significant effect of locus of control on the adjustment of foreign undergraduate students in the University of Ibadan. Nevertheless, Abe (1995) concluded that the causal nature of the relationship between locus of control and academic achievement among secondary school students is somewhat inconsistent. Anastasi and Urbina (2004) attest to the fact that locus of control is an important aspect of motivation in general and that the construct is closely related to other key areas of personality research including learner helplessness and self-efficacy.

Conclusion

The quest for technological advancement and the consequential need for sound and effective science education have been identified in developing countries such as Nigeria. One of the major ways to attain this national desire is to ensure that chemistry as a core science subject is taught in such a way that students' interest in the subject will be sustained and the number of students who proceed to study chemistry at an advanced level is increased. The findings from the classroom experiment on integrating a systematic assessment procedure in chemistry teaching indicated that students achieve significantly better when such assessment is a part of the teaching learning process. It follows then that secondary school teachers and system evaluators in Nigeria be educated about what kinds of evaluation makes a difference with students and that teachers, in particular, be supported in using such evaluation procedures systematically. While much of the literature reviewed in this paper suggest that locus of control is also an important factor in academic achievement, the results of this study did not provide corroborating results for students in selected chemistry classes. In this study the main effect and interactive effect of locus of control was not as significant as the effect of systematic assessment alone. For further study, similar investigation can be designed for other senior secondary school subjects and especially the other science subjects: physics, biology and mathematics.

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