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A Challenged Teacher Education – Facts, Feelings, Formations

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A Challenged Teacher Education—Facts, Feelings, Formation

JISTE is an official, refereed publication of ISfTE. The goal of ISfTE 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 or have special themes. Points of view and opinions are those of the individual authors and are not necessarily those of ISfTE. Published manuscripts are the property of JISTE. Permission to reproduce must be requested from the editor.

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From the Secretary General

The 31st convening of ISFTE members in Kristiansand, Norway will be noted as one of our most significant (memorable) seminars as this society continues to prosper. Significant in that we are timely drawn together in the face of profound global concerns over a myriad of issues in teaching and teacher education such as academic testing and the role that assessment plays in pupils' experiences and learning. Significant in that complex concerns like these that shape schooling, policy development, and community engagement clearly require the necessary applied scholarly rigor from a variety of perspectives, disciplines, and cultural viewpoints as well as empirical modalities in order to discern informed guidelines and recommendations. Lastly, significant in that this setting is the beginning point of our march toward a new decade that has honored us with three prior decades of critical discourse to the enterprise of teacher education, teacher development, and student learning. Nordic values (Scandinavian in general), the least among them, equal opportunity for all to learn, the support and uplifting care for citizens and nationalistic pride, served as a perfect entre and umbrella for inquisitive scholars, new and established, from all walks of life to gather in this setting to introduce, deconstruct, and assert innovations around what these and other diverse ideas shape, influence, and inform who we are and what we believe. The conveners of this particular meeting extended great care and thought to the resulting perfect balance between inviting noted Nordic educational scholars to help frame these perspectives, from factoring the Sami indigenous thought and tradition to critical constructs toward ethical inclusion in education. In short, the articles in this edition of JISTE are all inspirations spun out of this program's rich discussions, reflections, and exchanges which promise to have a perennial presence in future seminars: a signature identity of this society.

Collegially yours,
Forrest C. Crawford

From the Editors

This issue of JISTE - the Journal of International Society for Teacher Education – is dedicated to publish articles based on presentations from the annual seminar of the International Society of Teacher Education, - ISfTE - held at the University of Agder, Kristianssand in Norway in May 2011. As the new editors of JISTE we hope that you as readers will find this issue of JISTE, dealing with aspects of formations, facts, and feelings in a challenged teacher education, interesting.

The theme of the 2011 seminar in Norway was *A Challenged Teacher Education: Facts, Feelings, Formation*. At the seminar in Norway educational researchers and scholars from all over the world participated and the articles published in this issue of JISTE represent only a few of the many presentations given. As editors, we are proud that the international and global character of the seminar is reflected in this issue. We are presenting articles written by authors from five different continents of the world: Africa, South America, Asia, Europe, and North America.

One of the convenors of the ISfTE seminar in Norway, Dean Birte Simonsen, University of Agder, Norway introduces the seminar and its theme. As many readers may remember only two months after the seminar Norway and the world witnessed the unfortunate incident of a one-man terror action where many young people were killed. Birte Simonsen reminds us that the values of the International Society of Teacher Education are important all over the world.

One of the keynote speakers at the seminar, Helene Illeris from Agder University, Norway, addressed aspects of the formation of a challenged teacher education. In her article *Aesthetic Learning Processes for the 21st Century: Epistemology, Didactics, Performance*, she introduces and discusses the history and theoretical development of a Scandinavian concept of aesthetic learning processes from a critical and constructivist perspective. She argues for the introduction of a third level, the performative level, able to challenge essentialist assumptions and render the concept of aesthetic learning processes more relevant for school and teacher education in a highly complex late modern reality.

Sarah K. Clark and Louise R. Moulding from Utah State University and Weber State University, USA, respectively, represented interesting facts about a challenged teacher education in their research about pre service teacher self-efficacy. In the article *Examining Pre-Service Teacher Self-Efficacy Beliefs across Programs: How Do Teacher Preparation Programs Compare?* they investigate the self-efficacy beliefs of 407 elementary pre-service teachers representing multiple teacher preparation programs in one western state of the U.S. Based on the findings the authors raise questions about how high feelings of self-efficacy need to be in order to provide the confidence beginning teachers need to succeed in a demanding profession and what additional factors influence pre-service teacher self-efficacy.

Not only facts but also feelings along with theoretical and philosophical reflections about aspects and challenges of teacher education in South Africa are outlined in the article *Freedom Of Learners As A Challenge For Teacher Educators In 21st Century Classrooms: The Case Of South Africa* written by the authors MJS Madise and LDM Lebeloane from the University of South Africa (UNISA). This article focuses on the challenges brought about by the right of freedom of learners to not only teachers but also to teacher educators in the 21st century classrooms in South Africa. Efforts made by teacher educators as proposed solutions to these challenges are discussed and suggestions and conclusions are drawn based on this.

The challenges of a collaborative work within teacher education using virtual communication tools across big geographical distances devoted to developing and enhancing intercultural and cross-cultural awareness and competence of teachers in both Taiwan and the United States are described in the article *East Meets West: A Virtual International Teacher Education Initiative Between Taiwan and the U.S.* written by the authors Roberta Lavine, James

Greenberg, and Julian Chen from the University of Maryland, U.S.A., and Kitty Kao and Yi Ti Lin from the Tamkang University in Taiwan. The paper reports on a virtual project in teacher education programs between the American and Taiwanese Universities.

In the article *Socio-Educational Profile Of The Municipal Teacher In The South Region Of Brazil* the authors Marta Luz Sisson de Castro, Magda Vianna de Souza, and Alessandra Vargas from the Pontifícia Universidade do Rio Grande do Sul (PUCRS) in Brazil address and discuss facts and findings from their research work about teacher recruitment and teacher education in rural areas of south Brazil. In light of national legislation in Brazil which requires teachers to obtain a higher education diploma in teacher education, a significant number of teachers (17%) do not hold that diploma. The researchers seek to understand the educational, socio-economical, and societal underpinnings of teachers in several municipalities in three southern states of Brazil: Rio Grande do Sul, Santa Catarina, and Paraná.

Important questions and findings about how teacher candidates can improve their professional skills and access information on their instructional performance through student evaluations is addressed in the article *The Role of Student Evaluations in Teacher Candidates' use of the Reflectivity Loop* by Melinda Alexander, Peggy Saunders, Forrest Crawford, and Linda Gowans, all from Weber State University, USA. The authors present a longitudinal research study conducted to determine whether teacher candidates in a pre-student teaching could analyze data gathered from student evaluations of teacher performance by reviewing the results using a reflectivity loop evaluation procedure. The authors conclude that teacher candidates, when educated in such kind of evaluation procedure, can translate it into their future teaching practice.

Entrepreneurship and the idea of learning and teaching entrepreneurship is a new challenge to teacher education in Norway. Attempts and experiences from Norwegian teacher education are reported in the article *Student Experiences of the Value of a Student Enterprise Programme* by the authors Ingebjørg Aarek and Anne Selvik Ask from University of Agder (UiA), Norway. Students in the area of food and health at the Department of Public Health, Sport, and Nutrition at UiA have, since 2003, been given the opportunity to start, run, and close down a student enterprise as part of their examination in one course in their 3rd or 4th year. The article reports on a study to identify how students value the experience.

The challenges of instructional technologies and social media are addressed in the article *Instructional Technologies and Social Media: First-Person Voices in Teacher Education* by Steve Willis and Josephine Agnew-Tally from Missouri State University in the U.S.A. The paper discusses videoconferencing that facilitates perceptual and cultural interactions between and among students and faculty from various locations. The project offers real time videoconferencing in classes with students and teachers/scholars by providing a portal for direct conversations with those who come from diverse backgrounds pursuing different educational experiences.

The last article in this edition of JISTE is a book review by Peneé Stewart from Weber State University, U.S.A. Viewed from her educational psychology background, she gives all teacher educators a reason to examine our assumptions and intuitions through the lens of the book: *The Invisible Gorilla and Other Ways Our Intuitions Deceive Us.* She suggests that before you read the book, you should go to this website, www.invisiblegorilla.com/videos.html, to test your skills in selective attention. Then, read the book so that you can see through these everyday illusions."

A final note:

We want to acknowledge and thank the former editor of JISTE, Sybil Wilson, Brock University, Canada, for the big work she has done during these past many years. Editing a journal is indeed a comprehensive and monumental work. Sybil mentored us throughout last year as she completed volume 15 and continued to be of great assistance as we took over the work with editing this issue of JISTE. We would not have

known what to do without her guidance. As new editors we intend to continue the high standards of work given to us by Sybil Wilson, other former editors, and the members of ISfTE.

With this issue of JISTE we have taken the advantage of the 21st century new technology in more than one sense. As editors we have first of all been using Internet meetings in order to cooperate and collaborate across time zones and geographical distances to prepare the journal. Secondly, we have made the transition to new technology by releasing JISTE 16.1 as a merely electronic issue. We will continue over the next few months to assure that JISTE is available through numerous national and international databases. If your country of origin has specific databases in which JISTE should be listed, please contact us.

We are looking forward to meeting teacher educators and researchers in Bhutan at the 32nd annual seminar of ISfTE in May 2012.

Karen Bjerg Petersen and Peggy J. Saunders

From the Norwegian hosts 2011:
Thank you for coming!

Some seminars ago, in Stirling, Scotland, it was decided that the 31st seminar of ISfTE should take place in Kristiansand, Norway. Since then we have been looking forward to host it. In the middle of May 2011, we had the pleasure to welcome around 60 participants from 14 different countries, arriving in a supportive mood and with many interesting papers in their luggage.

The theme of the seminar was, *"A Challenged Teacher Education: Facts, Feelings, Formation,"* which promised a variety of perspectives and the possibility for comparison. Among the strands were:

- Research in and on teacher education
- Global perspectives
- Indigenous and minority education
- Evidence and evaluation
- Learning and motivation
- Teacher education for the future.

And in a true ISfTE spirit, the highest number of paper came in the last group. ISfTE members really want to point out the future needs in teacher education.

Again it was demonstrated that working in seminar groups is the true heart of ISfTE. There were a lot of interesting discussions, warm helpfulness, and good ideas coming up, and the group results were shown in impressing ways the last day. I hope this mutual learning experience inspires our work with student teachers.

Early in the planning process we decided that the keynote speakers should frame what we called "a Nordic dimension." We invited colleagues from Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. The Vice president of the Sami Parliament, Laila Susanne Vars, gave an overview of the educational situation for the Sami People. Bengt Persson, Swedish professor, is a specialist of inclusion. The Danish professor (who works in Agder), Helene Illeris, reminded us on how important the creative dimension is, and Anne Lise Arnesen, professor in Østfold, Norway, demonstrated the need for real presence of the teacher. As a part of the presentation of this Nordic dimension, the participants visited different schools and kindergartens. Because we also had included the Norwegian Constitutional day, 17 May, in the conference week, the participants got an extra cultural event.

Two months after the seminar, 22 July, Norway was shocked by a horrible one-man terror action were a lot of young people were killed. The whole country has been in a state of sorrow, and the politicians have decided that this shall not change the openness of the society. Let us hope that we will succeed. Many ISfTE members sent condolences to us in this hard period, thank you so much for your support. It reminds us that the values of ISfTE are important all over the world. At last it is time to say: Good luck to our colleagues in Bhutan, hope to see a lot of you there!

On behalf of the Agder committee,
Birte Simonsen, Convener

AESTHETIC LEARNING PROCESSES FOR THE 21ST CENTURY: EPISTEMOLOGY, DIDACTICS, PERFORMANCE

Helene Illeris
University of Agder, Norway

Abstract: *The article introduces and analyzes the Scandinavian concept of* aesthetic learning processes *from a critical and constructivist perspective. After a short introduction to the use of the concept of aesthetics in international educational discourses, the article focuses on a classical text on aesthetic leaning processes within Danish art teacher education titled* Perspectives on Aesthetic Learning Processes *(1996). The author discusses how this text, together with the Danish curriculum for visual arts education, has defined aesthetic learning processes on two different levels: the epistemological level and the didactic level. In the second part of the article the author employs the culture theoretical and social constructivist concepts of* subjectivation, positioning, *and* performance *to argue for the introduction of a third level, the performative level, able to challenge essentialist assumptions and render the concept of aesthetic learning processes more relevant for school and teacher education in a highly complex late modern reality.*

Keywords: aesthetic learning processes, visual arts, art education, art teacher education, constructivism

Introduction: Aesthetics and Education

Within the international field of education the concept of aesthetics has played an important role during the last two centuries. The term was first coined in its modern use by German idealist philosophers like Baumgarten, Kant, Schiller, and Hegel at the end of the 18th century (Beardsley, 1966). In 1790 Immanuel Kant (1790/2007) famously defined aesthetics as an autonomous form of cognition where the subject, while judging something as beautiful, would experience a free and pleasurable play of his cognitive faculties. Thirty years later, in his lectures on aesthetics held in Berlin, G.W.F. Hegel (1835/2004) specifically related aesthetics to human experience of *art*, and he gave this experience a crucial task, not only for cognitive pleasure as such, but for man's dialectical movement towards pure spirit. In this sense, for Hegel, aesthetic experience was not an end in itself; it was a crucial part of man's becoming human – of *Bildung.*

The dissonance between Kant and Hegel can be understood as the difference between two fundamentally different roles of the aesthetic in human cognition: While Kant conceived aesthetics as an independently existing form of rationality, namely the disinterested judgement of beauty, Hegel conceived aesthetics as a dialectical, experiential, and developmental process of exchange between "the I" and "the other," where the other was represented by the art work. Generally speaking this division can be re-found in philosophical aesthetics of the following centuries. According to the American philosopher Richard Shusterman (2000), the two most important currents of Anglo-American aesthetics during the 20th century have adopted positions that go back to German idealism: Following the line of critique initiated by Kant, the current of *analytic aesthetics* sees as its goal to deconstruct the components of the aesthetic experience as a unique form of cognition related to art and beauty, while *pragmatist aesthetics*, more in line with Hegel, sees as its goal to understand how aesthetic experience can improve quality of life.

While, according to Shusterman, analytic aesthetics has dominated Anglo-American philosophical aesthetics during the last century, one would think that for educational researchers, pragmatist aesthetics, exploring aesthetic experience as a form of Bildung would be preferred. Nevertheless if we turn to the actual situation within the Anglo-American field of arts education, the question seems to be ambiguous: At one hand art educational research in what has been defined as *aesthetic education* seems in line with pragmatist aesthetics when for example one of the most important researchers in the field,

Greene (2001), defines it as "...an intentional undertaking designed to nurture appreciative, reflective, cultural, participatory engagements with the arts" (p. 6). At the other hand in the more specific field of *visual arts education*, an analytic notion of aesthetics, focused on the production and reception of pure form seems to dominate. Tavin (2007) explains how formalist notions of aesthetics, focusing on line, shape, color, texture, composition etc. have become dominating in visual arts education, and he concludes: "This position reifies a gap between art and life, and promotes, however unintended, an ahistorical and apolitical perspective" (p. 42).

The Scandinavian Educational Context *Aesthetic Learning Processes* as a Key Concept

According to Tavin (2007), Anglo-American researchers in art education are familiar with terms such as "aesthetic consciousness," "aesthetic processes," and "aesthetic modes of knowing," the concept *aesthetic learning processes* has specifically been developed within Scandinavian educational research, and it has had a significant impact both on educational research and on the current curriculum of art education in Danish schools and teacher education. The aim in the following sections will be firstly to introduce and problematize the Scandinavian concept of aesthetic learning processes, and secondly to argue for new approaches to aesthetic learning processes through the introduction a new approach: *the level of performance*[1].

In the early 1990s the idea of aesthetics as a learning and knowledge oriented dimension was developed by a number of Scandinavian scholars of education (cf. e.g. Hohr, 1992; Løvlie, 1990; Schou, 1990). Later in the decade, the specific term aesthetic learning processes was adopted within the field of education both as a pedagogical concept and as an area of research. In visual arts education the term was consciously used to indicate a break with the child-centred approaches prevalent in the 1960s and '70s where the pupils' undisturbed creative processes were seen as central to their cognitive and emotional growth. Together with critical educational theory, the introduction of aesthetics as a theory of learning, instead of a theory of art, contributed to create a regular paradigm shift towards a more knowledge oriented approach to art education related to experiential, process-oriented forms of cognition.

During the same period, the concept of aesthetics was also given new meaning in the school. Between the 1960s and the 1980s Scandinavian schools had experienced an increasing divide between "soft", "creative" subjects such as music, woodwork and creative form, and the more traditionally oriented "hard" subjects of arts and science. To deal with this problem, several initiatives were taken to heighten the status of these subjects. In Denmark, with the 1991 national teaching directions, the former child-centred subject *Formning* (creative form) was substituted by the critical and knowledge-oriented subject *Billedkunst* (visual arts), and a few years later the *aesthetic dimension* was introduced in the school's general purpose as an educational and cognitive aspect to be considered in all of the schools' curriculum.

In teacher education the introduction of aesthetic learning processes both as research area and as a relevant dimension for all school subjects has resulted in the publication of a number of Scandinavian texts aimed at becoming teachers (Austring & Sørensen, 2006; Lindstrand & Selander, 2009; Nielsen & Fink-Jensen, 2009). A precursor for these texts was a small Danish book by Hohr & Pedersen (1996) called *Perspektiver på æstetiske læreprocesser* (Perspectives on Aesthetic Learning Processes).

Perspectives on Aesthetic Learning Processes

Perspektiver på æstetiske læreprocesser (1996) was written by Hansjörg Hohr, a Norwegian professor of education, and Kristian Pedersen, then associate professor at the Royal Danish School of Educational Studies. In Scandinavia the text was the first to offer a comprehensive

[1] The main arguments in this article are based on Illeris (2006, 2009).

presentation of the term "aesthetic learning processes," and today it is referred to as "a minor classic" within Danish teacher education (Lindström, 2009, p. 61).

The book is divided into two parts: In the first chapter, "Aesthetics as a Form of Knowledge," Hohr presents a theory of aesthetic cognition that was developed through an extended period of research (cf. e.g. Hohr, 1992). In this article I refer to this theory as *the epistemological level*. In the following two chapters, written by Pedersen, Hohr's theory is specifically related to pictorial activity. I refer to this part and its consequences within Danish school and teacher education as *the didactic level*.

The Epistemological Level

Hohr begins his chapter with an abandonment of the kind of pedagogical theory that creates divisions of human knowledge into artificial boxes. Not unlike Shusterman's critique of analytic aesthetics, Hohr believes that "the prevailing view on aesthetics" separates thoughts from feelings, in that "positive" values such as rationality, language, objectivity, and analysis are ascribed to *thought* whereas "negative" values such as irrationality, form, subjectivity, and intuition are ascribed to *feeling* (p.15).

With a basis in Lorenzer's (1972) socialisation theory and Langer's (1970) symbol theory, Hohr then develops a more precise theory of aesthetic cognition based on clarifications of the three concepts feeling, analysis, and experience. Feeling is defined as a pre-symbolic form of cognition associated with sense based activities and operations. According to Hohr (1992), a feeling is not a biological but a cultural category based on interaction between the cognising person and the surrounding society. The opposite form of cognition, analysis, Hohr connects to a discursive symbolism which "involves a cognition which dissolves a situation into its components and constitutes a world of individual phenomena" (p. 19). Through analysis we create the outlook that is necessary to be able to organise the world for ourselves and others. Experience is a third form of cognition that is especially related to aesthetic cognition. Inspired by German idealist philosopher, Schiller (1793/2004),[2] Hohr believes that the special characteristic of aesthetics is that it is a way of interacting with the world which can bind together the two separated parts, feeling and analysis:

> *People must be able to experience themselves as separated* from the world *in order to act purposefully in relation to it. But it is just as important that they can experience themselves as* part of this world. *That is necessary for life to have meaning – and for action not ending up in self-effacement. Therefore ability for experience is vital. Experience attends to this simultaneity of belonging, being part of and being separated from the world.* (p. 25, italics in the original)

Surprisingly though, Hohr delimitates aesthetic learning processes to the production and reception of artistic forms of expression. He defines experience as "a *symbolically communicated form of cognition* formulated through *form work*" (p. 20, italics in the original), where "form work" implies "created and intentional form," including, for example: design, play, ritual, dance, song, music, painting, film, theatre, and literature (p. 23). More in line with analytic aesthetics than with pragmatism, to Hohr some processes of cognition, namely those based on the reception and production of pictures based on "clichés" and "seduction", such as commercial pictures etc., cannot give rise to aesthetic learning processes (p. 32). Like in Greene's earlier mentioned definition of aesthetic education, aesthetic learning processes remain bound to a limited number of symbolic forms, i.e. those related to the arts, while experiences with a range other cultural products are excluded.

[2] Since then Hohr has written a series of articles on Schiller's educational view of aesthetics, cf. e.g. Hohr 2002.

EPISTEMOLOGICAL LEVEL				
feeling pre-symbolic cognition	→	experience cognition through symbolic forms	←	analysis cognition through discourse

Figure 1. Experience ties feeling and analysis together.

Schematically the epistemological level of the illustrated theory of aesthetic learning processes can be as in Figure 1. The arrows denote that experience as a form of cognition ties feeling and analysis together.

The Didactic Level

The book's remaining chapters are written by Pedersen and deal with pictorial activities as aesthetic learning processes (Hohr & Petersen, 1996). Here Hohr's epistemological theory is made concrete in relation to the curriculum of visual arts, in that pictures are viewed as one way in which people mediate their experiences through symbolic forms. Pedersen describes production and reception of pictures as a tool "...to be able to concretise an equivocal, complex and subtle reality which can deal with cognition of the sensory life's complex relations to the inner and outer reality" (p. 62). Whereas Hohr views all three forms of cognition as culturally determined forms of interaction, Pedersen considers the work with sensory symbols a mediation form *between* people and culture, arguing for the necessary connection between aesthetic learning processes and picture production.

In a later publication, Pedersen (1999) connects different forms of cognition with didactic progression in teaching by saying that while *feeling* is connected to "...bodily, visual and other sensory contact with the outer and inner worlds," *experience* is to be "...stimulated via the experience of aesthetic works – or by being stimulated via the creation of works." Finally, according to Pedersen, it is the task of *analysis* "...to arrive at analytic knowledge about what is going on in pictorial production" (p. 14).

This interpretation has had a huge impact both on the Danish teaching directions for visual arts and consequently on Danish training of becoming art teachers. In fact, the idea of a didactic progression from sensation over pictorial production to discursive communication has become a standard method for how to conduct visual arts education at all levels. The directions of the Danish Ministry of Education (2009) recommend that a teaching sequence in visual arts is begun by selecting a theme with a basis in the students' "needs, experiences, interests, feelings and attitudes" (p. 28). At the same time though, direct sensation is accorded a privileged role: "The directly sensed, which the students make their own and which they can retain in their mind's eye, first and foremost provides the basis for the choice of content in the pictorial production" (p. 29). The next step in the teaching sequence is the students' own pictorial production. Here a number of styles, techniques, and genres are described that could be employed in translating the pupils' sensations into pictures to express the chosen theme. Finally the directions conclude with a paragraph on "picture conversation" in which the discursive approach is emphasised through an analysis model which can be used when discussing finished visual products with the students (p. 33).

Although many new elements have been introduced in 2009, directions, including a number of fields inspired by contemporary art, the fundamental parallelism between Hohr's categories of cognition and the three phases that the pupils must go through when dealing with a theme-based task is quite clear: Hohr's concept of feeling is translated into a first step focusing on direct sensation through contact with inner and outer realities. Hohr's concept of experience is related to the central task of the pupils, namely production of own pictures, and finally the concept of analysis is used to argue for the

importance of ending the teaching session with verbal picture analytical explorations.

EPISTEMOLOGICAL LEVEL				
feeling pre-symbolic cognition	→	experience cognition through symbolic forms	←	analysis cognition through discourse
DIDACTIC LEVEL				
sensation direct contact with inner and outer realities	→	practice individual picture production	→	reflection investigations through picture analysis

Figure 2. Epistemological concepts translated into a linear didactic progression.

Thus at the didactic level the epistemological concepts, where experience occupied the central position, translated into a linear didactic progression as shown in Figure 2.

Aesthetic Learning Processes –
A Critical Discussion

Hohr and Pedersen's (1996) theory of aesthetic learning processes has played, and is still playing, a central role in Danish and Scandinavian teacher education, especially within visual arts education. Together with critical theories of education it has functioned as a theoretical scaffold for the consolidation of the pedagogy, where theme-based, project-oriented education has been tightly connected to experiential forms of learning. In this sense the theory of aesthetic learning processes follows the tradition of pragmatist aesthetics where aesthetic experience is seen as a process that contributes significantly to the pupils' knowledge construction and Bildung.

Nevertheless I also think that the concept of aesthetic learning processes as presented by Hohr and Pedersen and their many Scandinavian followers needs a critical review. In short my main critique regards the following three points:

1. As I have tempted to show in the previous section, the slide from an epistemological theory via a theory of didactic progression to ministerial directions for concrete teaching practice has happened without any critical debate over how central concepts such as *sensation* and *reflection* should be understood differently in the various contexts.

2. Hohr's connection of experience and symbolic form becomes problematic, when *symbolic form* is limited to traditional categories of the arts, thus excluding other forms of visual, material, and textual culture like commercial products, even if these symbolic forms give rise to important parts of children's and young people's daily aesthetic experiences.

3. As I will discuss further in the following section, the premises of the theory, namely that it is possible to distinguish between *unmediated*, *symbolically mediated*, and *analytic* forms of cognition, leans upon some problematic assumptions. In fact from the constructivist perspective that I will adopt, *all* human experiences are culturally and socially mediated – even when the mediation consists in constructing or performing direct contact. In other words the understanding of the pre-symbolic level as unmediated experiences of inner and outer realities, for example through experiences of nature, is a poorly reflected universalized and essentialist assumption, as is the idea of picture production as *representation* or *expression* of such unmediated experiences (Illeris, 2002, 2009).

Challenges for the 21st Century

I shall now attempt to deepen my critique at a practical level by exemplifying some of the challenges that art education faces at the

beginning of the twenty-first century. My basic idea will be that the epistemological as well as the didactic level should be supplemented or even substituted by *a performative level* where the learners' strategic choices of relation forms are considered an active part of the learning processes.

I will present three concepts that I believe may explicate the new challenges of the theory of aesthetic learning processes: The term *subjectivation*, employed by German youth researcher Ziehe (1989, 2004); the term *positioning* as it is developed within social constructivist psychology; and the term *performance* as a pedagogical example of a type of picture production that might enable a connection between subjectivation and positioning.

Subjectivation

In his writings, Ziehe (1989, 2004) refers to today's young people as culturally liberated because, unlike previous generations, they have the possibility of choosing between a wealth of role models (lifestyles, jobs, sexuality, taste, identities etc.). On a psychological level, according to Ziehe, the liberation has contributed to the 1980s and 1990s seeing a development in new forms of consciousness among young people in Western cultures. These forms of consciousness shows through a firm conviction that differences between people are due to personality rather than structurally determined social differences. Whereas older generations view differences between people as governed by a number of social factors that can be changed through political means, young people first and foremost think about being true to themselves in what they do. If things do not feel right, they do not wish to participate. Ziehe (2004) even goes so far as to writing that to many people in our culture "the inner world is actually the only real world. And everything else is more or less something they feel is forced on them" (p. 69).

Ziehe employs the term subjectivation to define the increased tendency in young people to allow their own preferences for interpretation and sensation to dominate their interaction forms in all spheres of life (cf. e.g. 2004, p.65ff. and p.157ff.).[3] I believe that this subjectivation tendency can have negative consequences when translating Hohr and Pedersen's theory of aesthetic learning processes to a didactic practice: When subjectivation is inserted as a filter between the young person and their surroundings, in practice feeling, understood as immediate and pre-symbolic sensation of the world, is overlain by the question of immediate personal relevance. The question "Does this appeal to *me*?" overshadows the feeling of being in open contact with reality so to speak, challenging the essentialist didactic claim about unmediated sense based interaction as the basis for picture production.

Positioning

As an educational response to young people's subjectivising self-centredness, Ziehe appeals for "decentring", understood as the possibility of stepping out of "oneself". He describes the meaning of decentring like this:

> It means that I can learn that it is a pleasure not to be the same identity all the time. It can mean that my conversion to other states of myself becomes something I not only accept but even seek out. It is a conception of learning choice of self and not to be locked into one perception of identity. (Ziehe, 2004, pp.78-79)

Employing a similar line of thought about learning to escape once fixed identity notions, constructivist inspired cultural psychologists are working with the concept positioning. Unlike the more closed role term used by the sociologist Goffman (1959), the positioning concept

[3] Ziehe's definition of the term "subjectivation" is markedly different from the one used in the Foucauldian, discursive theoretical tradition as continued by, among others, the Danish psychologist Dorte Marie Søndergaard. In Ziehe subjectivation, as evident from my delineation, is an empirical term employed to describe young people's sensorily based orientation towards self-centredness whereas in Søndergaard, (2003, p. 34) it is a theoretical term defined as "the subject's simultaneous submission and coming into existence (recognition, identity, action and orientation) through discursive incorporation".

emphasizes that these are relationally determined possibilities. One can only position oneself, and be positioned, in a concrete situation and in relation to other positions. Moreover, positions can change within the same situation too. A dominant position can be challenged by others, or one can change one's own position. In this way positions are social products to be played with, without constantly wondering whether what one does or says is in harmony with "oneself" (cf. e.g. Davies and Harre, 1990).

As a pedagogical concept, positioning is about getting and giving possibilities of experiencing the possibility to act that can challenge the sides of subjectivation that lock the learners into a limiting self-centredness (Illeris 2005, 2009, 2010). In order to be able to position oneself actively in new ways, however, in Hohr's words it is necessary to be able to experience oneself as separated from this world, for example, by being able discursively or in other ways to characterise and judge positioning possibilities.

However, positioning oneself deliberately takes more than reflection; you have to somehow try it out, to it. This means that positioning only partly can be connected with the previous model's terms of analysis and reflection. On the performative level one does not attempt to think or analyse one's way to a cognition or truth about a representation, but rather to work with an active construction of identity and action forms as a presentation of possible realities. On the didactic level, for instance, one might imagine that picture analysis as reflection activity is replaced by strategic experiments where the question "What is the meaning expressed by this work?" is replaced by the questions "How can I act in relation to this? Which positioning possibilities does this construct?"

Performance

Another manner of challenging the subjectivation demand in an art educational context can be derived from the art field itself. Unlike the traditional concept of artwork usually employed in the teaching of visual arts (or in aesthetic theory for that matter), within contemporary art the fixed casting of roles characteristic of modern art has long been in the process of being dismantled. As opposed to the notion of the artwork as an self-contained entity, an object that on the one hand is an expression of a genius and on the other can be decoded and understood through the viewer's empathy, interpretation, and critique, since the 1970s many artists have worked within a so-called *relational aesthetics* in which the work's principal role is not to be or to show but to stage relations (Bourriaud, 2002; Illeris 2005, 2010). The viewer is replaced by the participant, and the work deliberately attempts to challenge the participant's intuitive normality perception through staging new forms of engagement. In encountering these works, the key is not passive empathy but to actively create relations. One must do something, one must choose. Through various forms of performative stagings, the relation aesthetics opens rooms for different and creative positionings than the roles we know from modern art and the school's traditional visual arts teaching.

As an example of how the inspiration from relational aesthetics can be used in concrete teaching practice, in a museum education project for 14-15 year old pupils, I have substituted the usual tasks related to subjective feeling and/or objective picture analysis with a task that said, "Pick a work of art that you would like to be photographed with, and decide *how* you wish to be photographed with it." The pupils subsequently got up one at a time and performed their relation to the work before a camera. The product in the form of one or more photos then formed the basis for discussions of the work's way of relating to the viewer, as well as for concrete studio work (Illeris, 2004).

In a process like this, both subjectivation and distanced analysis are replaced by a concrete, performative action that exceeds the personal stand on whether and why this artwork "speaks to me," "is good art," or has "meaning." Instead these types of questions are placed at a later time, that is to say when the students continue working with the symbolic form of the photograph of their own positioning, understood

as a new, performatively oriented work. A more radical possibility for continued work in this type of programme could be in a subsequent *decentredness* through testing each other's positions in relation to the work or in a visual testing of classic positions, for example, the art connoisseur, ordinary museum visitor, man, woman etc.

Through teaching sequences like this, a performative approach to aesthetic learning processes challenges the divide between sensation, practice, and reflection and separate forms of cognition and learning. Through active positioning as didactic strategy, a double gaze is employed in which one both senses, acts, and sees oneself act. Perceives, chooses and sees oneself choose. With this the traditional discursive interpretation and decoding of an expression is abandoned in favour of an active, visual, and discursive construction and testing of positioning possibilities (Illeris, 2009).

Aesthetic Learning Processes: The Performative Level

From my point of view, the concept of aesthetic learning processes has been extremely important to Scandinavian teacher education because it has provided experiential, sense based, symbolic processes such as picture production with a consistent, knowledge oriented theory of learning and cognition. Without this theory, the *aesthetic subjects* might still be considered as soft pauses with no real learning outcome. Furthermore the theory has contributed to the introduction of the idea of an aesthetic dimension of all school subjects.

On the other hand, a negative consequence of the theory is that it has contributed to reproduce modernist and essentialist conceptions of the self as an inner core, able of a direct, unmediated contact with reality that it can express more or less on demand through some kind of representative, symbolic form. To avoid this conception that I have argued, does not meet the challenges of the 21st century. In the last section of this article I have introduced the constructivist concepts of subjectivation, positioning, and performance indicating alternative, consciously constructed patterns of action that challenges and eventually changes these presumptions.

I shall end this text by placing the terms subjectivation, positioning, and performance as a third level in the model: The performative level. This level is conceived as a suggestion as to how contemporary theories on culture, identity, and art can be used to perspectivise and challenge the essentialist terms which at present dominate the conceptions of aesthetic learning processes in school and teacher education. My hope is that the model may encourage teachers to use the learning possibilities that actually relate to a late modern reality characterised by cultural liberation and the consciousness forms and positioning possibilities that this entails.

In the illustration of the performative level within Figure 3 below, I have chosen to have the arrows pointing outwards to suggest that pedagogical work with different forms of staging of relational possibilities potentially can engender processes that satisfy both the need to relate to oneself and the need to break the subjectivation through testing positioning strategies. Of course this is rather ambitious and will require tests with experimental programmes in long-term developmental projects. None the less I have a reasonable hope that a part of what is already happening in Danish and Scandinavian teacher education related to aesthetic subjects to a certain extent incorporates aspects from the performative level and that future practice related pedagogical research in the area may just as well be a question of describing and qualifying these processes as changing pedagogical practice from the bottom up.

EPISTEMOLOGICAL LEVEL				
feeling pre-symbolic cognition	→	experience cognition through symbolic forms	←	analysis cognition through discourse
DIDACTIC LEVEL				
sensation direct contact with inner and outer realities	→	practice individual picture production	→	reflection investigations through picture analysis
PERFORMATIVE LEVEL				
subjectivation to find oneself	←	performance to stage possible relationships	→	positioning to elaborate strategies

Figure 3. Comparison of all three levels: Epistemological, Didactic, and Performative.

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EXAMINING PRE-SERVICE TEACHER SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS ACROSS PROGRAMS: HOW DO TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS COMPARE?

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Abstract**:** *This study investigated the self-efficacy beliefs of 407 elementary pre-service teachers representing multiple teacher preparation programs in one western state of the U.S. Results demonstrated that participants from all programs reported similarly high levels of self- efficacy, and for the most part, pre-service teachers did not vary significantly in their self-efficacy beliefs based on the program they attended. The exception to this finding was that participants from one of the six preparation programs reported significantly higher self-efficacy scores than participants from another program. These findings raised questions about how high feelings of self-efficacy need to be in order to provide the confidence beginning teachers need to succeed in a demanding profession and what additional factors influence pre-service teacher self-efficacy. Suggestions are made to extend the research base in order to improve our understanding of what teacher preparation programs can do to increase teacher self-efficacy.*

Keywords: teacher beliefs, teacher self-efficacy, teacher preparation

Introduction

As demand for teachers who can improve student achievement continues to increase (U.S. Department of Education, 2002), teacher preparation programs (TPPs) are experiencing greater scrutiny regarding their ability to produce highly effective teachers. While measures of content and pedagogical knowledge at one time seemed to be adequate measures of teacher quality, compelling evidence suggests that the beliefs teachers hold regarding their ability to teach have a direct and commanding influence on teaching effectiveness (Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008).

Researchers have long studied how personal beliefs influence decisions that teachers make (Bandura, 1986; Dewey, 1933; Nisbett & Ross, 1980). Kagan (1990) described teacher beliefs as the "…highly personal ways in which a teacher understands classrooms, students, the nature of learning, the teacher's role in the classroom, and the goals of education" (p. 423). A growing body of empirical evidence supports Bandura's (1997) theory that a teacher's sense of efficacy is related to how much effort a teacher will put into his or her classroom, the types of goals set, and the persistence and resilience exhibited when faced with the inevitable demands inherent in teaching. High self-efficacy beliefs regarding one's ability to teach well can be a great boon to teachers and students. For example, teachers with high self-efficacy demonstrate greater competence, appear more organized, possess greater enthusiasm (Allinder, 1994), and are more willing to try new methods (Guskey, 1988; Stein & Wang, 1988). Teachers with high efficacy are also less critical of students who make mistakes (Ashton & Webb, 1986), persevere in helping students that struggle (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) and attend more closely to the needs of low performing students (Ashton, Webb, & Doda, 1983).

As researchers, we wondered about the levels of self-efficacy exhibited by pre-service teachers at the conclusion of their teacher training. Woolfolk Hoy and Burke Spero (2005) were the first to track pre-service teachers as they moved through their TPP and asserted that teacher self-efficacy increases as pre-service teachers' progress from the beginning of their program to the end, yet all of the participants in the study attended the same TPP. Would there be significant differences in self-efficacy based on the TPP a teacher attended? What differences in the way TPPs are structured might influence feelings of self-efficacy?

The purpose of this exploratory study was to examine more closely the teacher self-efficacy beliefs of elementary teacher candidates at the conclusion of teacher training to determine if differences in self-efficacy by program do indeed exist. Understanding more about the influence that differing TPPs have in building and developing strong efficacy beliefs in teacher candidates is one way to learn more about which experiences at the pre-service level contribute to elementary school teachers with strong self-efficacy. In the following review of literature, we first examine the theoretical framework of teacher self-efficacy and then consider the research literature available on teacher self-efficacy in the pre-service teacher context.

Literature Review

Since the RAND Corporation study (Armor et al., 1976) of more than thirty years ago, researchers have continued to demonstrate that a teacher's sense of efficacy is one of few teacher characteristics related to student achievement. Centered within his theory of social cognition, Bandura (1977, 1997) explained that the construct of self-efficacy does not refer to one's actual ability to do something, but rather the perception one has about his or her ability to complete a task. From this construct of self-efficacy, the term teacher self-efficacy emerged. Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy (1998) defined teacher self-efficacy as a teacher's belief in his or her ability to "organize and execute courses of action required to accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context" (p. 233). Tschannen-Moran et al. explained that the higher the sense of efficacy a teacher experiences, the more likely he or she will experience success in increasing student achievement.

Teacher Self-Efficacy in the Pre-service Context. The general consensus of research examining pre-service teachers internationally is that teacher self-efficacy increases after teacher training experiences. In the United States, for example, Wenner (2001) and Woolfolk Hoy and Burke Spero (2005) concluded that teacher self-efficacy increased in pre-service teachers from the beginning of the TPP to the end. The student teaching experience itself has been shown to influence pre-service teacher self-efficacy. Hoy and Woolfolk (1990), Spector (1990), and Fives, Hamman, and Olivárez (2007) all found that teacher self-efficacy beliefs increased in student teachers from the beginning of their student teaching assignment to the end, further suggesting that hands-on field-based experiences have a positive influence on self-efficacy.

Furthermore, the context in which the student teaching assignment is completed does not seem to affect these increases in self-efficacy. Knoblauch and Woolfolk Hoy (2008) reported that pre-service teacher self-efficacy beliefs increased from the beginning of student teaching to the end for student teachers regardless of where their student teaching assignment was located (student teaching assignments were in rural, urban, and suburban school districts). Fortman and Pontius (2000) likewise examined the self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers who were assigned to student teach in suburban schools and found a statistically significant gain in self-efficacy beliefs at the conclusion of student teaching.

These findings have been mirrored in studies conducted in other countries as well. Housego (1992) in Canada tested pre-service teachers on four occasions over the course of a year and found that pre-service teacher self-efficacy increased with experience. Gorrell & Hwang (1995) in Korea noted an increase in personal teacher efficacy beliefs from beginning to end of the teacher education program, while Liaw (2009) in Taiwan reported that self-efficacy scores for pre-service teachers increased when student teaching assignments were completed in conjunction with guided practice and group discussions. Not all researchers, however, have reported the same results regarding pre-service teacher self-efficacy. Some researchers saw no changes in self-efficacy or saw a decline in self-efficacy for pre-service teachers in Israel (Romi & Daniel, 1999), in Taiwan (Lin & Gorrell, 2001), and in the United States (Parameswaran, 1998; Plourde, 2002).

The findings from the majority of research studies in this review of literature support the notion that pre-service teacher self-efficacy increases as students complete their student teaching assignment and participate in teacher training activities. The current study sought to examine the self-efficacy of pre-service teachers who represent multiple TPPs within the same policy context to determine if there are significant differences in self-efficacy based on program. The research question used in this study was: *To what extent do pre-service teacher self-efficacy beliefs vary by teacher preparation program within one state (in the United States)*?

Because all of the pre-service teachers attending traditional TPPs complete some form of student teaching, it was hypothesized that self-efficacy scores would resemble those found in previous studies of pre-service teachers at the conclusion of their student teaching assignment and be relatively high as a collective group. However, due to the differences in how student teaching experiences are structured across TPPs, it was expected that there would be some variation in self-efficacy scores across programs.

Method

Participants and Setting

The sample for this study consisted of elementary teacher education graduates for the 2009-2010 academic year (N=409) within a western state in the United States. Participants in this study constituted 57% of the teacher candidates graduating from institutions within this western state during one academic year. The participants in the sample were overwhelmingly female (93% female, 7% male), white (97% White, 2.4% Hispanic, 0.7% American Indian or Alaskan native, 0.2% Asian, 0.2% Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander), and predominantly between the ages of eighteen and thirty years old (15% 18-21 years, 54% 22-25 years, 13% 26-30 years, 10% 31-40 years, 6.7% 41- 55 years old).

Each TPP included in this analysis is a four-year undergraduate program with the last two years of the undergraduate degree focused on teacher preparation courses and field experiences. Teacher candidates from all programs were recommended for a teaching license through the same State Office of Education, and each program responds to the same state regulations governing teacher preparation, thus allowing for an analysis of teacher efficacy beliefs across multiple programs within a single state context. The TPPs requested anonymity in this research and will be referred to as Program A (N=84; 21% of sample), Program B (N=21; 5% of sample), Program C (N = 73; 18% of sample), Program D (N=88; 22% of sample), Program E (N=97; 24% of sample), and Program F (N=46, 11% of sample) throughout the remainder of this article.

TPPs included in this analysis would resemble a description of traditional TPPs in the United States. Pre-service teachers from each TPP complete coursework, a field-based practicum experience, and a culminating student teaching experience. Table 1 provides a brief description of each TPP included in this sample to demonstrate differences in how programs are structured. The minimum grade point average (GPA) required for entrance to the TPP (an indication of former success in a classroom setting), the number of practicum hours required (practicum hours are above and beyond those completed during student teaching), the number of student teaching placements (two placements indicates an early elementary and upper elementary placement), and the duration of student teaching placement are provided for each TPP. Program components were gathered from TPP websites and conversations with program personnel.

Table 1
Teacher Preparation Program Descriptions

Program	Minimum GPA	Fieldwork/Practicum (Hours)	Number of Student Teaching Placements	Duration of Student Teaching (Weeks)
A	2.85	140	1	16-20
B	2.75	250	1	10
C	2.50	150	1	12
D	2.75	185	2	14
E	3.00	175	1	10
F	2.75	150	2	14

Instrumentation

The instrument used in this study was the short form of the *Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale* (TSES) designed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001). The TSES consists of three subscales based on a total of 12 questions. The subscales are: (a) efficacy for instructional strategies, (b) efficacy for student engagement, and (c) efficacy for classroom management. An example of an instructional strategies item is: "To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?" An example of a student engagement item is: "How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?" An example of a classroom management item is: "How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?" Participants responded to each item on a 9-point Likert scale with 1 corresponding to "nothing" and 9 corresponding to "a great deal." The higher score on the efficacy scale is equated with a higher sense of efficacy beliefs. The scale mean was 94.64 (SD=9.16) with a range of 62 to 108. The alpha-coefficient for the scale was .92 indicating there was a strong correlation among all the items on the subscale. The same alpha-coefficient was obtained by Woolfolk Hoy and Burke Spero (2005).

Pre-service teachers were administered the TSES when they had finished their student teaching assignment and had concluded their teacher training. Participants were provided with information on how to complete the instruments and were asked to provide background information related to race, gender, and age. The independent variable was the TPP attended and the dependent variable was the TSES scores of pre-service teachers included in this sample.

Results

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were significant differences between self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers representing six different TPPs. The results suggested that there were significant differences among the TPPs [F (5,397) = 3.07, p = .010]. See Table 2 for group means, standard deviations, and confidence intervals. A Tukey HSD post hoc test was employed to determine where these significant differences between groups were occurring. For the majority of the TPPs included in this study, there was not a significant difference in the self-efficacy scores of pre-service teachers at the conclusion of their TPP. One program (Program C) reported significantly higher scores on the TSES than pre-service teachers from Program D (see Table 3). Program C reported the highest self-efficacy scores and Program D reported the lowest self-efficacy scores. The partial eta squared effect size measure for this finding was very large (Partial $\eta^2 = .37$). Cohen's (1988) guidelines for interpreting the magnitude of partial eta squared effect sizes are the following: "small" = .01, "medium" = .06, and "large" = .15. These findings indicate that pre-service teachers graduating from traditional TPPs across the same state and responding to the same policy context, report similar self-efficacy beliefs. The only exception to this finding was the difference between two programs.

Table 2
Means, Standard Deviations, and Confidence Intervals for the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale

			Standard	95% Confidence Interval	
Program	N	Mean	Deviation	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
A	84	93.1	8.6	91.19	94.95
B	21	94.8	9.3	90.51	99.00
C	73	97.0	9.4	94.77	99.26
D	88	92.5	8.8	90.60	94.34
E	97	96.2	9.7	94.23	98.17
F	46	95.0	7.8	92.63	97.28

Table 3
Results of Tukey HSD Post Hoc Test Comparing Program C to Other Programs

Teacher Preparation Programs		Mean Difference	Significance
C	A	3.94	.079
	B	2.25	.916
	D	4.54	.022*
	E	0.82	.993
	F	2.06	.835

*Significant at .05 level

Discussion

The findings of the current study provide three salient points worthy of discussion. The first point is the high level of self-efficacy reported by pre-service teachers in this study. Second is the issue regarding the meaning of these high self-efficacy scores, especially between the two programs that reported significantly different self-efficacy scores. The third point is regarding what TPP components may also be influencing pre-service teacher self-efficacy.

On average, the pre-service teachers in this sample received high scores on the TSES suggesting a high level of self-efficacy at the conclusion of their teaching training. These findings are consistent with those of pre-service teachers at the conclusion of their training programs found in other studies (Fives et al., 2007; Fortman & Pontius, 2000; Gorrell & Hwang, 1995; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990; Housego, 1992; Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008; Wenner, 2001; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005). Even pre-service teachers from Program D, who experienced the lowest scores, scored a mean of 94.27, which is only 4.54 points below the highest scoring program in the sample (Program C).

This brings us to our second point concerning the significant differences in self-efficacy scores between Program C and D. There were quite a few differences between the experiences pre-service teachers had in Program C when compared to those who graduated from Program D. First, Program C required fewer fieldwork/practicum hours and it had a lower GPA requirement for admittance to the TPP. Additionally, Program C had pre-service teachers complete only one student teaching placement compared to the two student teaching placements required by Program D. The duration of the student teaching assignment was also shorter (10 weeks) when compared to the 14 weeks required by Program D. These findings raise the question about how high self-efficacy scores need to be at the conclusion of teacher training. Perhaps high, but not extremely high, self-efficacy scores may prove to be more beneficial to a teacher as it may be an indication of a more realistic understanding of the teaching context and the limitations inherent therein, and an indication of a more realistic understanding of one's own teaching abilities.

Longitudinal studies have demonstrated that teacher self-efficacy drops when teachers begin teaching in a classroom of their own (Woolfolk

Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005) suggesting that pre-service teachers may struggle with the differences between what it felt like to student teach in someone else's classroom and what it feels like teaching in a classroom of their own. These discrepancies are reflected in research studying the experiences of novice teachers. The experiences of novice teachers have been described as "baptism of fire," "trial of fire," or "sink or swim" (Hall, 1982; Lawson, 1992; Lortie, 1975; Pataniczek & Isaacson, 1981).

The results of the current study also suggest a pressing need for further examination of teacher self-efficacy as teachers make the transition from the pre-service stage to in-service stage. If teacher self-efficacy scores will drop once pre-service teachers begin teaching in a classroom of their own, do pre-service teachers with relatively high scores at the conclusion of their teacher training (but not necessarily the highest score when compared to other programs) experience less of drop in their self-efficacy scores when they begin full-time teaching? Did their training experiences provide enough realistic experiences to demonstrate the challenges inherent in teaching and were pre-service teachers provided with enough opportunities to practice their skills to know they can overcome these challenges? More specifically, do these pre-service teachers with relatively high (but not the highest) self-efficacy have a more realistic idea of what they can do?

The TPP is not the only influence on the judgments pre-service teachers make about their ability to teach. By the time a pre-service teacher enters a TPP, she has spent more than 13,000 hours as a student observing teachers and making judgments about what it means to be a teacher. Lortie (1975) calls this a specialized "apprenticeship of observation" (p. 61). These beliefs and assumptions about what it means to be a teacher can be difficult to alter, no matter how inaccurate. Prospective teachers assume that since they have spent more than a decade inside a classroom as students, they have adequately experienced first-hand how to teach. As Dewey (1938) explained, "every experience both takes up something from those which have gone before and modifies in some way the quality of those which come after" (p. 38). Because of previous experiences, prospective teachers may assume they can do many of the same things that teachers do. However, there are subtle, yet critical differences between the pre-service teacher and in-service teacher in his or her understanding of the complexities involved in teaching. TPPs that provide realistic experiences (such as practicum or student teaching in challenging settings) may help pre-service teachers make the transition to full time teaching with less of a shock than those not provided these types of experiences. More longitudinal studies are needed to make determinations of how high self-efficacy prepares or inhibits pre-service teachers as they make the transition.

The third point gleaned from the current study is that most studies surrounding pre-service teacher self-efficacy are centered on the student teaching experience. We hypothesized that programs would vary in their efficacy scores due to the differences in how student teaching was structured in each program. It stands to reason that the more field based experiences a pre-service teacher has and the longer the student teaching placement, the more efficacious pre-service teachers would be. The highest scoring program, however, had the least amount of practicum hours required, required only one student teaching placement, and had one of the shorter student teaching placements suggesting that the student teaching experience may not be the only factor influencing pre-service teacher self-efficacy. In researching the factors that influence pre-service teacher self-efficacy, Poulou (2007) noted that self-perceptions of teaching competence, personal characteristics, and motivation for teaching were contributing factors to pre-service teacher self-efficacy. Poulou's study suggests that there may be other factors not currently being considered in studies analyzing pre-service teacher self-efficacy. Based on the descriptions gathered about the programs in the current study, there are other experiences, aside from student teaching, which may be influencing teacher self-efficacy (e.g. coursework, professorial expertise, alignment

with curriculum taught in elementary schools, practicum and student teaching experiences, pre-service teacher content knowledge, pre-service teacher pedagogical knowledge). It is unknown how these components are enhancing or inhibiting the development of self-efficacy in teachers. An analysis of this magnitude, coupled with teaching observations of pre-service teachers, could provide a better understanding of how best to prepare teachers for today's complex educational environment.

Limitations

The first limitation of this exploratory study involves the nature of self-report data. The TSES uses a Likert-scale format; this close-ended format prevents researchers from being able to thoroughly investigate teacher perceptions. Additionally, there were no follow up interviews conducted to gather further insight into feelings and beliefs of pre-service and in-service teachers.

The second limitation is that there was no pre-test administered for the TSES. This limits our ability to make claims about how specific components of TPPs influenced the observed results. A pre-test would also help determine the level of self-efficacy pre-service teachers had before their teacher training.

Finally, though the current study analyzed the self-efficacy of pre-service teachers from multiple TPPs within one state, the findings may be limited to TPPs in a similar culture and context. The context of, and even the structure of TPPs represented in this study may not resemble the structure of TPPs in different countries and contexts.

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FREEDOM OF LEARNERS AS A CHALLENGE FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS IN 21ST CENTURY CLASSROOMS: THE CASE OF SOUTH AFRICA

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Abstract: *The Constitution Act No. 08 of 1996 was formally adopted by South Africa in 1996. It is the supreme law of South Africa. It provides for a sovereign and democratic constitutional state which adheres to equality for all citizens. This constitution also guarantees the protection of the citizens' fundamental rights in terms of a Bill of Rights. This Bill of Rights which also constitutes Chapter 2 of the Constitution Act No. 08 of 1996, also affirms the values of human dignity, equality and freedom. The South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996, which cascades from the above-mentioned Constitution Act, also endorses the values of human dignity, equality, and freedom. It is that freedom of the learners which is one of the challenges for teacher educators in the 21st century classrooms in South Africa.*

This article focuses on the challenges brought about by the freedom of learners to teachers. It also focuses on how that is a challenge for teacher educators in the 21st century classrooms in South Africa. Efforts made by teacher educators as proposed solutions to these challenges are also discussed in this article. Conclusions are drawn.

Key terms: Constitution Act No. 08 of 1996; South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996; South Africa; Bill of Rights; freedom; challenges; teacher educators

Introduction

This article focuses on the challenges brought about by the freedom of learners to the teachers and impressions some learners have about their freedom as individuals and in school. It also touches on how some of that freedom is a challenge for teacher educators in the 21st century classrooms in some South African schools. In order to do that, a rationale and legal framework of freedom to learners is discussed. The term freedom is defined to show how it is interpreted from various perspectives. The process of gathering data through empirical research is outlined. Efforts made by teacher educators as proposed suggestions and recommendations to these challenges are also discussed in this article. Conclusions are drawn.

Rationale

The Constitution Act No. 08 of 1996 was formally adopted by the South African government in 1996. It is the supreme law of South Africa. This Constitution provides for a sovereign and democratic constitutional state which adheres to equality for all citizens. It also guarantees the protection of the citizens' fundamental rights in terms of a Bill of Rights. South Africa's Bill of Rights which also constitutes Chapter 2 of the Constitution Act No. 08 of 1996, affirms the values of human dignity, equality, and freedom.

A number of acts of parliament cascade from the Constitution Act No. 08 of 1996. They include, among others, the South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996. The South African Schools Act also endorses on the values of human dignity, equality, and freedom. It is that freedom of the learners which they enjoy as individuals in their lives and in respective schools which constitute the focal point of the article. The problem statement of this paper is thus to surface the challenges brought about by the freedom of learners to the teachers. It is imperative to define the term freedom to facilitate better understanding thereof in the context of this paper.

Freedom

The term freedom is defined differently for various reasons such as cultural, social, and political reasons. According to Wolff (1976) the rule by the people is true freedom. On the

contrary is the rule for the people, which in his view, is benevolent slavery. Sykes (1982) refers to freedom as non-slavery and personal liberty (freedom of conscience). It is the liberty of action and right to do whatever one wishes to do. It is freedom from fear and want, freedom of speech and action, power of self- determination and independence of fate or necessity. In the Complete Word finder, Tulloch (1992) defines freedom as the condition of being free. It is personal liberty. Freedom means being liberated from slavery, unrestricted, free to act as you wish and free to be outspoken (Tulloch). Freedom is defined in this article as referring to being free from any form of dominance.

Legal framework of freedom to learners

The legal rules dealing with freedom for learners are derived from the Constitution Act No. 08 of 1996 of the Republic of South Africa. They are also derived from other national legislations which cascade from the Constitution (Constitution Act No. 08 of 1996). They include the Child Act No. 74 of 1983, the Domestic Violence Act 116 of 1998, and the South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996.

The Constitution Act No. 08 of 1996's Bill of Rights contains a number of clauses which clearly spell out the values of human dignity, equality, and freedom for all citizens of South Africa including its learners. The freedom cited includes that of not being deprived freedom arbitrarily or without a justified reason, freedom of conscience, religion, thought, belief, and opinion. That is, learners, like the rest of the citizens in South Africa, are free to follow their conscience by both learning and believing in a particular thought, belief, and opinion. They are not supposed to be deprived freedom arbitrarily or without a justified reason. Formal schools and teachers have to justify why they do not give students freedom to do anything they wish such as kissing openly, using any form of drugs, and such on the school premises.

South African citizens are entitled to express their views freely, receive or impart knowledge or ideas freely. Freedom of association with anyone of their choice is also allowed. Anyone can move, trade, train for any profession, or occupy any position freely within the country. In contextualizing the preceding statements, it could be said that learners, like the rest of the citizens, are free to express their views. That can be done by endorsing or objecting to the view of the teacher in the classroom. They can receive or share knowledge or their ideas freely. They are further free to associate with anyone of their choice on their school premises and outside the school. The Child Act No. 74 of 1983, the Domestic Violence Act 116 of 1998, and the South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996 respectively endorse the preceding freedom over and above the other rights they endorse in their respective ways. They put the interest of the child at the centre stage. This is a matter which is taken seriously in all spheres of government in South Africa. Having given a rationale of the article defined freedom as the key term and provided the legal framework of freedom to learners, it is imperative to outline how data was gathered to obtain the impressions of some learners about their freedom as challenges to teachers as individuals and in the school. It is also discussed on how data were gathered to describe how freedom is a challenge for teacher educators in the 21st century classrooms in South Africa.

Empirical Research

The qualitative method of research was used to gather data for this study (Mouton, 2001). According to Neill (2006), qualitative research is a type of research in which insight is gained through discovering the meaning of data by improving the comprehension of the whole. It explores the richness, depth, and complexity of phenomena and produces findings through meaning and not by means of statistical procedures. The qualitative method of research was used to explore the richness, depth, and complexity of phenomena in order to capture the impression of learners about their freedom in schools. Ethnography was also referred to in gathering data for this research.

Ethnography which is part of the qualitative method of research and focuses on the sociology of meaning through close field observation and

selects informants who are known to have an overview of the community was also used (Ethnographic research, n.d.) Both qualitative research and ethnography were used to facilitate the completion of this article. They were used to put together the challenges which teachers experience in schools as a result of the freedom of learners. Government documents such as Acts of parliament were reviewed. Policy documents which were adopted and used by the Provincial Department of Education were also reviewed. That means relevant data had to be identified, verified, described, evaluated, and interpreted as part of the process of concretizing the use of the qualitative method of research (Leedy & Ormond, 2005).

A number of Alexandra Township secondary schools, which are in the proximity of the researchers in Gauteng province, were identified for gathering data. Besides, the researchers are acquainted with the residential area. Permission was sought from the learners and teachers to interview them. No specific criteria such as the age of the teachers, years of service in the teaching profession, and so on were used. The teachers who participated in the exercise are practicing teachers. They were interviewed on voluntary basis. Equally were the learners who were interviewed. They volunteered to be interviewed. However, ethical factors were considered in that all respondents were briefed about the research, and the objectives were explained.

The actual interview process was conducted out of school hours. This was done as part of respecting the Gauteng Department of Education's policy (2011) that learning has to take place during schooling period. That is, learners may not be disturbed during school hours. Focus group interviews were used as a strategy to gather data. Focus groups were used in the interest of time and gathering as much data as possible within the available time. Focus groups, which ranged from each time from five to ten learners or teachers respectively, were interviewed. Both researchers and the respondents agreed not to identify the names of the respondents. (Besides, some learners are still under age so the researchers stayed in accordance with the South African Constitution.) Teachers preferred to remain anonymous for ethical reasons.

The questions asked were coined around the following identified key words: freedom of learners, teachers, religion, movement, use of substances, gambling, poverty, corporal punishment, culture, choice and teaching of school subjects, privacy, health, school uniform, safety, sexuality, legislation (and resources, children's rights and child protection), cohort, promotion on corporal punishment, substance abuse, and health (pregnancy). The responses were, however, condensed and are presented hereunder in a narrative form (Mouton, 2001).

The Impressions of Learners about 'Their' Freedom

Many learners know their constitutional rights, which include their freedom as citizens and as learners in schools. Of the learners interviewed, it emerged that they know they are free and have freedom to act, do, and say what they wish. That included freedom to either attend or not attend school. Because of freedom of movement, some learners leave school as and when they wish to. It emerged that some schools lock the gates when the school starts to ensure that they limit this movement. Many leave when school is out and do not even attend the afternoon study which is specifically organized for them to learn.

However, many young people in the South African context do not take their right to education seriously; neither do they acknowledge that the government is the provider at the same time of compulsory education. The government has also put in place what is called Parent Teacher Learner component in the school governing bodies (SGB). In certain instances some of those who understand that they have a right to education tended to abuse it for their own benefit. This in many cases has been influenced by a slogan which in the past (during apartheid era) was 'pass one pass all,' the slogan came simply because education in those days for black people was designed to keep them in the labour market for the capitalist.

Age cohort. Age cohort is part of the official policies through which, according to the Department of Education, learners of particular ages need to be pushed to higher classes based on their ages despite the fact that they could not achieve set outcomes or pass the required number of subjects for promotion in a school.

Use of substances. According to the South African Schools Act and the Education Policy document in Gauteng province, only the minister of Basic Education can expel a learner from a school. It does not advise expulsion for dealing with learners who are found guilty of substance use such as alcohol and other forms of drugs on the school premises. Because policy does not advise, some learners take and use alcohol and other forms of drugs even on school premises. Schools management cannot expel such learners. Some learners indicated that they will not be expelled for the use of alcohol on the school premises. Some internal school policies advise that such learners should rather be banned from activities such as sport outing where they are likely to use strong beverages and/or substances. Upon return, schools could send them to relevant organizations where they can get help not to use alcohol and drugs.

In some schools, police visit the school at random with sniffer dogs to search for any unacceptable objects and/or drugs which some learners may be carrying. Some respondents reported that some items such as cigarettes, knives, and marijuana have been found in some learners' school bags or pockets. However, the Constitution's Bill of Rights provides for the right to privacy – of which many learners do not seem to be aware.

Privacy. The Constitution provides for the right to privacy. Some learners exploit and use it conveniently to refuse to be searched during unceremonial raids on the school premises. Although they are constitutionally justified, many schools enforce the raids by inviting the police to use sniffer dogs. Some learners have voluntarily consented to be searched by teachers when items such as calculators and cell phones go missing. They have thus bypassed the right to privacy in that way and items were (not) found.

Gambling. Gambling seems to be rife in many schools. Many learners concurred that various forms of gambling such as playing cards, dice, and so on take place in the school toilets during teaching time. Learners who are found gambling are suspended for five days at most. However, the teacher has to ensure they do not lag behind with their school work.

Poverty. Poverty is one of the challenges of the society. It emerged that some learners go to school without a meal. Others do not have a chance of having any meal until their next supper. Government has taken upon itself to provide feeding schemes for such learners – especially in identified village and urban schools. Learners are supposed to be provided with a balanced meal which includes carbohydrates, protein, and fat daily. However, some learners reported that they do not receive enough food as other learners take more food than them.

It was reported that some university students who are studying towards becoming social workers do visit schools as part of their community engagement and practical experience. They identify the neediest learners, investigate their home circumstance, and facilitate that they receive government grants. They were found to be helpful to learners and schools although that is not part of the Department of Education's program of action.

Poverty also leads to some learners going to school without school uniform.

Corporal punishment. Corporal punish-ment is banned in all South African schools. Many learners are aware of it and proactively report teachers who inflict it. Some deliberately ignore their school chores with a clear understanding that they will not be punished. For example, some do not complete their homework, gamble, and take alcohol, and so on. The worst punishment they could receive is suspension for some days from the school.

It was reported that many learners do not take their school work seriously. Many of them do it (their homework) on campus. Others do not do it at all. Some parents do not seem to monitor the school progress of their children by monitoring whether homework has been done. Others check and make follow-up appointments with school teachers wherever they are unsure of any matter.

Culture. Cultural ceremonies are still practiced among many people in South African schools. Some learners leave school during the year to attend, for example, initiation lessons, sessions on becoming indigenous healers, and so on. Schools have to bear with that and help learners to cope on their return according the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC, n.d.) document. Many of them know that they are free to decide on their belief system.

Some learners do opt to attend and others do not attend school religious assembly. A number of reasons such as religious beliefs were cited for that. Some learners and teachers leave schools, for example, early at about 11:30 on Friday to attend religious prayers. They are free to do that because they are covered by the Constitution which clearly spells out the freedom of religion to all South Africans irrespective of denomination. However the norms of the school tend to be used as referral point in such events according to some teachers.

Choice of school subjects. As part of their freedom, learners choose the subjects they wish to study in the offered subjects when they reach grade ten in high schools. Teachers may only advise on the matter. That is despite the challenges the learners could be having in understanding the content of a particular school subject.

Health. The Constitution provides for the right to health although medical treatment is not necessarily freely available to all learners. Although the subject of health is broad, questions were asked on pregnancy in schools. It was reported that pregnancy is common among teenage school girls. More than ten school girls of between the ages of sixteen and seventeen were reported pregnant in one school in 2010.They were however allowed to continue with their studies even if they were pregnant - in accordance to the Department of Basic Education. Their parents were alerted about the pregnancies. The pregnant school girls have to inform the school of the possible delivery date. Teachers need to provide them with the support to ensure they do not lag behind with their studies when they return from maternity session.

Freedom as a Challenge for Teachers

Many schools have school codes of conducts. These may not supersede the law of the land, for example, the Constitution's Bill of Rights. The freedom it provides to all South African citizens protects learners from being challenged from wrong doing. One teacher said "…unfortunately, most learners are teenagers who still explore and experiments on things they do not know, or whose consequences they do not know." Most of the learners say they have rights and know them. All teachers said learners know that corporal punishment is abolished.

Before a teacher can have a learner suspended, they firstly give them a letter to pass to their parents wherein they invite parents to discuss the suspension matter on the school premises. Some letters do not reach the parents because the learners do not forward them. Teachers need to use alternative means until parents come to school. The ERLC documents are shown and explained to both parents and learners before a learner is suspended. Parents need to sign the consent form of suspension before the learner is suspended.

Learners have a 'child line' telephone number which they can dial if corporal punishment is inflicted on them either at home or school. They may not be reprimanded for use of alcohol and other substances. They may not be searched without their consent lest that becomes infringement to their privacy. They may not be asked questions about their health and or sexuality lest that is tantamount to infringement to their privacy. Those learners who do not attend classes for some time and return, for example, after going into confinement, adhering

to cultural activities such as initiation school, and so on, are a challenge to teachers. According to policy, they need to be assisted to cope with the school work they missed during their absence.

Many schools do not necessarily have resources such as school social workers and or counselors on hand to deal with challenges such as use of alcohol, drugs, attend to the poor, health issues, and so on. Those who take long to grasp concepts are promoted to the next level and lead to a bottleneck and high failure rate at grade twelve in high schools.

Some teachers are challenged by parents who believe they teach their children topics which in their cultures are normatively unacceptable for example HIV-AIDS and sex education. One teacher said he was confronted by a parent when he had given learners a project on HIV-AIDS.

The Role of the School

Formal schools are expected to ensure that effective teaching and learning take place. That is, the teachers and other relevant officials such as social workers, in some schools, operationalize the contents of the Constitution's education clause (section 29 of the Bill of Rights) which says everyone has the right to basic education and further education. Teachers and other adults on the school premises take the role and status of parents during their absence. That is, they assume the role of *in loco parentis* (teachers act as parents). They do that by ensuring that effective teaching and learning take place while they take the freedom of learners into cognisance.

Suggestions and Recommendations

The freedom of learners needs to be redefined. It needs to be limited for their future. School teachers need to be provided with more power to exercise authority but with care over learners.

Conclusion

This article focused on the impressions learners have about freedom and how that is a challenges for teacher educators in the 21st century classrooms in some South African schools. Efforts made by teacher educators as proposed solutions to these challenges were also discussed in this paper. Suggestions and recommendations were made.

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EAST MEETS WEST: A VIRTUAL INTERNATIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION INITIATIVE BETWEEN TAIWAN AND THE U.S.[1]

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Abstract: *The idea of international collaborations in education to promote global perspectives among students and their teachers is becoming increasingly popular. These initiatives bring with them unique challenges dealing with communication across time, space, and cultures. In addition they are characterized by the difficulty of actually making connections – both literal and metaphorical – between people from opposite ends of the earth. This paper reports on a virtual project devoted to developing cross-cultural awareness in teacher education programs between the University of Maryland in the U.S., and Tamkang University in Taiwan. The blended learning initiative was grounded in principles of international collaboration and task-based learning and made use of several technologies and directly involved graduate students preparing to be English as Second/Foreign Language teachers in each country.[4] Gleaned from the post-course survey, the results revealed that students' overall impression of the project and each collaborative task was mostly positive, despite the technical glitches and time constraints. Although students' liking for the hybrid-learning mode was mixed, they felt that the goal of the project was met. Suggestions for future collaborations and research include the following: a more stable and reliable online platform; committed technical support from both institutions; new presentation formats that align with the features in the online platform; and additional opportunities for virtual community building.*

Keywords: teacher education, international collaboration, technology, cross-cultural awareness

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Introduction

International Collaboration

International collaboration is a way for people to work together on projects of mutual interest, enhance professional development, expand social networking and interpersonal interactions, and facilitate learning and teaching. According to Oxford Dictionaries Online, the term collaboration, in general, means the action of working with someone to produce something (http://oxforddictionaries.com/definition/collaboration). Specifically, collaboration can be defined as a process of participating in a knowledge community that "…helps students become members of knowledge communities whose common property is different from the common property of the knowledge communities they already belong to" (Brufee, 1993, p. 3). Therefore, international collaboration involves the process of understanding and learning from each other to develop a common property of shared knowledge with people from different countries and cultures. This is also referred to as virtual *communities of practice* where learners share their expertise and contribute their knowledge to each learning task, jointly co-constructed by the mutual engagement and commitment of all the community members (Wenger, 1998, 2000). International collaboration implies sharing and transferring one's own knowledge to other participants in the project. When the design of the collaboration is tailored towards student needs and preferences, the students can benefit from different opinions, perspectives, beliefs, experiences, and thinking processes shared by all (Harris, 1999). Through authentic communication, students are able to develop an awareness of the similarities and differences between cultures and countries (Hauck & Youngs, 2008).

Information and communications technology (ICT) has made international collaboration possible; with the increasing accessibility of the Internet and the pursuit for a more effective and efficient teaching and learning environment, integrating computer-mediated communication (CMC) systems in international educational collaborations is inevitable (Kramer, Walker & Brill, 2007; Warschauer, 1997). With the assistance of CMC systems, various interfaces such as emails, chat rooms, blogs, social network services, etc., learning and teaching have taken on forms other than traditional classroom instruction (Gruba, 2004; O' Dowd & Waire, 2009). Face-to-face interaction in cyber classrooms provides another option for teachers and students formerly limited due to distance, place, and time. International collaboration has changed from its traditional form of physically relocating teachers and students to another country in order to work with peers overseas, to sitting at home with a computer and communicating with the simultaneous transmission of voice, video, and files (Crook, 1994; Hastie, Hung, Chen & Kinshuk, 2010). Such a shift is beneficial for students, teachers, and institutions because international collaboration provides professional and educational support in an economical way via the Internet.

In this paper, we report on a virtual international collaboration to develop cross-cultural awareness in teacher education programs between the University of Maryland, College Park (UMD), in the United States and Tamkang University in Taiwan (TKU).[2] The project involved eight weeks of collaborative electronic exchanges embedded in a U.S. graduate class in Methods of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) at UMD, and Principles and Methodology of TESOL at TKU. There were 21 students enrolled at UMD, and 14 at TKU. The joint portions of the syllabi were a result of both virtual and face-to-face consultations (in Taiwan) by the instructors and their graduate teaching assistants. The main goals were to provide opportunities for the participants to compare and contrast English

[2] This project is part of an initiative advanced by the government of Taiwan to foster cultural awareness of Taiwan and to stimulate interest in student and faculty exchanges.

learning and teaching in an ESL and an EFL context.[3]

UMD-TKU Class

There were many issues to consider in planning such an international collaboration including choosing appropriate technology, planning a shared curriculum and creating a plausible implementation plan. We will discuss each of these aspects, in turn.

Technology

Both classes were blended in structure, that is, a combination of face-to-face and online learning with reduced seat time (Dziuban, Hartman, & Moskal, 2004). We use the term *blended learning*[4] as do Dziuban et al. (2004) meaning "a pedagogical approach that combines the effectiveness and socialization opportunities of the classroom with the technologically enhanced active learning possibilities of the online environment" (p. 3). In the project, we also incorporated several of the rich and varied aspects of blended learning noticed by Singh (2003): (a) offline and online learning; (b) self-paced and collaborative learning; (c) structured and unstructured learning; (d) custom content with off-the-shelf content; and (e) learning, practice, and performance support. According to the Blended Synchronous Learning Model (Hastie, Hung, Chen & Kinshuk, 2010), there are five basic elements in blended learning: the cyber classroom, the physical classroom, the teacher, the student, and a number of classrooms or participants. These all mix and match to make up nine synchronous learning modes. Of the nine modes offered by Hastie et al. (2010), our collaboration belongs to the category of mode 9, with the teachers and students participating in both the physical classrooms and cyber classrooms. Such a mode is considered the most holistic with the highest flexibility and possibly the future mainstream model for international collaborations. (For a further discussion of blended learning see, for example, Barr, Leakey, & Ranchoux, 2005; Brandl, 2005; Gilbert & Flores-Zambada, 2011**;** Horn & Staker, 2011; Khine & Lourdusamy, 2003; Margaryan, Collis, & Cooke, 2004; Osguthorpe & Graham, 2003; Singh, 2003; Ware & Warschauer, 2005; and Watson, 2008.)

The choice of appropriate technology was crucial for the delivery of all UMD-TKU synchronous virtual classes. We considered the two systems used by our institutions. UMD suggested *Wimba Classroom*, a virtual classroom platform in the Blackboard *Electronic Learning Management System* (ELMS) while TKU proposed *Adobe Connect*, a web conferencing platform for online meetings, and *Moodle*, another ELMS, for asynchronous online discussion, course materials storage and announcement updates. Although we liked *Adobe Connect's* functions of video and audio conferencing, and the Power Point whiteboard for Power Point presentations, it did not work as we had expected for our particular transnational circumstances. Ultimately, we selected Wimba for our weekly virtual class and Moodle as the asynchronous platform for students' ongoing discussions and for access to course materials.[5]

When we began our virtual class with Taiwan, we learned the value of being flexible. As much as we had planned, many unexpected technical glitches still occurred. For example, when both classes tried to log into the Wimba Classroom simultaneously, the initial heavy loading caused a problem that booted some students out of the room or significantly slowed the system's speed. Also, because we tried to create more real time interaction, we intentionally planned to break all students into different groups using the Breakout Room feature embedded in Wimba. However, most of the time we ended up struggling with the malfunction of this feature, which often went

[3] English as a Second Language (ESL) connotes teaching English to non-native speakers in an English-speaking country. English as a Foreign Language (EFL) connotes teaching English to non-native speakers in an non-English-speaking country.

[4] Another term for blended learning is hybrid learning. We use the terms interchangeably in this article.

[5] For access, go to http://moodle.learning.tku.edu.tw/mod/forum/index.php?id=68 (username: rlavine@umd.edu; password: rlavine).

blurry in the window panel and completely disabled our monitoring plan. To tackle the issue, the tech person from TKU would help each TKU student relog in individually, and the UMD TA had to multitask by using *Skype* to touch base with TKU team at the same time while Wimba was not working. Because of the time difference, TKU students were in their lab quite early at 8 am. It was also the time when the Internet connection at TKU was slow, and we wasted a lot of time waiting for all TKU students to log into the room. The lagging problem also impeded both sides from seeing the same Power Point slide during presentations.

Despite the aforementioned technical glitches, Wimba seemed to be the best online platform for accommodating so many students synchronously, as compared to *Adobe Connect*. Some features in Wimba also made the virtual sessions more dynamic and interactive. For example, hearing the voices of both faculty and peers and seeing each other on the webcam enhanced the sense of co-presence and co-construction. Working with their counterparts in breakout rooms also benefited collaborative learning (Dziuban et al., 2004) and cross-cultural awareness. Within each room, students brainstormed ideas on their group whiteboard and uploaded images or Power Point slides for product completion before reporting back to the whole class. The text chat box also provided an optimal mode for further communication, in addition to the voice chat mode. Additionally, each real-time session could be archived so students from both sides could have anytime access and revaluate their work performance. Having Moodle as an extensive platform also complemented the time constraints in each real-time Wimba session and provided more opportunities to work on collaborative projects asynchronously.

Class Curriculum and Implementation

The project involved two parallel graduate classes worth three credits each: Methods of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) at UMD, and Principles and Methodology of TESOL at TKU. Both were required courses in their respective programs.

The UMD-TKU sessions, which lasted for approximately one hour, were part of a longer class three-hour period at UMD. Because of the time difference, UMD students met virtually at 8 p.m. on Wednesday night with their Taiwanese counterparts who were in class at 8 a.m. on Thursday morning. Each course also met face-to-face for a specified number of classes; at other times, the classes participated together online. The TKU students gathered in a computer lab for the online portion. The UMD students generally participated from their homes; there were two online sessions on campus with all students physically in attendance. In total, there were seven jointly held classes.

We used a task–based approach related to the theories of task-based language teaching (TBLT) whose methodological principles include learning by doing, rich input, collaborative learning, negotiation of meaning, and communicative needs (Doughty & Long, 2003). According to Nunan (1989) a task is "any classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form" (p. 10). Nunan (2006) also suggests that a TBLT syllabus design should take into account the following: a needs-based approach to content selection; an emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language; the introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation; the provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language, but also on the learning process itself; an enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning; and the linking of classroom language learning with language use outside the classroom" (p. 14).

With the abovementioned framework in mind, our students collaborated transnationally on three pedagogical tasks relevant to teaching English language learners (ELLs). There was also an icebreaker. The icebreaker and the three projects varied, took place over several days, and combined asynchronous and synchronous activities, as shown below:

Icebreaker: All about me (asynchronous activity)

- Post the level of ESL or EFL students you're interested in teaching on Black Board.
- Pose and post questions about what you want to know about your Taiwanese counterparts (e.g., their interests, culture, etc.).

Activity 1: When West Meets East – grouped by teaching levels

For Week 1:

- Following your first meeting with your Taiwanese/U.S. interest group, prepare further interview questions regarding the educational system, current English teaching/learning phenomena in Taiwan/U.S. across student levels, challenges that Taiwanese EFL/U.S. ESL teachers face, etc. (Asynchronous)
- Write a reflection on what you've learned from your Taiwanese/U.S. interviewees. Compare and contrast both ESL/EFL phenomena and present in next session in a short PowerPoint. (Asynchronous)

For Week 2:

- Report/present your thoughts about cross-cultural similarities/differences in both American and Taiwanese contexts from your interview data. What have you learned from your Taiwan/U.S. interest group? (Synchronous)

Activity 2: Cross-cultural Understanding on Holidays and Customs

For Week 3:

- Prepare a show-and-tell presentation (15 mins.) for an assigned American/Taiwanese holiday/festival. You'll showcase the culture/language aspects to your Taiwanese/U.S. counterparts and gather information from them about what they would like to know more about in reference to the holiday/festival for later lesson planning. (Asynchronous)

For Week 4:

- Finalize your holiday/festival lesson plan targeting a student level of your interest based on the comments you got from your Taiwanese colleagues. Present your lesson in the virtual meeting. (Synchronous)

Activity 3: Cultural Video

For Week 5:

- Sign up for the language function groups (e.g., greeting, apologizing, complaining). A case scenario card will be given to you. (Asynchronous)
- Come up with an outline for the storyboard regarding the assigned language function. You'll finalize the outline/storyboard of your video after receiving input from your Taiwanese counterpart. (Asynchronous)

For Week 6:

- Prepare to shoot 2-5 minute video focusing on a specific age group with interpretation.
- Work together on the video recording in class.
- Showcase the video with interpretation to Taiwan. (Synchronous)
- Complete the project evaluation survey.

Due to the anytime characteristics of asynchronous work, these activities were much easier to do, and students generally had no problem with either the initial posts or subsequent reactions in the Moodle. The real time online sessions were much more difficult due to the technical obstacles discussed previously. Students were generally enthusiastic about the assignment content, and did an excellent job in creating and presenting content materials.

One of the major successes of the class revolved around the acquisition of cross-cultural awareness. We used Hofstede's (as cited at http://www.carla.umn.edu/culture/definitions.html) definition of culture in this project: **"**Culture is the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one category of people from another" (1984, p. 51). The Taiwanese students knew quite a bit about American culture, mostly gathered from secondary sources and pop culture. The American students, in contrast, knew very little, if anything, about Taiwan. The opportunity to

talk with real peers gave all students access to information that would have been impossible to gain otherwise. Some of the favorite topics centered around the similarities and differences in the celebration of St. Valentine's day in both cultures, Independence Day in the U.S. and the Dragon Boat Festival in Taiwan. Also of particular interest to the UMD students was the "cram school," the after school lessons that students had every day in Taiwan. Other materials that generated enthusiasm were the videos showcasing authentic speech in a variety of situations. An example is a video that portrayed correct and incorrect ways of breaking bad news, something that is rarely, if ever, taught in the classroom.

Moreover, there were two Distinguished Fulbright Teachers from Argentina who were auditing the UMD class. Both are EFL teachers and shared many of the same concerns of the Taiwanese students. These teachers added a third cross-cultural dimension to the discussions.

Evaluation

Student perspectives

In order to gain a better understanding of students' experiences with the online bilateral, cross-cultural project, we administered a post-course survey, available at https://spreadsheets.google.com/viewform?formkey=dHNTcGJDMEllc1J0dXhTeURFSGY2cGc6MQ. Ten TKU students and fifteen UMD students completed the survey with the response rate at 71% (25 out of 35 [14 TKU + 21 UMD students]), which was quite high. Below are the sample results from students' responses to both closed- and open-ended question items on the survey.

Students' overall impression of the project: When asked how they felt about the experience of collaborating with their counterparts in distance mode, around 88% of students expressed positive attitudes toward this cross-cultural project on a Likert scale of 1 to 5. Less than 10% of students felt negatively. Even though a majority of students showed positive attitudes, we postulate that students who found this project not satisfactory would have changed their minds if the technical glitches had been less prominent (see Table 1).

Table 1
Student responses to survey

	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very satisfied
What is your overall impression of the project with TKU/UMD?	4%	4%	32%	44%	12%
I liked each assignment of the project very much:					
Task 1: Reflections about cross-cultural differences and similarities	0%	8%	16%	52%	4%
Task 2: Holiday/festival lesson plan	4%	4%	20%	36%	28%
Task 3: Language function video	0%	4%	28%	36%	24%

Students' liking for each assigned project: In general, both TKU and UMD students were positive about the three projects, with the response rate at approximately 90% on a Likert scale of 1 to 5. Interestingly, among the three tasks, the first (comparative culture) seemed to be most liked (68% with combined agree/strongly agree responses, compared with 64% in task 2 [lesson plan] and 60% in task 3 [video]) (see Table 1).

Based on the open-ended follow-up question on why they liked/disliked each assigned project, most students stated that the first task opened

their eyes to the similarities and differences in both educational systems, current English teaching/learning phenomena across student levels, and challenges faced by both EFL and ESL teachers. Their cross-cultural awareness was raised and nurtured through having a real-time dialogue with their counterparts. The first positive experience also carried over to the second and third tasks where they started to collaborate with each other on cross-cultural projects. For example, designing a holiday/festival lesson plan (task 2) not only engaged them in exchanging innovative ideas but also benefited them by adopting their peer teachers' lesson plans in their own teaching situations. Shooting a video on teaching their counterparts about different language functions used in the contexts of the U.S. and Taiwan was also said to be "brilliant, informative and fun". Above all, both sides found that (a) the collaborative work in each project task enriched their understanding of the culture-related materials; (b) the online project work provided the opportunity to share, teach, work with authentic audience from a different culture; and (c) each project was "neat and enjoyable" and topics were "related and interesting".

Students also addressed the issues that hindered their enjoying the entire experience of collaborative project work. To begin with, "technical glitches" had become the major obstacle, as illustrated by one of the students:
"When learning synchronically, we spend time waiting for the technician to resolve the computer problems. When the students at UMD are talking, sometimes it's really hard to listen to because it's not very clear."

Technical issues also hindered us from making the most efficient use of each short virtual session. As a student stressed, "*The experience overall was a good one. I wish we could've had more time with the TKU students to learn more. Each session was short, and the technical issues made them even shorter."*

Students' perceptions about whether the goal of project was met. Because two of the aims of the project were to develop cross-cultural understanding of the differences between the U.S and Taiwanese educational systems as well as better understand ESL/EFL teaching/learning phenomena, we were eager to know whether students felt that the project had accomplished these goals. Based on students' open-ended responses, the results are mixed. On the positive side, students felt that this project showed them many differences in the respective educational systems of which they had previously been unaware. They were able to learn from each other in a non-conventional setting, which also empowered their learning experiences:

- *I learned many things about the Taiwanese educational system and the way they teach EFL that I never knew before. I may not know specific things, but this project helped to give a general overview of these things.*
- *We were able to see the Taiwanese teaching style when TKU taught us and when they described their teaching styles.*
- *In my opinion, I think these projects really motivated me. It made the class full of fun and not boring...*

Students also felt that the technical issues and time constraints in each session had a negative impact; this is congruent with the responses in the previous survey question on project work:

- *... because of the technical problems sometimes it becomes a barrier to communicate with students from UMD.*
- *I think the project attempted to accomplish that goal, but there was not enough time to learn enough about the educational systems, ESL/EFL teaching from our TKU counterparts. It was a great idea, but I think we needed a lot more time to accomplish that goal.*

Students' opinions about hybrid learning. Even though the project with Taiwan was conducted online in Wimba and Moodle, UMD students were also scheduled to attend additional in-class sessions with the instructor and TA. As such, the course was conducted in a blended learning mode. We were interested to know how UMD students felt about this blended format.

Again, the results seemed to be mixed. Students who felt positive about blended learning expressed that it was new to them and more convenient, fun, and easy, without the transportation burden of commuting to school after a full day at work. Reactions include the following:

- *I like this format. It's nontraditional, creative and (sometimes) fun.*
- *I enjoyed the hybrid learning. We were able to get to know each other in the classroom and then continue to interact with each other from the comfort of our homes.*
- *I liked the "hybrid learning" format. I liked working from home on the evenings we did that, and I liked the fact that it wasn't the same setting week after week.*
- *It is different than anything I've done before. I'd be interested in taking another class like this*.

However, some students still preferred the face-to-face mode; bad internet connections also dampened their motivation for engaging in blended learning, as stressed by these students:

- "*Hybrid learning" is good; however, the connecting of the Internet is a problem.*
- *I actually preferred the face-to-face sessions, although the timing for online is much more convenient. I simply felt like I learned more and we got more accomplished face-to-face*.

Students' opinions about lessons they learned. When students were asked about what they could take away from participating in this project, there were several key points that emerged: (a) They started to get a better sense of cross-cultural differences and similarities in teaching EFL in Taiwan and ESL in the U.S.; (b) they developed an awareness of teaching students with linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds; (c) they benefited from designing holiday/festival lesson plans across cultures that they could adopt in their real-life teaching contexts; and (d) they saw how to function appropriately in different real-life scenarios across cultures due to the process of video production on language functions. One of the students vividly summed up the whole learning experience this way:

> *I got to understand more about both Taiwan and American cultures and their education systems. In the project, I was able to develop my second lesson plan in my whole life with cultural topics. I learned a lot that I can apply in my future teaching, for example role-play, video shooting... Overall, I learned that a lot of patience is needed for a project like this to succeed.*

Recommendations

Singh (2003) recommends that all blended learning programs address the eight dimensions for E-learning identified in Khan's framework (http://bookstoread.com/framework) in order to make learning more meaningful. These dimensions are pedagogical, technological, interface design, evaluation, management, resource support, ethical, and institutional. Although we enjoyed varying degrees of support in all of these areas, there was still a steep learning curve for all involved. The instructors who taught this hybrid cross-cultural class for the first time learned a great deal, including the issues involved in creating an entire virtual course and corresponding weekly activities, the pros and cons of different formats of online instruction, various strategies to tackle unexpected technical issues, and electronic techniques to address the needs of all students. For us, it was a bittersweet learning experience that we truly valued. Without all of these valuable experiences, we would not have learned how to implement a virtual course from scratch. Based on the lessons we learned, we would like to offer some recommendations for anyone interested in carrying out an international course conducted in a blended learning mode.

First, a stable and reliable online platform is the key to the success of a distance learning project. As illustrated in the project evaluations above, the issues of technical glitches and bad Internet connections jeopardized our well-intentioned lesson plans for each virtual session. Not only did students feel disappointed about the time

wasted on troubleshooting the technical problems, but the faculty also felt frustrated and exhausted dealing with unexpected circumstances while simultaneously delivering the lesson content. We suggest investigating more viable platforms and testing them out in advance. We cannot stress enough how crucial it is to make sure all features of the platform and Internet connection are working properly.

Second, a cross-cultural cannot be accomplished without the joint forces of strong teams from both sides. It takes a lot of effort, time, and commitment by dedicated faculty, TAs, and technical support staff. We also suggest that both sides have equal available technical support. For instance, UMD did not have real-time on-site tech support, as opposed to TKU, whose technical team was on stand-by. The UMD TA had to monitor all the virtual sessions by himself while assisting the professor at the same time.

Third, students' presentation formats need to be more in tune with the features in the online platform, especially when those presentations involve different collaborative project work. The presentation modes we used ranged from conventional Power Point presentations to state-of-the-art video production. Students were able to share and report to the class by uploading their materials to the Whiteboard embedded in Wimba or using desktop sharing to showcase their video clips. New ways of presentation modes, though, should be explored to make sure that students do not find the content and presentation delivery static and not well rounded.

Fourth, online discussion in a virtual session works better in small groups with a combination of members from both cultures who bring more cross-cultural perspectives and authentic learning experiences. Students in our project also stated that they would have liked to have had more time to talk with their counterparts in each real-life discussion session. Adding more partners from different cultures (e.g., students from South America), or additional U.S. or Taiwanese associates might also benefit students and faculty and broaden the spectrum of multiculturalism.

Conclusions

In spite of the difficulties, we believe the US-Taiwan UMD-TKU project was very successful. All of the stated goals were met to some degree, and the students and instructors learned a considerable amount about their counterparts as well as how to maximize technology for instructional purposes. Being able to interact in real time with colleagues on the other side of the world added extra elements of immediacy, accountability, and fun. In addition, the project demonstrated the potential for institutional as well as individual benefit from this kind of collaboration. Learning occurred for students, for the instructors, for the administrators who helped organize the institutional supports and communication, and for the participating universities. Indeed, the goals that the Embassy of Taiwan hoped to advance with this project were directly and successfully addressed. We hope to repeat the collaboration in the future.

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SOCIO-EDUCATIONAL PROFILE OF THE MUNICIPAL TEACHER IN THE SOUTH REGION OF BRAZIL

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Abstract: *In light of national legislation in Brazil which requires teachers to obtain a higher education diploma in teacher education, a significant number of teachers (17%) do not hold that diploma. The researchers sought to understand the educational, socio-economical, and societal underpinnings of teachers in several municipalities in three southern states of Brazil: Rio Grande do Sul, Santa Catarina, and Paraná. The findings have implications about the condition of municipal teachers, their students, and improving basic education in Brazil.*

Keywords: teacher education, professional preparation, teachers' characteristics

Introduction

Teacher education is a major concern in Brazil. Basic education expanded 15% from 1991 to 2000 (Oliveira, 2007) and today 98% of the school age population have access to education. Teacher education is essential to guarantee the quality of education offered to the majority of Brazilian children though information about the quality of teachers and working conditions is not easily available or reliable. In a study performed in fifteen municipalities in South Brazil we found that although changes occurred in the municipal teachers' educational background, professional development programs, and career plans, their salaries and working conditions did not improve as expected. The data indicated that most of the municipal teachers in the sample had a degree and a considerable number have done graduate work. Most of the municipalities offered all their teachers professional development programs, generally through local seminars. These programs are offered to all teachers, but individually teachers rarely participate in courses or congresses out of town. Although teachers' formal qualification has improved, the salaries of municipal teachers in the South region are still low. The data showed that the qualification improvements did not influence salaries, working conditions, or much less the quality of education.

The FUNDEF (Fund for Maintenance and Development of Basic Education and Valorization of Teaching) was established in an attempt to improve the education and salaries of teachers, requiring that all teachers have a higher education diploma by 2007. The FUNDEF resources were used to fund teacher education programs throughout the country and to complement teachers' salaries. The requirements of FUNDEF were not implemented in 2007, and a study done by the Ministry of Education showed that a significant number of teachers (17%) from the sixth grade to the last year of high school do not have a higher education diploma. The status of these teachers is illegal, and they should not be allowed to teach, but with the expansion of the system and the low salaries and working conditions the problem remains that there is a lack of qualified professionals. (Folha de São Paulo, 19 de fevereiro de 2011). The *Lei de Diretrizes e Bases da Educação Nacional* (LDBEN- Law of Guidelines and Basis of National Education), enacted in 1996, allowed teachers who had only taken the Normal School to teach up to the sixth grade. In more recent developments, new laws again changed teacher education. In 2006 the Brazilian Government, through the National Council of Education, required all teacher training courses to reformulate their curricula to meet a number of recommendations. From then on the teacher training course was to be the only college course able to train teachers for Early-Childhood Education and the Initial Grades of Basic Education. All existing programs had to be shut down, no matter how well they had done in evaluations. So, with constantly changing

legislation and policies regarding teacher education, low salaries, and working conditions, teaching is not an attractive and highly regarded profession in the country. Teacher education programs in Brazil lack clear objectives; they seem to be too general and have a low professional level.

Data about the situation of teachers in general is not available or reliable and can be very difficult to interpret. Considering the unavailability of data and the results of the previous study about the working conditions of municipal teachers in relation to education, continuing education, career plans, selection through public examination, and salaries, we decided to implement a study of the working conditions of municipal teachers in southern Brazil. We started with our own survey about the socio-educational profile of municipal teachers of the southern region. We have selected nine municipalities using the criterion of population size to select the sample. In each of the three southernmost Brazilian states - Rio Grande do Sul, Santa Catarina, and Paraná - we selected three municipalities: one large with a population ranging from 50,000 to 100,000 inhabitants, a medium-sized one with a population ranging from 10,000 to 49,000 inhabitants, and a small municipality with less than 10,000 inhabitants. It is very interesting to observe that data regarding the number of teachers from the site "IBGE Cidades" (Brazilian Institute for Geography and Statistics Cities) were very different from the data we received when we called the localities inquiring about the exact number of working teachers in order to send the questionnaires. The IBGE used some criteria that were not clear to the research team.

The region studied has a population of 27,274,441 inhabitants which corresponds to 14.3% of the Brazilian population (IBGE, 2011). Most live in urban areas, as does 85% of the population of the country. This population lives in big cities and in the metropolitan areas. The southern region of Brazil has a total of 1188 municipalities which represent 21.3% of the municipalities in the country. This number indicates that the region has a large number of small municipalities with a large number of rural schools. Data collected in a survey done by the research group indicated that 54.8% of the schools were located in the rural area. This situation persists in small and medium size municipalities (Castro, 2005).

The average salaries of the South Region is superior to the national mean and reached a value of R$16,564.00 (IBGE, 2011) which is higher than the national mean of R$ 14,465.00. Income is an important resource to be invested in education and in other areas (Folha de São Paulo, 2011).

Data about the personal and social characteristics of the municipal teachers, education and professional training of municipal teachers, their working conditions and differences among the three states will be presented.

Personal and Social Characteristics of the Municipal Teacher

The majority of the teachers are female, 93.3%, and 6% are male; the predominant age group is between 36 and 45 years (39%); the majority are married (57%) and have children (72.9%), usually two (29.8%). The personal characteristics of the teachers - overwhelmingly female, married, with children - create the condition for viewing teaching as a female occupation, where the teachers work when their own children are at school and is related to the hours of work per week. A significant number of teachers (38.2%) work up to 20 hours per week, 48.2% of the teachers work from 31 to 40 hours per week.

Describing their leisure activities 93.7% of the teachers said staying with the family, 71.7% indicated reading, 76% watching TV, 53% going for a walk and traveling, 51.9% visiting friends and relatives, 48% listening to music, 29.3% going to the movies or to the theater. The leisure activities are very poor considering that the majority stay home, reading, or watching television. Sometimes they live in small communities and do not have many cultural activities available, but the cost of these types of leisure activities could be a limiting factor.

The great majority of the teachers own their own home (81.5%). Municipal teachers have at least one computer at home, 60.9%, and 23.5% have two computers at home. This is an indication that they should have a minimum level of digital literacy. In Brazil, as elsewhere, the cost of computers has gone down, and is good to know that the teachers have them in their home environment. As to social class, the majority was classified as class B (61.3%), the number of household appliances they had at home was the criterion used to establish social class. Only 33.6% of the teachers were classified as class A.

Education and Professional Preparation of Municipal Teachers

The majority of the teachers had a higher education diploma, 27.2% and a significant number also had done some graduate work, 54.3%; a very small number 1.3% had a Master's degree, and 0.1% a Ph.D., but 5.1% had only a secondary education, and 11.6% had not completed higher education, thus 16.7% of the teachers in the sample did not have a higher education diploma. This seems to be a persistent problem in Brazilian education. Despite all efforts, programs, and policies, almost 17% of teachers working in elementary education in southern Brazil do not have a higher education diploma. There are several reasons for this, but the low salaries and continuing bad work situations in education direct the best qualified people to better paid occupations, and education has to accept less qualified candidates in order to meet the demand and the number of students.

The great majority of teachers attended a university for their teacher education, 70%, 10.9% attended a "University Center" and 5.6% an isolated institution, 5.1% attended a "Normal Superior Course". The great majority, 57%, attended universities in the city where they live; 28.4% attended universities in cities less than a hundred kilometers from the city where they live. Thus, most of the teachers are being educated at universities near home. In this way, the investment in education tends to be lower than in former times when t students moved to a large city to attend a public or bigger university. Now, they tend to work during their university education and attend evening classes. The pedagogy course, for instance, is offered in the evening and the majority of the students work (Verhine, 2010) causing a problem of quality in teacher education, as opposed to formerly, when students did not work and had a lot of time to study and read.

Considering the modality of the program, the great majority attended presential educational programs, 69.6%; 14.7% attended distance programs; 6.3% attended semi-presential institutions; 2.4% attended weekend courses; and 0.9% attended vacation courses. The total of non-presential courses was 24.3%. Almost 25% of the teachers had some form of distance education, and this is a new development for Brazilian teachers and for teacher education everywhere. The issue of quality is a problem for distance programs, and especially for some of the weekend programs and vacation programs that we found in a previous study (Castro, 2008).

Distance education programs in Brazil have been used by the Universidade Aberta do Brasilas a possibility of training teachers in the distance mode to meet the demand for more teachers. The distance teacher education model can be very useful, especially in regions where universities or higher education institutions are not available, but there is no doubt as Moon (2008) explains it is a less expensive model of teacher training. One of the main problems is that the distance education model requires a certain level of student autonomy that is generally not developed in the Brazilian system. According to the data,

the teachers have computers at home, whether they know how to use them is another matter, but the fact that they have them makes it easier to implement distance education programs. Relating to the education of teachers' parents, the majority of them (57%) had only incomplete elementary education, and 14% were illiterate or studied only until the third grade. This is an indication of the low socioeconomic background of the teachers and explains the low cultural capital level of the municipal teachers. Only 19.4% of parents had a complete elementary education, 19.6% had a complete secondary education, and 9.4% had higher education. As mentioned by Verhine (2010), pedagogy students are female, older, the first person in their family to achieve higher education, read little, and lack cultural experiences. In that sense, the future teacher in Brazil will lack an essential trait of an educated person to pass on to the students, and the situation is very serious, if we do not change the working conditions, salaries, and start to attract better human resources. We will be unable to break the low quality cycle in Brazilian education.

As to their own education at the secondary level, the majority of the teachers, 69.6%, attended "normal school," the teacher training program; 20% attended the regular program; 9.7% attended the technical program. The "normal school" was a program attended mainly by girls who planned to become elementary teachers. The fact that almost 70% attended "normal school" reinforced the model of teaching as a female occupation. For instance, the city of Garuva in the state of Santa Catarina had the highest IDEB at 6.9% (this indicator of quality of Brazilian education combines results in the "Prova Brazil" and the rate of promotion of the students in the systems), and in this municipality, the majority of teachers attended regular secondary education and work more hours. The salary is higher, and they have a more professional profile.

Conditions of Work of Municipal Teachers

The hours the majority of the teachers worked was 31 to 40 hours (48.2%), and the second most frequent hours worked up to 20 hours (38.2%). Considering the hours of work, this result has been interpreted as a confirmation of the teaching profession as a female occupation, where there is always some space left for domestic work and family life. The majority of the teachers had tenure in the job because 81.7% were selected through public examination. In general, they work each day in one school (80.8%) from 5 to 8 hours (56.1%), or 4 hours (36%). As to experience in the municipality, they are quite stable, have tenure in their job, and the largest number of the respondents (30%) have worked for 10 to 20 years, and 25.3% have worked more than 20 years. In other words, this group of teachers is highly experienced.

The majority of the respondents worked as teachers in the initial grades of elementary school (43.4%); 21.4% taught in the final years of elementary school; 16.2% taught kindergarten and pre-school. Other professionals work as principals 6.5%, counselors, 2.8%, and other functions such as school secretary, 1.3%, and others, 6.9%. Early childhood education is a recent development in basic education in Brazil, and there is a lot of pressure to extend free public education to earlier years, but the law that establishes education from 6 years on has only recently been enacted, partially responding to this demand.

Most municipalities (88.4%) offered teachers a career plan. and the elements used in the evaluate the teachers were diplomas, 76.7%, years of work, 47.5%, personal development, 62.4%, evaluation of performance, 29.8%. The career plan seemed to be present in the majority of the municipalities, but because of fiscal law, the plans tend to be too conservative, adding very few financial improvements to the earnings of the teachers during a lifetime. In the data collection, only one municipality mentioned the benefits of the career plan in contrast to a nearby municipality that did not have it.

The majority of the educational systems offered opportunities of professional development for their teachers, 88.8%. Among the forms of professional development offered by the local education authority were listed in the

questionnaire courses offered for all teachers, seminars offered for all teachers in the locality, programs of study developed by the teachers, etc. Courses offered for all teachers was selected by 54.9% of the respondents. Seminars offered to all teachers in the system was the response of 44% of the respondents. The third most frequent answer was specific studies in the area of each teacher with 40.5%, and 33.4% said that proposals of study and of preparation were defined and developed by the teachers. The seminars and events that are offered to all teachers seemed to have no effect or very little effect on their professional development. In general, the programs developed by the teachers seemed to be more effective, or sometimes the teachers are not very effective at expressing their view (Frolich, 2009).

Asked if they worked in another educational system the great majority, said no. Only 14.6% worked in more than one system, and in general they worked in the state system (14.3%) and only 20 hours (14.6%). (In the public system in Brazil, since the Constitution of 1988and even before that, we have municipal systems that offer elementary education, a state system that offers secondary education, and the federal system that should offer higher education. Despite this division, the secondary technical education is offered by federal government.) Only 60.9% of the teachers said that they have a health insurance in their jobs, and of the teachers who have health insurance, 45% said that it was adequate to their needs.

As to monthly salary, the most frequent bracket was between 1001 and 1500 reais with 36.9% of the respondents, followed by the salary bracket of 501 to 1000 reais with 20.1%, and the third most frequent salary bracket between 1501 and 2000 reais with 16.1% of the respondents. Only 14.6% of the teachers earn between 2001 and 3000 reais. The minimum wage in Brazil is R$545, and this amount was changed in January, 2011, the previous one was R$510. The most frequent teacher salary level was between two and three minimum wages, the second most frequent was between one and two minimum wages, which is really a very low salary for unskilled workers.

Despite the low salaries, teachers seemed to be satisfied with their jobs as municipal teachers. Very satisfied was answered by 11.9% and satisfied by 55.4% of the teachers. With a low level of satisfaction 25.5% and not satisfied 4.0% almost 30% of the teachers are dissatisfied. It seems contradictory to be satisfied with such conditions, but the teachers say that they became teachers because they like to teach (87.2%); it is an activity that enhances personal development (33.9%); and it is an activity where they can manage work and family life (14.3).

As to the IDEB of the sample studied, we have IDEB for the initial years of elementary school and for the final years of elementary school. Considering the initial years, 34.9% of the sample was between 4.43 to 5.05; 7.4% were between 5.05 to 5.67: and a small group 2.5% had high results between 6.28 to 6.90. The results were significantly higher than the national mean which was 3.4% in 2005, 4.0% in 2007, and 4.4% in 2009. In relation to the final years, the results were lower, 24.3% were between 3.20 to 3.80; 7.90 % were from 3.80 to 4.40; 7.4% were from 5.00 to 5.60. We have to consider that the state of Paraná, only has the initial years of elementary education in municipal education, and in the states of Rio Grande do Sul and Santa Catarina, the division between the systems is not so rigid, but the number of schools with the final years present some variation.

Differences among the Three States

The states of Rio Grande do Sul, Santa Catarina, and Paraná were responsible for 45%, 19.4% and 35.4% of the data respectively, considering the number of questionnaires answered.

When the three states were compared regarding teacher education, the state of Santa Catarina had the better educated teacher population with 72% of them having done some graduate work at the level of specialization. This degree requires at least 360 hours of graduate work. The state of Paraná follows with 52.4%, and Rio Grande do

Sul with 51.2%. In 1994, when we first did a survey of superintendents of municipal education in the southern region of Brazil, Rio Grande do Sul was the state with the best indicators, but these changed as was shown in a recent article (Castro & Souza, 2009).

In the state of Santa Catarina, half of the respondents obtained their education in non-presential modes with 25.5% in the distance mode, 14.1% in a semi-presential mode, 8.1% in weekend courses, and 2.2% in vacation programs. These data raise some questions about the quality of teacher education and may be related to the absence of institutions in all regions of the state. In the other two states, the majority of the courses were taken at universities in a presential mode: 77.2% in Rio Grande do Sul and 72.9% in Paraná.

Regarding the number of teachers selected through public examination, again the state of Santa Catarina presents a lower percentage of teachers selected by public examination with only 56.1% versus 93.2% in the state of Paraná and 83.5% in the state of Rio Grande do Sul. The work load of the teachers the state of Santa Catarina presents a different distribution than the other two states. The majority of teachers tend to work more hours in Santa Catarina than in Paraná or Rio Grande do Sul. This could be related to the fact that a significant number of the teachers were not selected through public examination. In Santa Catarina only 21.6% work up to 20 hours, versus 39% in Rio Grande do Sul, and 46.2% in Paraná. In the 21 to 30 hour range, 19% of the teachers from Santa Catarina had that work load versus only 8.5% from Rio Grande do Sul, and 1.5% from Paraná. In the bracket of 31 to 40 hours, 55.3% of the teachers from Santa Catarina worked versus 44.8% from Rio Grande do Sul, and 49.5% from Paraná. Considering that almost half of the teachers in Santa Catarina have a simple contract, maybe they have to work more to have all the benefits of the tenured and public selected teachers.

It was found that there were a higher proportion of salaries in Santa Catarina, between 501 and 1000 reais with 29.2% of the total. However, Paraná is close with 26.1%. Rio Grande do Sul appears on the lower end, with 4.9% of salaries up to 500 reais (less than the minimum wage), but the other states are not far off, Santa Catarina with 3.9% and Paraná with 3.6%. Looking at it from another angle, Rio Grande do Sul has a higher percentage of high salaries, 20.6% between 2001 and 3000 reais versus 6.4% in Santa Catarina, and 11.5% in Paraná. In Rio Grande do Sul 12.6% of the salaries were over 3000 reais a month, as compared to 0.2% for Santa Catarina and 0.5% for Paraná. It would thus seem that salaries are higher in Rio Grande do Sul than in the two other states.

Differences between the Municipalities

Small size was the more important variable establishing differences between the municipalities. Teachers from small municipalities attended less university, 49.4% versus 67.8% teachers from medium-sized municipalities, and 81.3% teachers from large municipalities. Considering the location of the institution where they studied, only 21.6% of the teacher in small municipalities lived in the same place versus 69.3% of those living in medium size municipalities, and 64.2% living in large cities. Teachers from small communities tend to have attended more distance programs at 27.1%, semi presential at 12.9%, weekend courses at7.1%, or vacation programs at 2.4%. Adding up all these values 49.5% of the teachers in small municipalities had to use distance education and other alternative methods in order to receive an education. The situation is not very different for medium-size municipalities where 42.2% of the teachers have to use distance, semipresential, weekend courses, and vacation programs to get an education. Only in large municipalities did 81.1% of the teachers attend the presential mode of education.

An interesting finding was that in secondary education, teachers in small towns attended regular education at 30.3% versus 24.9% in medium size municipalities, and 17.9% in large municipalities. Probably in those cities a normal school was not available, and this explains why teachers were trained differently.

In small towns the number of teachers who work under a contract (28.3%) and not as employees who have obtained their job through public examinations is higher than in medium (17.4%) and large (13.2%) size municipalities. In small communities more teachers were working who were selected by indication of other teachers or persons at 9.3%, and teachers who are working under emergency contracts because of the need to fill a position was at 18.06%. In small towns the proportion of teachers earning very low salaries is higher than in medium or larger cities, 15.1% versus 7.6% in medium size cities, and 2.5% in large size cities. The proportion is similar in other salary brackets, lower in the category from 1001 to 1500 reais for teachers from small towns and slightly higher in the bracket from 2001 to 3000 reais.

As to the teaching job, in small municipalities there is a larger number of teachers of kindergarten and pre-school 31.1% versus 11.8 in medium size cities and 16.4% in large communities. Large municipalities tend to have teachers from a higher socio-economic background at 37%, and the number of computers in the home is low in larger municipalities where only 58.6% of the teachers have at least one computer at home; in medium size cities 73% of teachers had at least one computer; and in smaller communities 72% of the teachers had at least one computer.

Concluding Remarks

Analysis of the data showed that, despite all the progress, many Brazilian teachers do not yet have an adequate education to teach the students in such a way that will ensure quality education for all. The majority of teachers in southern Brazil are female, have a higher education degree, and attended normal school during their secondary education. They are married, have two children, work from 31 to 40 hours a week and earn between 1001 and 1500 reais. Salaries are low and the working conditions do not make the teaching profession attractive to young people. Yet, the majority of the teachers are satisfied with their work. The state of Santa Catarina presented greater differences regarding salaries, modality of education, and selection through public examination. The small municipalities presented more discrepant results when compared to medium size and large municipalities.

It is essential to have reliable information on the situation of teachers to implement policies to change the situation. If we do not know how many teachers we have, and where and how they are working, it is very hard to develop effective policies.

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THE ROLE OF STUDENT EVALUATIONS IN TEACHER CANDIDATES' USE OF THE REFLECTIVITY LOOP

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Abstract: An important ability for teachers around the world is to use information to improve their teaching regardless of whether this information comes from fellow teachers, administrators, or students. Teachers may have difficulty in obtaining this information from colleagues or administrators if they teach in sparsely populated areas, which are the norm in many parts of the world. A simple way for teachers to access information on their instructional performance is to use students' evaluations. This study was conducted to determine whether teacher candidates in a pre-student teaching practicum could analyze data gathered from student evaluations of teacher performance. Teacher candidates were partnered by content. Teams planned, taught, and evaluated lessons during a ten-day practicum experience conducted at local schools. At the conclusion of this experience, teacher candidates administered an evaluation of teaching performance to their students. Teacher candidates were then instructed to review the results using a *what, now what,* and *so what* format. When teacher candidates are educated in this type of evaluation procedure, they can translate it into their future teaching practice, thus using the reflectivity loop.

Keywords: teacher candidates, reflection, evaluation, instructional performance

Introduction

Throughout the world, teacher quality is a topic of interest, debate, and concern. Most nations strive to give their children a positive education, and teacher quality is a cornerstone of that education. Creating a system to evaluate that quality is important, but regardless of who does the evaluation, the necessary component is for teachers to reflect upon and use the information to improve their instructional practices.

One method of assessing teacher quality is through observation and evaluation. Due to the inconclusive nature of the research on teacher quality attributes, "the best way to identify a teacher's effectiveness is to observe classroom performance" (Haycock & Hanusheck, 2010, p. 50). Traditional teacher evaluation has come in the form of observations from supervisors or administrators. These observations have been used to assess a wide variety of teaching behaviors and provide feedback that can be used to improve performance. Unfortunately, in some locations teachers may not have access to administrators or supervisors to conduct these observations.

Students are a source of feedback readily available to all teachers. In England, students have been used to do observations similar to that of a supervisor (Mansell, 2008). Training on conducting observations is provided to students from age eleven and older. These students observe teachers and provide feedback. Using a well-designed evaluation, students can provide teachers with authentic feedback on daily instructional practices (Wiggins, 2010). The importance of including student feedback in student teaching experiences is consistent with classroom virtues of critical thinking, reflective reasoning, and collaborative citizenship for which all educators plan and hope to transmit when engaging their learners (Zhao, 2007).

One effective practice that has been linked to improve teaching performance is that of reflection or reflectivity (Killeavy & Moloney, 2009). Reflection is a critical approach to instruction where teachers analyze, evaluate, and develop their practice (Minott, 2010). Through reflection teachers may formulate new ways to meet learner needs through instruction (Kong, 2010). Reflectivity is a multi-step process loop where teachers begin with using effective practices in their instruction. Then teachers

collect data on the behavior of interest. Finally teachers reflect on the data and make changes (Crabtree-Groff, 2010). This iterative process can be illustrated using the reflectivity loop designed by the authors of this study (see Figure 1).

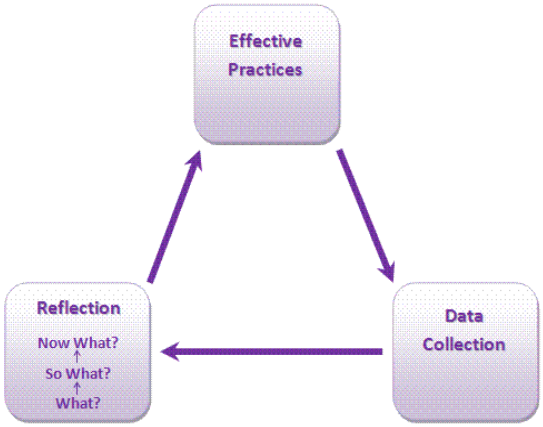

Figure 1. The reflectivity loop

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to evaluate teacher candidates' initial use of *the reflectivity loop*. Specifically answering the following research questions:

1. How do teacher candidates in a pre-student teaching practicum analyze data gathered from their students' evaluations of teacher performance?
2. How do teacher candidates set goals for improvement based on those students' *evaluations?*

Method

This three-semester study used a mixed methods design collecting both quantitative and qualitative data to answer the research questions. The research was conducted during teacher candidates' first semester of a two-semester pedagogy block for secondary education majors from various content areas (e.g., social studies, science, language arts, physical education, etc.). The first semester is composed of four separate courses, which are taken concurrently. This semester has a 10-day teaching practicum embedded into the coursework. The practicum requires teacher candidates to work in pairs (though one or two each semester had to work alone because no one else in the block had the same content area) to develop unit plans in their content areas and then teach the unit to a class of students.

Participants

Participants included pairs of undergraduate content area majors/minors seeking teaching licenses in secondary education enrolled in first semester of the pedagogy courses. These teacher candidates ranged in age from 21 to 46 years. Approximately 40% were male and 60% female. A total of 125 teacher candidates participated across the three semesters (semester one, n=40; semester two, n=50; semester three, n=35).

Setting

Teacher candidates were placed in a practicum in an urban/suburban school district in the western United States. Placements were in specific middle schools (grades 7-9). Different schools were used for each semester of the study; however, each school consisted of a student population of 1500 to 2000 students. The student population at each school consisted of a variety of ethnic groups, learning abilities, and socioeconomic backgrounds.

Instruments

During the 10-day practicum, teacher candidates were traditionally assessed using two distinct measures: (a) teaching faculty evaluated candidates using an observation protocol that addresses specific teaching competencies aligned with state standards and course content; and (b) cooperating teachers evaluated candidates on their teaching using a rubric developed by faculty in the Teacher Education Dept. To measure the teacher candidates' use of the reflectivity loop and to answer the research questions, an additional measure was added: the *Student Evaluation of Teacher Effectiveness* (SETE). The SETE was introduced in the fall 2009 semester. At the conclusion of the practicum, students in each of the classes scored the teaching pair using the Likert-scale SETE. Survey questions focused on the areas which were taught and highlighted during the instruction in the pedagogy courses (see Table 1.)

After the fall 2009 pilot data were collected, the reflection component was added to the study. Beginning in spring 2010, each teacher candidate was asked to evaluate the data based on three questions: *What did the data say*? *So what does this mean*? *Now what will you do for student teaching?* It was felt by the university faculty that these questions would allow each teacher candidate to evaluate what he or she had taught, compare what the students perceived had happened, and finally set goals for improvement during student teaching.

Procedures

The study took place across three semesters. Each semester included different teacher candidates. Teacher candidates were taught a variety of course work for twelve weeks then experienced a 10-day teaching practicum in their content area. At the conclusion of the practicum, the students in each classroom were asked to evaluate their teacher candidate(s) with a survey that used a four-point Likert scale. Teacher candidates collected these data and analyzed it by using averages and reflected on teaching performance. The candidates input the data into a spreadsheet so an analysis by the researchers could be made. As with any research, some of the data were discarded because of accuracy in translation of the student responses to the spreadsheet provided.

Results and Discussion

Data were analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The first question was answered quantitatively through the survey. The second question was answered through the qualitative data gathered from the candidates' reflections.

In analyzing the questions asked of the students, it was determined question 1, dealing with subject matter, was not under the researchers' control; however, it was important that student teachers know their content areas, and this question provided information about the university content area instruction. Questions 9, 11, and 12 were determined to be dispositions. While it is difficult to teach character, we do want the teacher candidates' dispositions to be developed over our course series, and these questions provided information about this development. The remaining questions (numbers 2-8 & 13) related directly to content taught across our courses.

Quantitative Data: Spring 2010

Individual team scores on survey questions ranged across teaching teams from a low of 2.1 (team 5, question 9) to a high of 4.0 (team 3, question 1) on the four-point Likert scale. Team survey averages ranged from 3.0 to 3.7. Across teams survey question averages ranged from 2.4 to 3.8, because all team averages were within one standard deviation below the mean, for purposes of analysis, anything rated 3.0 or below was considered a weakness, and any rating 3.4 and above was considered a strength (see Table 1).

Question 1 was rated overall mean of 3.4. This score was a strength and provided positive feedback on candidates' content knowledge. The dispositional questions rated an average of 3.4. However, these question data included a low score of 3.1 in helping students want to learn more which was question 9. This score indicated that there was still a need for instruction in this area. In analyzing the data pertaining to questions related to course series content, the candidates' greatest strength was in the organization and preparation of lessons, question 8 at 3.6. Other strengths included candidates' ability to involve students in a variety of activities, question 7, and answering students' questions, question 2, both at 3.5. Weakness was only noted in one area, teaching lessons that were challenging, question 3 at 3.0. This weakness was noted as an area of concern in the pilot data as well and indicated a need for candidates to analyze unit pretests before they begin teaching the unit, and then modify their instruction accordingly.

Qualitative Data: Spring, 2010

After the candidates submitted their quantitative data, they were asked as teams to complete papers which contained the questions listed above in the "Instruments" section. The themes

that emerged from the *What*? and *So what*? comments were (a) instructional strategies, (b) professionalism, (c) lessons were not challenging enough, (d) importance of the lessons or helping students want to learn the information, and (e) showing enthusiasm for the information being taught. Each theme supported the quantitative data. Many of the candidates' comments were similar. The following is a sampling of the comments from each category:

Instructional strategies

- "The area we excelled was using a variety of teaching strategies."
- "Students really liked the activities and cooperative learning and jeopardy, cookie lab, and red or blue dot activities."
- "I need to teach [using] a variety of activities."

Table 1
Survey question averages across semester groups

Question	Fall 09 (Pilot data)		Spring 10		Fall 10	
My student teacher(s):	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1- know the subject matter they taught	3.4	0.2	3.4	0.3	3.5	0.2
2- answered our questions when we didn't understand	3.3	0.2	3.5	0.3	3.6	0.2
3- taught lessons that were challenging	3.1	0.3	3.0	0.6	3.1	0.3
4- explained why it was important to learn the information taught.	3.2	0.3	3.3	0.3	3.3	0.3
5- taught lessons in a way I could understand	3.3	0.2	3.3	0.4	3.4	0.3
6- taught interesting lessons	3.2	0.3	3.3	0.4	3.2	0.4
7- involved the class in a variety of activities	3.3	0.3	3.5	0.3	3.5	0.3
8- was organized and prepared for every lesson	3.3	0.3	3.6	0.2	3.7	0.1
9- helped me want to learn more	3.2	0.3	3.1	0.4	3.1	0.3
10- used fair tests	3.3	0.2	3.4	0.3	3.4	0.2
11- cared about me as a person	3.3	0.3	3.4	0.2	3.4	0.2
12- showed respect for everyone in my class	3.5	0.3	3.7	0.2	3.7	0.2
13- helped me when I didn't understand what they taught	3.4	0.3	3.3	0.6	3.4	0.2
Dispositions			3.4	0.2	3.4	0.2
Content related			3.3	0.4	3.4	0.3
Overall			3.4	0.4	3.4	0.3

Professionalism

- "We were effective with establishing rapport and giving a clear purpose for our unit. "We positively impacted student learning."
- "Certain students felt that we were unprepared and uncaring."

Lessons not challenging

- "The most negative data (were) that the lessons weren't challenging enough."
- "The area we could improve is to make the class more challenging."

Importance of the lessons/helping students to want to learn

- "Our greatest weakness was helping students want to learn more."
- "I definitely need to work on expressing why my lessons are important and how they [the students] can apply it outside the classroom."

Teacher enthusiasm

- "I could have demonstrated greater enthusiasm through telling about the authors and the backgrounds of the stories, and letting students relate to them more personally even within our limited time."
- "It means we need to work on creating more interest in the lessons—creating more excitement and motivation."

These reflective statements helped the candidates understand both their strengths and weaknesses in the classroom. It was important that they have this understanding because most were scheduled to student teach the following

semester. They would be teaching on their own for approximately twelve weeks. They spoke to these issues on the "*Now what*?" portion of their summary paper. Again this section was analyzed for emerging themes, and the teacher candidates' comments supported the themes:

Establishing rapport and motivating students

- "Be mindful about my presence and remember to establish rapport from the get go."
- "Find ways to get to know, build a relationship with, and challenge students."
- "I'd also like to know my students as individuals in order to help them more fully."

Instructional strategies

- "I want to incorporate a variety of strategies that involve students in more active learning."
- "I want to be able to more fully engage my students with hands-on activities."
- "I hope to expand my 'bag of tricks' so that I can eventually have a tool for every student."

Differentiating instruction or creating meaningful instruction

- "Offer differentiated instruction by allowing students a selection of choices on assignments."
- "I will meet the needs of all learners by adapting curriculum to meet diverse needs."
- "Do not be afraid to challenge students."

Making connections to the curriculum

- "[I need] to provide more application/reasoning for lessons so students will see the importance behind the lessons."
- "I want to relate my content area to students' lives better."

Personal teaching goals

- "I want to be all around more successful. Especially, I want to improve in the areas of explaining why it was important to learn the information taught, knowing the subject matter, & helping when they [the students] don't understand."

Though these areas were difficult to fully achieve in a 10-day practicum, the candidates had some good ideas to improve their instructional practices in the future. Each of the categories was discussed in at least one core course. Throughout the coursework and into the practicum, reflection has played a key role in improving professional practices.

Quantitative Data: Fall, 2010

Individual team scores on survey questions ranged across teaching teams from a low of 2.4 (team 1, question 9) to a high of 3.9 (team 2, question 7; team 9, question 12; and team 14, question 8). Team survey averages ranged from 3.1 to 3.7. Across teams, survey question averages ranged from 2.6 to 3.8. Because all team averages were within one standard deviation below the mean, for purposes of analysis, anything rated 3.1 or below was considered a weakness, and anything 3.3 and above was considered a strength (see Table 1).

Question 1 was rated over all 3.5. This score again is a strength and provides positive feedback on candidates' content knowledge. The dispositional questions rated an average of 3.4. However, this average did include a low score of 3.1 in helping students want to learn more, question 9. This remains an area of concern. In analyzing the data pertaining to questions related to course series content, the candidates' greatest strength continued to be question 8 being organized and prepared at 3.7. All other questions were considered strengths other than questions 6 and 3, interesting lessons and challenging lessons respectively, at 3.1 each.

Qualitative Data: Fall, 2010

Unlike the past semester, this semester each teacher candidate filled out the What?, So what?, and Now what? form. The qualitative data for this semester did not have as many themes as the spring 2010, data did. The data fell into two major categories: (a) challenging lessons and (b) professionalism. It was surprising that the categories from the last semester were not represented in these data; however, this difference could be due to an increased awareness of the problematic categories by the

professors; thus, course work, instructional practices, and materials were altered to address the issues.

The theme with the largest number was that the lessons were not challenging. These data supported the quantitative data listed on question 3. Of the 50 candidates for the fall 2010 semester, 33 made comments about their lessons not being challenging enough for the students. One candidate summarized, "This means that we should have taught lessons in a more intellectual manner and had the students get involved in deep discussions about the material."

The other category was that of professionalism. In some respects this category should not be too surprising because the professors had a renewed emphasis on professionalism and ethics throughout the semester. Many of the candidates spoke to the fact they were well prepared, organized, and knew the material. This one quote is indicative of what many said, "It seems for the most part that the students had a good time and felt like we were well-prepared, willing to help, and respectful to each of them."

The themes for the *Now what*? data were the same as last semesters' themes. Those themes were: (a) establishing rapport and motivating students, (b) using a variety of strategies, (c) differentiating instruction, (d) creating challenging and meaningful instruction, (e) making connections and helping students understand the relevance of the material, and (f) personal goals for improvement. The comments were along the same ideas expressed in the previous semester so specific comments will not be added here. It was speculated that this could be due to the consistency of instructional language used by the professors across the semesters. However, two candidates had summary statements which reflect the group as a whole. One candidate said,

> My goals for student teaching will be first to strive to improve overall in all that I do. I need to keep in mind that some students are exceptional; therefore, a need to present enough challenge is something to remember. Also, I want to encourage my students to want to do well and learn the content I teach. [I need] to explain why we are learning and what we cover is important.

Another student summarized,

> I want to give a very thorough student survey and pre-test to better determine students' ability levels. Also, I should try to accommodate better for students' diverse learning needs by giving alternative assignments and adapting teaching materials.

These qualitative data supported the quantitative data throughout the study. Differentiating the curriculum and making lessons more challenging are two areas in which the professors teaching the core courses should emphasize to a greater degree.

Limitations

A couple of limitations were evident in this study. One limitation relates to the ability of students to fully ascertain candidates' knowledge, beliefs, and actual skills displayed during the practicum. Other studies have had similar results on asking students to evaluate candidates (McCullick, Metzler, Cicek, Jackson, & Vickers, 2008). The second limitation relates to the ability of candidates to use the information their students gave them in an effort to improve their pedagogical practices. Because reflection is the foundation of the reflectivity loop, teacher candidates must be taught how to reflect to improve their instructional practices. Therefore, because this study was conducted during a single practicum experience for the individual teacher candidate, he or she may not have received enough instruction on how to reflect effectively. Also, this study did not ascertain if the teacher candidates actually improved their pedagogical practices based on this information. Further research needs to be conducted.

Summary

This study was concerned with the role students can play in providing feedback that informs pre-service teaching practice. Research has indicated that students can evaluate teacher performance and that with practice, they can give better

feedback (McCullick et al., 2008). As effective evaluation strategies of quality student teaching programs continue to expand, little attention has been devoted to how undergraduate teacher candidates in a pre-student teaching practicum use direct feedback from the students on whom they practiced their pedagogical skills. While our study was inconclusive, broader implications can be drawn underscoring the value of this type of inquiry.

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STUDENT EXPERIENCES OF THE VALUE OF A STUDENT ENTERPRISE PROGRAMME

by Ingebjørg Aarek and Anne Selvik Ask
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Abstract: *Students in the area of food and health at the Department of Public Health, Sport, and Nutrition at the University of Agder (UiA) have, since 2003, been given the opportunity to start, run, and close down a student enterprise as part of their examination in one course in their 3rd or 4th year. This article reports on a study to identify how students value the experience. Questionnaire responses from 56 past students show the student preferred* enterprise *learning to traditional learning and found the enterprise method engaging. Most students agreed partly or completely that enterprise learning was an active and enjoyable method of learning and that it helped students develop responsibility for their own learning. An implication of this finding for teachers and teacher education is that the enterprise approach to learning should be instituted in the teacher education curriculum not only in Norway, but also in other countries, so that teachers are comfortable using it in whatever subjects they teach.*

Keywords: enterprise approach, enterprise learning, enterprise method

Introduction

The dream of educators on all levels of education is for active students who not only take part in their own learning, but who take responsibility for it. Entrepreneurship is one method to make this happen. Norway's Action Plan (Ministry of Education and Research [MER], 2010a) states that "Entrepreneurship can be a tool and a working method to stimulate learning in different subjects and in basic skills. Entrepreneurship in education and training may also further develop personal characteristics and attitudes" (p. 7).

The aim of entrepreneurship in education is therefore to develop personal qualities and attitudes, and formal knowledge and skills. The National Curriculum for teachers' education emphasises pedagogical use of entrepreneurship in the education (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2010b). Home economics, or Food and Health as it has been renamed in Norway, is part of teachers' education, and it was natural to integrate entrepreneurship in this subject, too.

Entrepreneurship is not a new idea. It has been, and still is, related to business, management, and the commercial sector (Mahieu, 2006), and it may still be seen in this way by many. However, using entrepreneurship as a method to stimulate learning in other subjects is a different way of using it. Pedagogic entrepreneurship is a new learning and educational method which is still being developed (Riese, 2010).

Very little research has been done on using entrepreneurship as a method for learning, and even less on how it can be used in teacher training. However, all Norwegian teachers are expected to be able to use entrepreneurship in their teaching (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2005)

In this article a development programme in entrepreneurship in Food and Health at the University of Agder (UIA) is described. In English literature the Norwegian term *entreprenørskap* is translated to both entrepreneurship and enterprise, and to a certain extent, used interchangeably. This article uses entrepreneurship in a pedagogical sense, as a method for learning, while enterprise is used for the actual work the students carry out. Entrepreneurship is explained within the context of related literature, and the findings of the research into the student experiences of the programme are presented followed by recommendations for expansion of the concept of student enterprise.

The term *pupil* is used for children in primary and secondary education, while *student* is used for people in higher education.

Entrepreneurship in Education and Training

Entrepreneurship is defined in the Norwegian Strategic Plan as being: "... a dynamic and social process where individuals, alone or in collaboration, identify opportunities for innovation and act upon these by transforming ideas into practical and targeted activities, whether in social, cultural or economic context" (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, Ministry of Trade and Industry, Ministry of Local Government and Regional Development (Rev. ed.), 2006, p. 4).

Figure 1, taken from the Action Plan (MER, 2010a, p. 8), visualises the personal qualities and attitudes, often called entrepreneurial qualities, which comprise competence in entrepreneurship. The students develop personal qualities and attitudes and learn through using entrepreneurial working methods and innovative processes.

The first strategic plan was published in 2004, and the government had a very ambitious vision: They wanted the Norwegian educational system to be amongst the best in the world when it came to training in entrepreneurship (Nærings- og handelsdepartementet . . . , 2004).

In the revised Strategic Plan *See the Opportunities and make them work!* (2006), the government's vision was to use entrepreneurship as a means to renew education and create quality and multiplicity in order to foster creativity and innovation. In the newest Action Plan, *Entrepreneurship in Education and Training – from compulsory school to higher education 2009-2014* (MER, 2010a, p. 7), the objective is still to be a leading force when it comes to entrepreneurship in education and training. The quality of entrepreneurship education and training is to be strengthened at all levels and areas of the educational system.

As a result of this, entrepreneurship has been written into the Norwegian central curriculum for schools. According to Riese (2010), the connection to the sphere of economics is played down by coupling the term entrepreneurship with pedagogy and learning processes. Attention is also given to create a learning environment where pupils can develop personal qualities and attitudes and gain knowledge and skills.

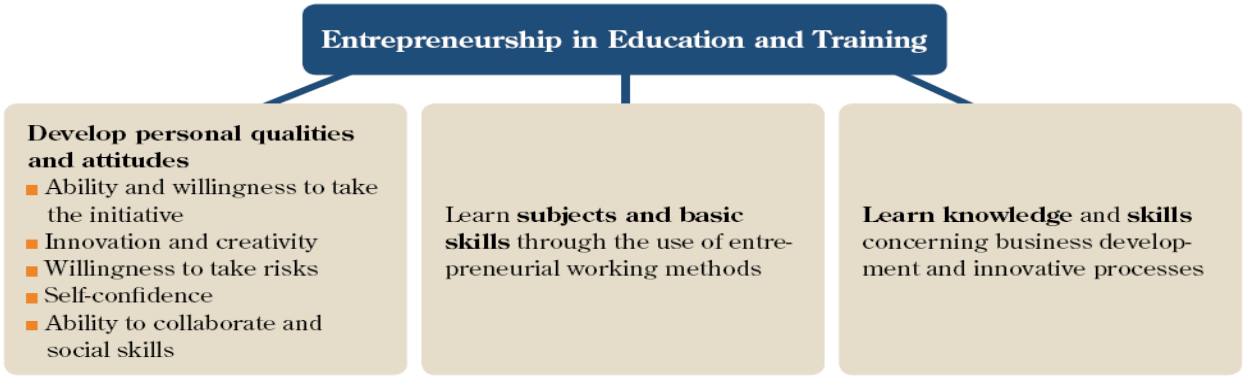

Figure 1. Entrepreneurship in Education and Training (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research 2010a, p. 8) [Used with permission.]

Entrepreneurship and innovation are often used interchangeably. Innovation indicates something new, an idea, an action, or a material thing. In entrepreneurship there will always be some element of innovation, but the degree of novelty will vary. Development of a business will mean something new, at least for the entrepreneur (Jensen, Kolvereid & Erikson,

2006). Ødegård (2003) defines innovation as a planned change with the aim of improving what is current practice. Innovation in an educational context includes development work, school development, educational changes or reform work.

The Norwegian engagement in entrepreneurship has emphasized a broader perspective on entrepreneurship than business establishment. Entrepreneurial qualities can be stimulated through different teaching methods and learning strategies (Rotefoss, Nyvold, & Ovesen, 2008). Ødegård (2003) defines pedagogical entrepreneurship as "action-oriented teaching and learning in a social context with the individual self as a player for their own learning, and where personal characteristics, abilities, knowledge and skills are the basis and direction for the education" (p. 15).

An extended understanding of the term entrepreneurship includes varied working methods; focus on the pupils' background experience, interdisciplinary, pupil participation and an adapted learning environment (Johansen, Skåholt, & Schanke, 2008).

Learning processes hindering and encouraging entrepreneurship

Johannisson and Madsén (1997, p. 119) formulated a table that shows the different factors that hinders and encourages entrepreneurship (see Table 1).

Table 1
Criteria for learning processes hindering and encouraging entrepreneurship [Used with permission.]

	Organising	**Communication**
Restraining factors (traditional teaching methods)	- Strict time management - Fragmented subjects - Situational learning - External management and control - Separate school knowledge	- Monological environment Question/answer pattern - Blue print culture - All equal - Cognitive focusing
Promotional factors (entrepreneurial teaching methods)	- Continuous learning - Problem oriented learning across disciplines - Inner intentionality - Responsibility for own learning - Learning for life	- Dialogic environment - Wonder/probe pattern - Differences as basis for learning - Meta-cognitive focus

This table lists the important factors which promote and restrain entrepreneurship. As it clearly shows, the restraining factors often used in traditional teaching do not facilitate entrepreneurship.

A study conducted in Norway by Harris-Christensen and Eide (2007) confirms that there is a relevant contrast between traditional teaching methods and entrepreneurial teaching methods. Their informants from secondary schools and universities felt that making mistakes in young enterprise context was an essential part of learning. This is in contrast to what the students experience in the normal school subjects. The authors attribute this to the wonder/probe pattern versus question/answer pattern as seen in the table.

In entrepreneurship, one of the most important tasks for the teacher is to create a learning environment that promotes creativity, problem solving and critical ability in the pupils (Ødegård, 2003). This is in contrast to teaching that is often characterized by a transfer of knowledge from the owner of the knowledge (the teacher) to the pupil who does not own it (Ødegård, 2000).

The entrepreneurial learning processes build on what Bjørgen (1992) calls a holistic learning concept. A holistic learning process is in contrast to what he calls an amputated learning concept. Bjørgen argues that the traditional concept of learning has too simple a notion on what learning is and how it takes place. He also believes that traditional school learning is characterized by much amputated learning. This has adverse consequences for the pupils' learning process. The pupils are given a problem, and they work on the problem with the examination in mind. The amputated learning ends with an examination. Using the holistic learning concept, the pupils discover a problem, they try to solve it realistically, and link it to their own experiences. They end up by trying out their solution in practice.

Berglund and Holmgren (2007) ask whether entrepreneurship in schools is just "The Emperor's new Clothing." They conclude by saying that maybe entrepreneurship is something as simple as not just talking about it, but doing it. It is about letting the pupils develop their skills and put their knowledge and experiences into action so that they manage to navigate in society.

The 2006 Strategic Plan puts forward five criteria for pupils' learning environment. These criteria will contribute to increase entrepreneurship activities in schools and to fulfilment of the curriculum. The criteria are stimulation and development of creativity, pupil participation and active learning, interdisciplinary work form, collaboration between schools and local business life and productive work (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research et al., 2006).

Young people today are faced with employment challenges related to new types of work and disciplines. To meet these challenges it is necessary both for pupils at primary level and students in higher education to acquire entrepreneurial qualities like creativity, ability to innovate, and to see and utilize possibilities. Entrepreneurial qualities can be stimulated through different types of education and learning strategies. These are valuable qualities both for employees and for those who want to start their own business (Rotefoss et al., 2008). Young people must qualify for a future where they increasingly will have to create their own place of work instead of searching for a workplace that somebody else has created for them (Ødegård, 2000).

The knowledge society requires a continuous development of abilities and competencies such as the skill to develop abilities like creativity, self-discipline, innovation, and entrepreneurial qualities. The knowledge society requires an education system that develops such abilities and competencies and promotes lifelong learning. Such is a society where people for different reasons continuously re-educate themselves or start on a completely new education (Frønes & Brustad, 2000).

Ødegård (2000) states that we as educators have a need to give pupils and students advice quickly. By doing this we prevent them from doing their own fruitful reflections related to the dilemma that they face. The teacher's role is to ask questions that will further the pupils' learning process. It is not about giving solutions, but leaving it to the pupils to find the solutions. At the same time, the teacher has to be ready to step in when necessary. The teacher's task is to help the pupils to handle dilemmas by using structure, theory, and practical action. It is important to make sure that learning takes place, but at the same time avoid making the pupils passive recipients of teaching.

Johansen, Eide, and Harris-Christensen (2006) formulated a status description of relevant research projects on entrepreneurship education in Norwegian schools in the period from 2000 until October 2006. The report states what we know and what we need to know more about. We know that participation in entrepreneurial concepts, like young enterprise and student enterprise, increases the desire for students to establish own business. It increases confidence in their own skills when it comes to establishing and operating their own business, and increases

the frequency of business establishment. Furthermore participation in entrepreneurial concepts has a positive impact on many participants' cooperation skills, self-esteem, problem solving ability, and competence in relation to establishing and operating their own business. School becomes more exciting, and unity develops among students and pupils/teacher. It is considered to be a good teaching method by most teachers and pupils/students (Johansen et al., 2006).

In 2007 Harris-Christensen and Eide conducted a pilot study on entrepreneurship education with the aim of gaining insight into pupils' and students' experiences with youth enterprise and/or student enterprise. Their conclusion is that participation in enterprise is appropriate for generating entrepreneurs. The participants learn how to translate ideas into practical and targeted activities, and at the same time, they strengthen their personal qualities and therefore more easily regard themselves as future entrepreneurs. The authors also found that self-directed learning was a central element in the participants' learning process. Johansen et al. (2008) report that "enterprise is a muscle that can be trained" (p. 21). This illustrates that student enterprise facilitates this kind of training. To become an entrepreneur means to a large extent to develop the entrepreneur's own personal qualities and attitudes rather than subject-specific knowledge.

In order to be able to meet the challenges of today's society, it is important that entrepreneurial learning processes are included in the more traditional teaching in the schools. It is included in the curriculum plans in the Knowledge Promotion Reform (Harris-Christensen & Eide, 2007). To include more entrepreneurship in education means to shift the point of gravity from passivity and dependency towards activity and independence. The focus must be shifted from result to process, from reproduction to innovation, from detailed learning to understanding connections, problem solving, and lifelong learning (Backström-Widjeskog, 2008).

Background for the Research Project

Food and Health is an optional subject for teacher training students which they can choose in their 3rd or 4th year. All students studying Food and Health at UiA get a theoretical introduction to enterprise, and they learn how to start and run a student enterprise. If they choose to run a student enterprise, they will get this approved as their examination in one subject. Lecturers are available to the students as contact teachers or mentors, and they also observe the different activities. The students in the enterprises produce a written examination paper where they describe what they have done. They look at their enterprise in a meta-perspective, and reflect upon how things have worked out, and what they could have done differently. This paper is presented to the subject teacher and fellow students.

The research project reported in this article builds on a development programme implemented from 2003-2009 with a total of 115 students and 25 student enterprises. In the research project students who ran student enterprises in the years 2003-2008 were included. In this period there were a total of 19 student enterprises with 95 students involved.

Method

To ascertain the value of the students' experience of the enterprise programme a questionnaire with closed and open-ended questions was administered to students who participated in this programme. The questionnaire used a 7 point Likert scale (where 1 meant disagree completely, and 7 meant agree completely).With this method, opinions are expressed by specific statements, and the respondents could mark to what level they agree or disagree with the statement (Befring, 2007). Items in the questionnaire asked respondents why they chose to take part in the enterprise, what they learned by participating, and of what use was it to them after the course. To gain a deeper understanding of the value and improvement potential of the concept, we included some open-ended questions about their learning outcome and how UiA can improve conditions for students who want to engage in

student enterprise. We also asked the students to compare working with enterprise to traditional teaching.

The questionnaire was distributed by e-mail, but a few phone interviews were also conducted. The phone interview as the initial data collection method proved to be inappropriate due to time constraint. So a change was made to use email. A text message was sent to former students asking for their e-mail address so that email the questionnaire could be emailed to them as an alternative to the phone interview. A text reminder was sent out after two weeks. Questionnaires were sent to 63 students; 56 responses were received. The target group consisted of 95 persons, and with 56 answers, the response rate was 59 %. Reasons for the low response rate include old mobile phone numbers not in use, and some students were abroad and could not be contacted. The respondents were between 20 and 30 years of age; there were 49 female students and 7 male students, and most of them were still continuing their studies.

Results

The research project examined the teacher education students' experience with student enterprise as a learning method and what value it had for them afterwards, professionally and personally. Questionnaire responses to the closed items were grouped into three categories: *disagree completely* (1-2), *agree partly (3-5)* and *agree completely* (6-7), and then summated. Thus a 7-point Likert scale was reduced to three categories (see Table 2).

The reasons for running an enterprise varied, but most of the students chose enterprise because it was interesting (31) and because it was a different form of examination (31). The respondents said that they had not so far had much use for the experience, but that they used it in general in their activities as students or teachers All students said that they were happy to get the opportunity to run an enterprise at UiA, and that it was a smart choice.

Table 2
What the students learned about working with student enterprise

	Disagree completely (1-2)	Agree partly (3-5)	Agree completely (6-7)
Creativity	2	38	16
Problem solving	2	24	30
Cooperation	1	13	42
Self-confidence	6	29	21
Business establishment	3	22	31

Working with student enterprise, the students were challenged in many areas. Apart from the subject matter, Table 2 shows that they learned most about cooperating, but also about being creative, solving problems, self-confidence, and business establishment.

We also wanted to know how the students experienced working in student enterprise versus traditional education based on the model by Johannisson and Madsén (1997) processed by Ødegård (2003) and the model by Bjørgen (1992). (See Table 3).

Most students agreed partly or agreed completely that working in enterprise was characterized by learning across disciplines, responsibility for one's own learning, learning for life, communication between participants, and subject learning. As one student said, "You get experiences that you would not get through teaching. You have to go through the process

Table 3
Work in student enterprise versus traditional learning (traditional learning in brackets)

	Disagree completely (1-2)	Agree partly (3-5)	Agree completely (6-7)
Fragmented subjects	19 (4)	32 (34)	3 (18)
Learning across disciplines	1 (5)	25 (39)	30 (12)
Responsibility for own learning	0 (2)	20 (36)	36 (18)
Pure subject matter	30 (7)	21 (39)	5 (9)
Learning for life	1 (2)	24 (29)	31 (25)
Communication between participants	1 (7)	14 (36)	41 (13)
Question/answer pattern	37 (6)	15 (38)	1 (8)
Work with exam in mind	11 (1)	36 (29)	7 (26)
Subject learning, theory	4 (0)	40 (26)	12 (30)

yourself, step by step nothing is served on a silver tray! Then you really learn!"

Traditional learning was more characterized by fragmented subjects and less by responsibility for one's own learning, less learning for life, and less communication between participants. This teaching approach was also characterized by a question/answer pattern and working with the examination in mind. However, the students experienced that both approaches – the enterprise and the traditional – provided good subject learning. This is well in accordance with the theory put forward by Ødegård (2000) about criteria that inhibit and promote learning and the theory of Bjørgen (1992) about amputated and holistic learning concepts. The difference between these two concepts was not as large as expected. The reason for this may be that the subject, Food and Health, to a large extent, is a practical subject and therefore has many elements of enterprise integrated, a fact that many of the students recognised and commented on.

When asked, in an open item, why the concept of student enterprise is so good, the students responded:

- You get the possibility to do your own thinking and be creative
- You learn cooperation by give and take and reaching compromises
- You learn in a different way and gain much different knowledge you otherwise would not have got.
- You find solutions to problems that you would not find in textbook.

When asked about what UiA could have done better, the students answered:

- More information at the beginning, this is a new concept for most students.
- Students from previous enterprises could have shared their experiences.

In the beginning it was difficult for the students to grasp the concept of entrepreneurship. It is therefore crucial to give sufficient and good clear information at the start, preferably by students who have had the experience of running student enterprises.

Conclusion and Consequences for Further Work

The essence of enterprise is, as expressed by a student: "You do it, you don't just learn about it." Our project has shown that enterprise is a method that leads to creative and active students who take responsibility for their own learning. However, good clear information and motivation are crucial in the start-up phase. Student enterprise creates engagement, work enjoyment, collaboration and responsibility. The students gain professional skills and experience in business establishment. At the same time they develop personal qualities and attitudes and ability to solve problems and cooperate. They extend their borders and self-confidence and experience the ability to cope. This coincides with the findings of other researchers (Harris-Christensen & Eide, 2007; Rotefoss et al., 2008).

The method is seen as a positive way to learn. One respondent expressed it in this way: "Hectic, but great fun". It is important that the enterprise is arranged in such a way that the students get credit for the work they put into a student enterprise. Therefore enterprise has to be included in the curriculum and the term's plans.

For the students of education it is a good experience to have tried a concept that they might have to use as a teacher later. It is also a useful experience to have if they later in life should want to create their own workplace. In addition they learn a lot about the subject area that they have chosen to concentrate on. They acquire knowledge about making a budget and keeping accounts, marketing, service, cooperation and solving problems. Much of this knowledge and skills can be transferred to other subject areas in school and also to life outside the school. Very few students have so far had direct use of their experience with student enterprise. However, they said that they used the experience in a general way in their present work or studies. Several students said that they would like to use the experience to start young enterprises when they start working as teachers.

Entrepreneurship can be a universal tool and a working method for learning. In our research we used it as a method for learning in a Food and Health course as part of teacher training. We believe it can also be used in other subjects and at all levels of education. Entrepreneurship gives young people the ability to create their own workplace in the future (Johansen et al., 2006). Therefore it is important that the enterprise approach to learning should be a part of the curriculum for teacher education everywhere, especially in developing countries, so that teachers are comfortable using it in every subject they teach. This is in accordance with one of the eight key competences in education and training defined by the EU (Norwegian Ministry of Education Research, 2010a).

Part of the reason for the success with student enterprise can be summed up in the words of the Chinese philosopher and reformer, Confucius *(551 BC - 479 BC)*: "I hear and I forget. I see and I remember. I do and I understand". (www.quotationspage.com)

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INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNOLOGIES AND SOCIAL MEDIA: FIRST-PERSON VOICES IN TEACHER EDUCATION

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Abstract: *This paper discusses videoconferencing that facilitates perceptual and cultural interactions between and among students and faculty from various locations. The project offers real time videoconferencing in classes with students and teachers/scholars by providing a portal for direct conversations with those who come from diverse backgrounds pursuing different educational experiences. These discussions using virtual platforms, e-mails and social networking provide an intercultural experience not possible in other ways. Current technologies allow connections from many points in the world. This paper offers anecdotal data collected from perceptual surveys as students and faculty/scholar discussed topics such as: cultural identity and sub-grouping, gender issues, education, employment, immigration, and national similarities and dissimilarities. This is an on-going process and data continue to be collected for a longitudinal study as an indicator of applicability across wide educational and geographic distances.*

Key Words: technology, pre-service education, diversity, art education, *Skype*

Introduction

The *Skype Scholars* program is centered on the perceptual and cultural interactions between and among students and faculty from the Universidad Regiomontana in Monterrey, Mexico, and Missouri State University as well as various universities in the United States of America. This program exposed students to respected scholars and artists, who previously were not accessible. In contradiction to many opportunities available through on-line and blended courses which utilize discussion boards, this program brings scholars into the classroom setting with real-time interaction through videoconferencing. This interaction is designed to assimilate as closely as possible the process of a visiting scholar in physical space. Although not asynchronous like many on-line courses similarities do exist between the on-line and videoconferencing opportunities that are supported and facilitated by faculty, which is precisely the benefit of this specific videoconferencing opportunity. Once the visiting scholar is introduced to the students, then the scholar introduces the topic and engages with students in a fluid and flexible dialogic format.

Believing that students are comfortable with a variety of technology as forms of communication, we wanted to capitalize on the opportunity to deliver important course content through technology. And, as reported in the *Social Isolation and New Technology* (2009) overview, "This Pew Internet Personal Networks and Community survey finds that Americans are not as isolated as has been previously reported. People's use of the mobile phone and the internet is associated with larger and more diverse discussion networks" (¶3). Because the students in these art education classes are generally savvy with technology and developed social interactions naturally in this media, we wanted to bring scholars, artists, and diversity into the classroom environment via the internet from other parts of the country and globe. According to Glimps and Theron (2008),

> technology-based instruction, which includes the incorporation of sound instructional design and proven learning-centered techniques, is an important strategy to use when teaching students about diversity**.** Classrooms are populated with students who are conditioned to learn through multimedia and interactive resources. (p. 91)

The importance of connections through technology to increase understanding of others in distant locations is important. Though Skype

Scholars is not a blended course structure as discussed by Rovai and Jordan (2004) in their conclusion, the importance of expanding educational experiences from blended courses are similar to Skype Scholars videoconferencing as, "thinking less about delivering instruction and more about producing learning, reaching out to students through distance education technologies, and promoting a strong sense of community among learners" (p. 1) which are precisely the motivations for developing and maintaining the Skype Scholars program.

Selection of Scholars/Artists

Through various professional committees, Steve Willis had casual conversations with respected scholars and artists as to their willingness to visit his Critical Theory class via Skype. Some agreed immediately while others were a bit hesitant. The hesitation came from two directions: one, the scholar was not comfortable conversing with students through a microphone and screen; and two, some scholars did not know about Skype or how to utilize it. With some encouragement, all of the invited scholars and artists agreed to engage the students in the classroom.

Technology

Though Dr. Willis selected Skype as a mechanism to open digital doorways, there are many other quality products that will provide similar services, and according to Jeff Baker's (2011) review, "Skype is so far the number 1 pick because it has a good balance between video and audio quality. However its full screen video quality could be better" (p. 1).

The primary concern for videoconferencing was quality without additional expenses to the department. Because Skype is facile and free, Dr. Willis chose to use that as the primary tool for internet conferencing, which has been used in his classroom since 2009. For him, the technology has been unobtrusive, and fortunately, requires little technology experience to use.

As Baker (2011) pointed out, some problems still exist when the Skype conversation is fragmented, providing an irregular image, and broken audio. When investigating this, Dr. Willis was told that the low quality of audio and video was from too much digital information being transmitted over the bandwidth, so this could create some videoconferencing issues with intuitions that have less technical capacity. In two instances, even after reconnecting multiple times, the Skype conversation was terminated due to the inability of the scholar to be understood by the students. In most cases, when the Skype conversation was lost, we were able to reconnect and continue with the conversation and added time was possible. As can be noted by student narratives, the unpredictability of the technology was frustrating, but all felt that the benefit greatly outweighed the detriment. With more access to bandwidth at the university and with the visiting scholar in the 2011 sessions, there has been no interruption of the videoconferences and the audio and video allowed for easy conversation between the visiting scholar and the students.

Context and Background

As part of the effort to fulfill National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) Standard Four: Diversity, art education faculty are expected to prepare candidates, who can demonstrate and apply proficiencies related to diversity. Experiences provided for candidates include working with diverse populations, including higher education and P–12 school faculty, candidates, and students in P–12 schools" (p. 2). As a program, college, and university that follow NCATE requirements, we are in part responsible to provide more than minimum requirements and expectations of diversity to the students. However, regardless of NCATE or institutional requirements, we value the density of diverse perspectives and the various processes used by other artists and education scholars. With this motivation, Dr. Willis introduced *Skype Scholars* to the class: the voices of otherness delivered through technology. NCATE and institutional requirements were minor motivations for the introduction of the *Skype Scholars* program.

The university where we teach is located in the Midwest section of the United States and has some opportunities for students to engage with

diversity but not to the level we encourage and expect. Supporting this idea, Kingsley (2007) indicated that, "One of the most empowering uses of digital tools occurs when teachers possess the skills to identify, develop, and apply technology to recognize and validate the diverse backgrounds of their students" (p. 52). Though our students are predominately Anglo, it is through Skype, that the students could have first-hand experiences speaking with others about issues particular to their culture and educational background. For an introductory experiment, and for the cultural benefit for the students in the undergraduate art education class: *ART 460: Critical Studies in Art Education*, Dr. Willis asked selected scholars to participate in the *Skype Scholars* program. Each invited scholar was asked to present information they thought important for this type of class. He did not present any specific expectations of topics of discussion from the scholars nor did he want to impose his preferences.

From the list of many scholars, he invited Dr. Allan Richards from The University of Kentucky whose topic was *Expectations for Future Arts Education Teachers.* Dr. Fatih Benzer from South Dakota State University presented information on his *iconographic works inspired by ancient theologies, eastern miniatures, whirling dervishes, geometry, architecture, and minimalism.* Dr. Ryan Shin from the University of Arizona, presented *Ethnic minority visual culture study focusing on Asian visual object study,* while Dr. Elizabeth Delacruz from the University of Illinois presented *Native American Mascots, Equity, and Multi-literacy*. Ms. Zoe Charlton, a painter at the American University in Washington D.C. presented information on *Diaspora and Femininity: African-American Women.*

Through these conversations, the students experienced much more cultural density and educational experiences than could have been gained through text or the local communities. Since the university's area population, according to Area Connect (2011), is 91.69% Anglo, 3.2% African America, 2.31% Hispanic and .75% Native American, these encounters were important for a beginning understanding of differences and how this information impacts pedagogy, curriculum, and personal knowledge from first-hand experiences.

Skype Scholars **from Students' Perceptions**

Students overwhelmingly reported a positive experience with each scholar. Though there was no critical response required, students did provide a narrative reflecting their own impressions or first-person voices. In response to Dr. Fatih Benzer's presentation, Jennifer Busch wrote, "Hearing him speak about his [art] works was a lot more beneficial to understanding than looking at his web page and reading his statement." And, classmate, Denise Koch responded, "I like how Fatih uses his own culture to portray ideas and share semiotics. The use of semiotics could make a great multicultural lesson plan." Though similar in tone, each student responded in his or her own manner, undirected by course expectation. Angela Smith found that, "These pieces of art [Benzer] have more than one dynamic; [they are] both aesthetically pleasing and complex in their conceptuality.

Skype Scholars **from Scholars' Perceptions**

Being equally important to understanding the complexity and density of the videoconferencing exchange, Dr. Willis asked the scholars to reflect on the experience and provide feedback for consideration of future interactions. Because he has no budget for compensating the visiting scholars, he offers an exchange to converse with their students.

Dr. Shin responded that,

> I really enjoyed using Skype for exchanging lectures, and it worked great when you spoke to my students. It is a very good educational tool, so I believe that more people will use it for lectures and conferences in the near future. It worked well when you were introduced to my students and took questions. What a technology we have as a teaching tool! Now, I feel like I can invite any artist or person from around the world into the class. You are the first one I did, and I will continue to do this with you, and expand it to other the friends.

Dr. Benzer found the interaction potent and with a focus on future interactions, said,

> Skype provided an excellent opportunity for me to deliver the lecture followed by a real-time classroom discussion. I was able to experience the feel of being in a classroom without physically being there. Students were actively engaged in asking questions and having a face-to-face dialogue through video/audio. With ever increasing computer technology, I am sure Skype will be a very popular communication tool in distance learning/teaching.

Dr. Richards reported that,

> Skype opens up the possibilities and convenience for me as a scholar to assemble knowledge from all over the world. This makes the research more meaningful because I can now address current problems and concerns more effectively with the appropriate knowledge.

Survey

In order to verify observational and conversational data with students after each *Skype Scholar* interaction, Dr. Willis asked the students to voluntarily and anonymously respond to a simple perceptual survey (questions are listed in Table 1). In two different classes – one taught in the spring and one in the fall semesters from 2009 through 2011, 44 students participated in the Skype Scholars opportunities (13 students ART 460 Fall 2009, 12 student in ART 401, Spring 2010, 12 students ART 460, Fall 2010, 7 students in ART 401, Spring 2011). From those 44 participant responses in the table below, 93 percent agreed that "Conversing with other scholars through *Skype Scholars* is beneficial for the professional understanding." The remainder strongly agreed. When responding to "Scholars presented meaningful information for the profession and for me personally." There was a broader response with 50 percent strongly agreeing, 30 percent agreeing, and 10 percent each either neutral or disagreeing. Responding in the open section, two students replied, "Using Skype is a great way to talk with other scholars. I got a new perspective on different cultures. Very interesting." And, "I really enjoyed using [the] *Skype Scholars Program*. The only [bad] thing was when Skype was not clear and made it hard to understand. Besides that, I found it to be a meaningful experience."

Table 1

Student responses to perceptual survey about Skype Scholars. Because no responses for strongly disagree or do not know were registered, those categories were eliminated from the table.

		Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	Conversing with other scholars through *Skype Scholars* is beneficial for my professional understanding.	2	2	37	3
2.	Scholars presented meaningful information for my profession and for me personally.	4	5	13	22
3.	The scholars' presentation through *Skype* technology was appropriate, clear, and easy to understand.	34	0	5	5
4.	*Skype Scholars* should be continued in Art Education classes at Missouri State University.	0	0	22	22
5.	My cultural awareness was broadened through the *Skype Scholars* Program.	4	5	13	22

n=44

In a different course, *ART 401: Teaching of Art*, students had the opportunity to participate in three *Skype Scholars* sessions. One session was with Dr. Vivian Komando, a former art faculty at Phillips Exeter Academy, the second with Mr. Jerry Stefl, an art educator from the School of the Art Institute of Chicago, and the third was an unexpected opportunity for the students to participate in a class-to-class discussion about cultural stereotyping with students from the Universidad Regiomontana in Monterrey, Mexico.

With the interactions in *ART 401: Teaching of Art*, Dr. Willis specifically asked for narrative reflections on the experiences. He wanted a more controlled response to direct future course interactions. For this, he needed to know specific student comments so he could follow-up if clarity was required. He received no negative responses. The student responses (fig. 2) were not anonymous. Selected student responses below include the type and range of comments:

Allison Ackland-Coletta	I really enjoy being able to make connections with intellects in the field of art education from around the globe. It has been very insightful to hear about the experiences of people working in cities other than Springfield, Missouri.
Stephanie Brown	I have never participated in a Skype discussion before, so this was a first for me. I'm glad that we are using some class time to do this because I found it to be a great opportunity. The information she [Dr. Komando] shared was straight from the source and her experiences. It's harder to read about something like that and really understand it versus getting to hear it personally. Plus we had the advantage of being able to ask whatever questions we wanted to know and understand better, which made this such a great learning experience.
Cameron Brenton	Without *Skype Scholars,* a college student like me [may] find it hard to discover what is happening in the diverse educational systems across the nation.
Kristen Jarvis	Skype was a great tool that our class used to communicate with Dr. Komando. We were able to see her and communicate with her as though we were having an in-class speaker.
Jessica Kehl	It amazes me as to what knowledge students can gain through technology in the classroom
Carlynn Forst	Other topics of conversation included art schools and programs in the Chicago area…. Being one drawn to working with at-risk youth, I really valued the opportunity to meet with an educator [Jerry Stefl] with such experience. I have once again found an appreciation for the ability to conduct video conferences with fellow educators and hope this opportunity only becomes more available in the educational career.

Figure 1. Student responses to *Skype Scholars* from ART 401: Teaching of Art.

In comparison to the student perceptions, scholars had similar reactions. Mr. Stefl responded,

> The Skype experience, the first [time using this technology], was an interesting way of having a discussion with students from a different educational experience

> than the urban students I normally would have in a classroom. The questions proved to be insightful and to the point, which was very refreshing. The eagerness of the students to ask questions about urban educational experiences was something I would like to see expanded upon in the future.

Dr. Komando added,

> The opportunity to interact on a face to face protocol while being miles apart was a rich experience for me as I shared with the students. This opportunity opens the door for both the educator and the student to interact in such a personal manner and create valuable pedagogical moments via cyber space. This is light years beyond the Dick Tracy wrist watch imagined in the past millennium.

Application

Without difficulty, *Skype Scholars* or the equivalent could become common in many classrooms at many levels. This interaction is especially important where cultural diversity, gender expectations, language limitations, or geographic regions restrict interactions in the classroom. Teaching and learning though technology has been successfully employed for many years in many forms and locations, which include distance learning, ITV, interactive learning, blended technology, wiki, podcast, and other forms that best meet the needs of the student. In this situation, *Skype Scholars* opened doors previously closed, and, through the opening of many doors, more questions were asked than solutions presented. By organizing a program similar to *Skype Scholars*, and by guiding students through critical inquiry much can be accomplished that would not have been discovered otherwise. This understanding in a single site with 44 participants is reinforced by Gillies (2008) who noted

> Overall, students felt most engaged during videoconference sessions which had an element of interaction, where they were actively participating to some degree, where the topic was deemed to be important and practical, where there had been prior tasks to open up the issue. (p. 114)

We are happy to report that since the introduction of this program, this opportunity is utilized in three different levels of art education and education classes, as well as consideration in studio classes. The list of persons willing to visit the classroom via videoconferencing continues to grow, bringing a wealth of opportunities into the classroom.

With reduction of funds in many educational institutions, the application of this type of pedagogy seems beneficial in many ways. In order to offer *Skype Scholars* to the students Dr. Willis started by using a laptop computer, a hand-me-down digital projector that was provided when another program updated their technology, and a new webcam with microphone. If someone were to start with no equipment, the first time expense could be limiting, but by incorporating used equipment or commonly shared rooms, *Skype Scholars* should be readily available. In some classrooms, there already may be a desktop computer, a digital projector, and a webcam.

Conclusion

The visiting scholar could be a supplement to a literary, studio, or cultural experience to mention only a few, especially if the author or artist is available and willing to visit a classroom through Skype. This was precisely the connection that was established in the Critical Theory class. The students were assigned to read Delacruz's (2003) article *Racism American style and resistance to change: Art education's role in the Indian mascot issue*. As a result of their critical response papers and class conversations, the idea was broached by the students to invite Dr. Delacruz to chat with the class via Skype. Through email, Dr. Delacruz graciously agreed to the proposal. Not only was this a meaningful experience for the students during the conversation, but Dr. Delacruz invited them to continue the conversation with her through email.

Though there are certainly obstacles to introducing this type of experiences into the classroom because of internet access, school firewall protocols, quality of digital image and sound, and others, there are also many possibilities and opportunities for educators to embrace technology to provide a myriad of experiences that can be presented though a delivery that is seemingly natural for the 21st century Net-native student. Perhaps these types of experiences can be the catalyst to revisit and rethink both the curriculum and pedagogy found in many teaching environments not utilizing resources available through technology and programs like *Skype Scholars* that, at least in this situation, supports both the faculty and the students in the learning environment.

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All students in the art education courses gave permission for their names to be used in this article.

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Book Review

Chabris, C., & Simons, D. (2010). *The Invisible Gorilla and Other Ways Our Intuitions Deceive Us.* New York: Crown Publishers. (306 pages: ISBN:978-0-307-45965-7)

The recent ISfTE Norway seminar once again provided countless opportunities for participants to gain a clearer vision of the educational policies and practices of the host country, Norway, as well as to reexamine some of their existing educational assumptions. This book, *The Invisible Gorilla*, uses real life stories and scientific findings to prompt readers to reexamine the assumptions we have about how our minds work. The overarching conclusion of this book may surprise you: We think we see ourselves and the world as they really are, but our intuitions often deceive us. The findings in this book, besides being fascinating to read, have immense practical relevance for educators. If we can overcome, or at least realize we harbor faulty assumptions and intuitions about how we or our students think, we will be better equipped to educate teachers.

The Invisible Gorilla was written by two cognitive psychologists. Their goal is to help any reader, not just psychologists, to recognize and think about the illusions that permeate and often distort everyday living. The book, written in a witty, conversational style, documents six common, everyday illusions: the illusions of attention, memory, confidence, knowledge, cause, and potential. Each illusion is introduced through real life stories and then the authors back up their findings with scientific research and personal anecdotes. The notes section at the end of the book includes reference information on the stories and research described in each chapter for those who want to explore the topic in greater depth.

Before reading the first chapter in this book, go to www.invisiblegorilla.com/videos.html and watch the selective attention test video. Were you surprised by what you saw or did not see? In this chapter the authors relate incident after incident of people who are apparently looking, but not really seeing. Because of limits on our brains ability to fully pay attention, we often fail to see what we do not expect to see. "The illusion of attention happens when what we notice is different from what we *think* we notice" (p. 46). This inattentional blindness can explain how educators fail to notice giftedness in ESL students, bullying by the "nice" student, or countless other events in the classroom that were unexpected. An awareness that we may not notice what we think we will notice, may just help us pay more attention.

The chapter on the illusion of memory explains how most people believe that their brain accurately stores memories of what they experience, and thus most people think they have a pretty good memory of the events that happen to them personally. In reality, people make sense of what happens to them and then their memory recreates what they expected to happen. One experiment demonstrated this principle. Subjects were asked to wait in a graduate student office and then taken to another room where they were asked to write down everything they remembered seeing in the office. Thirty percent recalled seeing books and 10 percent recalled seeing file cabinets although neither was actually in the office. "We cannot play back our memories like a DVD-each time we recall a memory, we integrate whatever details we do remember with our expectations for what we should remember" (p.49). As educators, an understanding of the illusion of memory underscores how critical it is to keep accurate records written as the event happens because over time our brain recreates the event to reflect what we thought should have happened.

The chapter on the illusion of confidence describes how people tend to equate a person's level of confidence with a person's level of ability or expert knowledge. The more confident a person appears, the greater the perceived level of ability or expert knowledge for that person. In actuality, the confidence people express is more

a reflection of their personality than their knowledge or ability. Educators need to be aware of this when dealing not only with students, but co-workers and administrators. An awareness that confidence can falsely elevate perceived ability is important to remember in many educational settings.

Most educators have heard students moan after doing poorly on an exam, "I thought I knew the material." The chapter on the illusion of knowledge examines how people confuse surface familiarity with information with genuine knowledge. In a classroom this illusion of knowledge results in students confusing their familiarity of the content with an in-depth of understanding of that content, and teachers thinking the students know the subject matter well, only to discover that the students do not really know the content as well as the teachers thought.

The illusion of cause is when people jump to conclusions about cause because one event happened right before or at the same time as another event. "Our minds are built to detect meaning in patterns, to infer causal relationships from coincidences, and to believe that earlier events cause later ones" (p. 153). People remember stories and compelling anecdotes about events and then perceive a causal link. Educators need to help students in all subjects realize that correlation doesn't imply causation.

The illusion of potential suggests that there are easy, quick fix methods to increase mental ability. Advertisers have spent thousand of dollars to entice consumers to purchase products of dubious value because of this illusion. If educators understand this illusion, they can help students understand this fallacy about the mind and instead develop real expertise by effective study and practice, not gimmicks.

Reading this book can be a first step to help educators and those of us who teach current and future educators see through these everyday illusions. Ignorance of these illusions can hamper our effectiveness as educators and individuals.

Reviewed by

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Publication Guidelines

The journal (*JISTE*) publishes articles by members of the International Society for Teacher Education (ISfTE). Exceptions are made for a non-member who is a co-author with a member, or who is invited to write for a special issue of the journal, or for other special reasons.

Articles submitted to *JISTE* must be written in English, following manuscript guidelines (see below) and will be anonymously reviewed by referees. Each article must pass the review process to be accepted for publication. The editors will notify the senior author of the manuscript if it does not meet submission requirements.

Articles are judged for (a) significance to the field of teacher education from a global perspective, (b) comprehensiveness of the literature review, (c) clarity of presentation, and (d) adequacy of evidence for conclusions. Research manuscripts are also evaluated for adequacy of the rationale and appropriateness of the design and analysis. Scholarly relevance is crucial. Be sure to evaluate your information. Articles should move beyond description to present inquiry, critical analysis, and provoke discussion.

Articles pertaining to a particular country or world area should be authored by a teacher educator from that country or world area.

All manuscripts accepted for publication will be edited to improve clarity, to conform to style, to correct grammar, and to fit available space. Submission of the article is considered permission to edit to article.

Published manuscripts become the property of the *Society*. Permission to reproduce articles must be requested from the editors. The submission and subsequent acceptance of a manuscript for publication serves as the copyright waiver from the author(s).

Manuscript Guidelines

- Manuscript length, including all references, tables, charts, or figures, should be 3,000 to 5,000 words. **Maximum length is 5,000 words.** Shorter pieces of 1500-3,000 words, such as policy review or critique papers are welcomed.

- All text should be double-spaced, with margins 1 inch (2.5 cm) all around and left justified only.

- Paragraphs should be indented using the "tab" key on the keyboard. No extra spacing should be between paragraphs.

- Tables, Figures, and Charts should be kept to a minimum (no more than 4 per article) and sized to fit between 5.5 x 8.5 inches or 14 x 20 cm.

- Abstract should be limited to 100-150 words.

- Include four or five keywords for database referencing; place immediately after the abstract.

- Cover page shall include the following information: Title of the manuscript; name(s) of author, institution(s), complete mailing address, email address, business and home (mobile) phone numbers, and fax number. Also on the cover page, please include a brief biographical sketch, background, and areas of specialisation for each author. Please do not exceed 30 words per author.

- Writing and editorial style shall follow directions in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed., 2009). References MUST follow the APA style manual. Information on the use of APA style may be obtained at www.apa.org.

Future Submissions

2012 (Volume 16, Number 2)
Open submission – Members of ISfTE are invited to contribute manuscripts related to any important topic in teacher education. Members are encouraged to co-author articles with their students or colleagues who may not be members of ISfTE. Articles that explore teacher education issues such as the practicum, mentoring in other disciplines (e.g. nursing, adult education, social work education) are particularly invited. Such articles should explore the discourse in relationship to teaching at the elementary, secondary, or tertiary (college/university) level.
Deadline for Submission: February 29, 2012

2013 (Volume 17, Number 1)
***Theme* – Educating for Gross National Happiness: The Role of Teachers**
This is the theme of the seminar in Bhutan hosted by the Paro College of Education of the Royal University of Bhutan. Participants (including those from the Distance Paper Group) are invited to revise their seminar papers, attending carefully to the manuscript and publication guidelines, and submit them to the journal for consideration. Book reviewed on the theme are invited.
Deadline for submission: September 1, 2012

2013 (Volume 17, Number 2)
Open submission – Members of ISfTE are invited to contribute manuscripts related to any important topic in teacher education. Members are encouraged to co-author articles with their students or colleagues who may not be members of ISfTE. Articles that explore teacher education issues such as the practicum, mentoring in other disciplines (e.g. nursing, adult education, social work education) are particularly invited. Such articles should explore the discourse in relationship to teaching at the elementary, secondary, or tertiary (college/university) level.
Deadline for Submission: January 1, 2013

2014 (Volume 18, Number 1)
Theme – to be determined
This seminar will be held in Hong Kong hosted by the Hong Kong Baptist University. Participants (including those from the Distance Paper Group) are invited to revise their seminar papers, attending carefully to the manuscript and publication guidelines, and submit them to the journal for consideration. Book reviewed on the theme are invited.
Deadline for submission: September 1, 2014

Book and Other Media Review Submission

Reviews of books or other educational media are welcome. Either the review or the item reviewed must be by a current member of ISfTE. Reviews must be no longer than 1000 words.

Annotation of Recent Publications by Members Submission

ISfTE members may submit an annotated reference to any book which they have published during the past three years. Annotation should be no longer than 150 words.

Submission Requirements

It is preferred that articles be submitted directly to the editor, Karen Bjerg Petersen at kp@dpu.dk. To submit an article by email, send it as an attachment using MS Word, if at all possible.

You may also send article by fax to +45 8888 9231. Or you may submit by mail by sending a printed manuscript and a copy on either a computer disk or flash drive. Printed manuscripts and storage items will not be returned.

Manuscripts and editorial correspondence should be directed to:

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Front cover: These institutions' logos appear on the front cover of this issue.

The **University of Agdar** in Kristiansand, Norway, was formally established in September, 2007. This regional university came into being after six public regional colleges were merged in 1994. Currently, over 8,000 students attend the university.

Weber State University in Ogden, Utah, United States, was founded in 1889. It is a coeducational, publicly supported university offering professional, liberal arts, and technical certificates, as well as associate, bachelor's and master's degrees. Currently, over 25,000 students attend the university.

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